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**The journal of the mexican association
of teachers of english
to speakers of other languages**

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TEACHER TRAINING IN MEXICO:
MEETING OUR NEEDS

Marcela Díaz Zubieta
Gloria Torrano
Leslie Adams

Instituto Anglo-Mexicano
de Cultura
Mexico City

During the last ten years, public schools offering English courses have been confronted with ever-increasing numbers of students requiring instruction. Not only has the student population in secondary schools grown, but new schools where English is a part of the compulsary programme of studies are constantly being opened all over the Mexican Republic. This situation has led school authorities to employ teachers who can understand English and make themselves understood in the language only at a very elementary level. Furthermore, these teachers have little, if any idea of English teaching methodology. Most of them are aware of their limitations and lack of preparation, and sooner or later seek assistance in dealing with the problems that arise daily in their classrooms. They usually feel that a teacher training course is the solution. They may or may not be correct, depending upon the type of training course they select.

In general, existing teacher training courses are unsuitable for these teachers, because of factors such as their cost and schedule, their focus and duration, and the level of English which is required of the students. Training courses often require a team of trainers, thus making them less profitable for institutions to provide. The higher cost is usually passed on to the students. Moreover, the courses are often general in design and spend a lot of time dealing with matters not directly related to the needs of practising secondary teachers. Finally, the level of English required for a lot of courses is quite high; not only are lectures and discussions conducted in English, but the techniques and activities provided also presuppose the teacher's ability to control his classroom English.

After an examination of existing courses, including those offered at their own institution, the authors concluded that there was a need for the creation of an in-service training course which would address itself to the problems of secondary teachers who have had little or no previous training.

GENERAL DESIGN

At the present time, the course consists of one hundred hours of instruction and observed practice, spread over a four-month period. No more than thirty students are permitted to enrol in a given course and each course has two full-time trainers. Early afternoon was found to be the most suitable time for secondary school teachers. A minimum "elementary" level of English was set as a pre-requisite; lectures and discussions are conducted in either very simple English or in Spanish. The latter language is also used for clarifying concepts other than those directly related with the English language itself. The aims of the course are

(a) to improve the teacher's control and understanding of the limited structures and vocabulary included in the three-year syllabus for Educación Media Básica (Secundaria) published by the Consejo Nacional Técnico, S.E.P.;

(b) to provide him with techniques for efficient practice of those structures; and

(c) to offer activities which are entertaining and yet feasible for him to organise, given a large class and his own limited flexibility in the language.

CONTENT

The first of these aims is perhaps the most essential. The second and the third depend rather heavily on the control of structures and vocabulary. For this reason, the analysis of structures together with intensive practice became the core of the course. Through a thorough study of the patterns covered in the official syllabus, the teachers are taught to plan their lessons in such a way that chances for mistakes and problems are reduced to a minimum. The teachers in training learn to look at a

given structure with the eyes not only of the teacher
but of the students as well. They gradually develop an
awareness of problems in phonology, lexis, morphology,
syntax and spelling and learn to distinguish between a
simple "grammatical" mistake and an interference problem.
To help teachers analyse the patterns which they must
teach, a special form was designed. An example is reproduced
on the next page.

Column one of the form deals with the structure
itself and the logical sequence of its transforms. In the
sample given, for example, the next transform dealt with will
be   Are they books?   Yes, they are/No, they aren't.

Phonetic representations are given under each transform and
simple symbols for stress and intonation are included to help
the teacher give natural models.

Column two deals with the concept or usage of each
structure. There are usually three numbers in columns two,
three and four. In column two, number one attempts to
clarify the idea expressed by the structure; number two
points out the problems of concept or usage which may arise
either because of a similar structure in English or because of
first language interference; number three lists the possible
solutions to such problems.

Column three deals with the form of the structure.
In this column, number one tells the teacher in grammatical
symbols what elements the pattern consists of. The number
two in this column present possible problems of form,
pronunciation, stress or intonation. As before, number three
suggests solutions.

The function of the fourth column is to offer situations
(contexts) for the presentation of the structure and some
suitable aids for practising it. Problems of finding
suitable situations often arise and these are pointed out,
as well as their possible solutions.

LANGUAGE LABORATORY

To consolidate the structures he is studying, the student
teacher is required to attend laboratory sessions, which
are designed to help him improve his pronunciation, stress

1. Pattern 2. Phonetic script	1. Concept & usage 2. Problems 3. Recommendations	1. Form 2. Problems 3. Recommendations	1. Situations & aids 2. Problems 3. Recommendations
They're pens. ðeə penz	1. Identification of two or more objects of the same type. 2. The pronoun they is used for things and persons (students may think objects only). Idea of plural. 3. Show one object first, then two or three to establish idea of plural. Use both objects and persons. Check questions: "what?" or false statement.	1. P + vb + N 2. Form : plurals a) ending: -s or -es, or ves or -es. b) irregulars: men, oxen etc. c) addition of plural ending. Absence of article. They are ⓐpens 3. Group nouns according to endings. Don't mix endings in presentation. Say sentence slowly at first. Repeat at normal speed for choral repetition. 2. Pronunciation a) Plurals: /s/, /z/, /IZ/ etc. 3. Repeat individual nouns slowly. etc.	1. classroom situation realia flash-cards cut-outs blackboard drawings 2. Students may think form refers to 2 objects only. 3. Be sure to show objects not only in twos.

and intonation.   These sessions run parallel with the analysis of structure and practice sessions. The intention is to give the student teacher confidence in his own oral production before he has to stand in front of students and teach them.

PRACTICE SESSIONS

The practice sessions are conducted in two ways, namely peer practice and practice with real students.   The former is introduced immediately and the latter during the second week of classes.

Peer practice, in the early part of the course, is held after a demonstration by one of the course tutors.   During these demonstrations the trainees are exposed to a "micro-section" of a class and its inherent steps.   After the demonstration, the trainees are divided into groups of no more than five to practise in turns the same section they have just seen demonstrated.   One of the trainees acts as the teacher, the rest of the group as students. While this is in progress, the trainers circulate from group to group to check whether the practice is accurate, to help and encourage the trainees.

Practice with real students is held once a week. In these sessions, each trainee has to teach a set part of a lesson. The teaching time per trainee increases during the course until trainees teach 30 minutes without interruption. The groups of students are usually secondary school students wanting free, extra English classes. The reality of the situation provides the trainees with the immediate necessity to put into practice what they have been learning.

The weekly practices are immediately followed by a . round table discussion.   During the round table, each trainee evaluates his own performance. Other trainees then add their observations before the course tutor who has watched the class adds any points which may have been missed.   The trainee is given a carbon copy of the tutor's observations, plus a grade.   In this way, trainers learn to watch themselves and others critically and to accept criticism from other teachers.

LESSON PLANNING

About half-way through the course, student teachers are asked to submit lesson plans of their practice sessions. These lesson plans contain detailed explanations of the situation, visual aids and model sentences to be used for presenting a structure. Structural, lexical and phonological problems have to be stated, as well as the solutions which the trainee intends to employ.

Before writing lesson plans, students are also asked to consider the following points:

(a) the age and sex of the group plus their areas of interest;

(b) the size of the group and the quantity of material which can be covered in a class of 60 minutes;

(c) the average ability of the students and the difficulty of the structures being taught;

(d) the attention span of the students and the possible changes of activity;

(e) textbook material which can be used for classroom practice or set as homework.

With these points in mind, the trainee is ready to plan the content of his lesson. First, he must think of a situation (or context) in which the pattern he must teach would naturally occur and which transmits the meaning of the pattern clearly. As mentioned earlier, the situation should be one which will interest the students. Next, he must carefully construct his model sentences, paying close attention to sentence length, vocabulary and possible pronunciation problems such as consonant clusters. The following are examples taken from the course material.

> To teach the simple past tense a trainee decides that a good situation would be "Christopher Columbus and the Discovery of America". This situation seems to clearly demonstrate the use and meaning of the past tense. The student selects, among others, these model sentences:
> a) Christopher Columbus discovered America on October 12th, 1492.
> b) He founded the first city in the New World.
>
> Problems: Sentence a) epitomises meaning but it is too long; the pronunciation of discovered and twelfth are difficult.

The length of sentence b) is acceptable, but oral
production will be slowed down because of the
consonant cluster in founded the and the pronunciation
of first and world. Furthermore, the usefulness of
the verb to found is questionable (not to mention the
confusion with the past tense of find).

To teach the simple past tense, a trainee chooses the
situation: "What Mike did on his holiday".
One of his model sentences is

Mike skated in Spain.

The problems here are with the consonant clusters ksk
and nsp. Although this sentence is very short, these
two clusters will take a long time to produce accurately
and the students' attention will be drawn to pronunciation
problems, distracting them from the structure.

The following is a sample of the format for lesson plans
used by trainees on the course.

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN.

DATE:	February 10th., 1978
LEVEL OF CLASS:	Second year of secundaria.
DESCRIPTION OF CLASS:	55 students, the majority 14 years old. A few good, some slow, the rest average. Class of 50 minutes, three times a week.
PREVIOUS CLASS:	Further practice of CAN/CAN'T
OBJECTIVES:	Present affirmative form of the simple past. Students to produce correct, meaningful statements using some time expressions
SITUATION / MODELS:	An evening in the life of Donny and Marie Osmond. 1.LAST SATURDAY, Donny and Marie went to a restaurant. 2.Donny ate fish. 3.Marie ordered chicken. 4.Etc.
VISUAL AIDS:	Blackboard drawings

ANTICIPATED PROBLEMS AND SOLUTIONS:	Here the trainee lists: a) lexical b) phonological c) structural
PROCEDURES:	
1. about 5 minutes	Revision of WAS and WERE while presenting new vocabulary (to lay the ground for the new pattern)
2. 20 to 30 minutes	Presentation and first practice of the simple past. Trainee gives a condensed version of the steps he will follow.
3. about 10 minutes	Second practice in a class-room situation, using the same verbs. Personalisation (true personal examples). e.g.Yesterday my mother and father went to a restaurant.
4. about 5 minutes	writing practice
FOR NEXT LESSON:	Further practice of the same pattern in a different situation.
HOMEWORK:	From the textbook if the students are ready for it.

VISUAL AIDS

Training in the production and use of visual aids is an important part of this course. In addition to making classes more interesting and enjoyable, good visual aids help students to associate language items with people and events in the aids, rather than learning them as abstractions.

Teachers in the public secondary system in Mexico generally have very few visual aids at their disposal. It is therefore necessary to give suggestions and demonstrations regarding their design, construction and handling. Throughout the course, trainees are asked to produce their own aids for use in practice sessions.   In this way, they build up a bank of visual material for use in their own classroom.   Care is taken to ensure that aids are multi-purpose whenever possible so that the benefit obtained from the expenditure of money, time and effort is maximised.

The other obvious solution to the shortage of visual material in schools is the use of the blackboard. Most trainees are afraid at first of drawing on the blackboard. The realisation that they do not have to be artists, that a clumsy drawing can amuse as well as instruct students can bring trainees to see the distinct advantages and many go

beyond a simple rudimentary skill.

LARGE CLASSES AND GROUP WORK

In our secondary schools, classes of fifty or sixty students are common. In a class of this size, if the teacher never utters a word, and the class begins and ends exactly on time, the total production time for each individual student will be one minute. Trainees are therefore taught four ways of handling oral practice in large groups. The first is choral work, which should be used in moderation as it has the disadvantages of being noisy and unnatural, causing distortion in stress and intonation. In addition, students can repeat mistakes unheeded by the teacher.

The second is pair work, in which the students practise making statements or, perhaps more commonly, asking and answering questions. Unfortunately, in many classrooms the chairs are fixed to the floor and students cannot move freely to form small groups for pair work or for the third activity, which is group work. In using group work, trainees are shewn how to organise group work with leaders, who, if properly trained, can be of great help to the teacher. Finally, trainees are taught to design practice activities which can be performed by leaderless groups, and quickly checked later by the teacher.

Obviously, these activities create the need for all kinds of visual materials, but trainees often find they can teach their students to produce some of the aids for group work themselves. Trainees are also shewn how to use the tape recorder for individual practice and group work. Little emphasis is placed on this as such expensive aids are rarely available to the trainees in their own classrooms.

FURTHER PRACTICE ACTIVITIES

Communication has become one of the principal aims in language teaching. It cannot be achieved merely by the presentation and controlled practice of language items. Teachers must therefore engage in further practice activities, that is, the combination of newly presented and practised items with better known structures in new contexts and with different vocabulary. Ideally, communication takes place without external props but it is unrealistic to expect students to take part in "free communication". Teachers are

therefore encouraged to use visual aids, everyday situational topics, and specific formats for eliciting longer sentences or multiple responses.   Because of the teachers' limitations in English, the activities which comprise further practice have been carefully selected; in general, they are ones in which most language items can be anticipated. They include dialogues, oral and written composition, games and multi-phase drills.

EVALUATION AND HANDLING OF TEXTBOOKS

Along with the new syllabus from the S.E.P. have come a number of textbooks approved by the Consejo Nacional Técnico. These two developments have removed the burden of selecting and grading structures and vocabulary from administrators and co-ordinators who were frequently unqualified to make sound judgements in this area.   In addition, it is no longer necessary to train student teachers to evaluate textbooks on the basis of the selection and grading of structures. Instead, trainees are helped to evaluate the textbooks approved by the S.E.P. on the following bases:

(a)   Interest: does the content appeal to a wide range of students' interests?   Is the interest maintained throughout the book?

(b)   Presentation: is the book clearly organised and laid out?   Are the instructions clear?   Are the visuals attractive?   Are the dialogues and texts realistic and entertaining?   Are there vocabulary and structure lists?

(c)   Exercises: is there a variety to develop the four language skills?   Is the challenge appropriate?   Can some be set for homework?   Are the instructions clear?

(d)   Extra material: is the book accompanied by readers, wall-charts, workbooks, tapes, a teachers' book?

Since student teachers in the course are taught to use a basically structural-situational approach, they are given practice in adapting textbook material for suggested activities. Trainees are encouraged to use textbook material as often as possible.   A suitable textbook can be of enormous help to a busy teacher.

EVALUATION AND TESTING

Evaluation is emphasised in this course from the very beginning. Trainees are helped not only to evaluate their students' progress with conventional tests, but to evaluate every step of the way from the planning of their lesson, to the students' daily production, to when the students sit for a final examination. Trainees are expected to be flexible and this depends on the minute-to-minute evaluation of the students' performance. In order to make judgements about challenge, for example, they must constantly be making judgements about the students' ability to understand and to produce reasonably accurate utterances. They learn not to go ahead with the next planned activity if the students are not producing well. They have to be ready to retrace their steps, to re-present if necessary. They are also asked to evaluate students' progress from one class to the next.

Consideration of testing is confined to achievement tests. Again, trainees are confronted with their limited knowledge of the language. Since, however, teachers are often expected to produce their own tests, they are given as much help as possible.

Attention is confined to two types of test item: multiple choice items and fill-in (completion) items. The former have the advantage of containing distractors which are predictable structural items. Such tests can be answered rapidly and thus contain a large number of items. Scoring is also rapid, a great advantage for a teacher with eight groups, each with fifty students. The disadvantage of this kind of test is that it requires considerable skill on the part of the teacher in its preparation.

The spaces in a completion test are also structural items. However, it is difficult to devise a test in such a way that only one answer is possible for each item. Where there are several possible answers for each item, the marking of the test becomes a much more difficult task for the teacher.

The characteristics of a good test (validity and reliability) are discussed in this course. Trainees study sample tests and then produce parallel items.

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SUPPORTING SUBJECTS

In addition to the elements which have been outlined above, the course contains short units on the following topics: language acquisition theory, structural grammar and phonetic transcription. As these subjects are dealt with at length in general teacher training courses, and as their direct relevance to the secondary teacher is questionable, it is felt advisable to provide only an introduction in this course.

CONCLUSION

The authors are well aware that a course such as this, with limited objectives and deliberate omissions, is susceptible to the criticisms of rigidity, over-simplification and misrepresentation. The authors do not wish to imply that the graduates of such a course are fully qualified English teachers. It was felt, however, that an attempt to deal with the existing situation should be made, and objectives were set on the basis of how much these practising teachers could reasonably be expected to achieve. Their major shortcomings were held to be the inability to understand, pronounce and control the structures they were teaching, their lack of techniques for organising and monitoring practice in large groups and their limited range of classroom activities.

Graduates of the course report that their classes have improved in these areas, and that as a result, they were able to cover the material in the syllabus more rapidly. The students seemed to be more interested and their performance on standard school exams had improved. The trainees themselves are surprisingly keen to continue their English studies and to enroll in a higher level, general teachers course, which they feel may ultimately enable them to teach at a higher level. This latter ambition strikes an ominous note, implying as it does that only inexperienced teachers with a low level of English are willing to put up with the conditions in secondary schools. This, in turn, implies that courses such as described above will be needed for some time to come.

The course is now being offered for the fourth time. Each semester has brought changes in design. It is to be hoped that future basic in-service training courses will become increasingly more sensitive to the needs of the teachers they serve, until such a time when such courses are no longer necessary.

ESL AS POST-CRITICAL PERIOD LEARNING[1]

Stephen D. Krashen
Department of Linguistics
University of Southern California

For the last two years, I have been working on a general model of adult post-critical period learning. (Post-critical period learning is simply adult attempts to learn things or internalize skills that children seem to learn more easily.) The kind of post-critical period learning that has been of most concern to me is adult second language learning, and I would like to sketch some of the progress that has been made in constructing such a model, and also indicate the applicability of the model to skills other than language.

The model to be described here for language attempts to do two things: First, it attempts to account for previous experimental data and to predict new data. Second, it attempts to be consistent with our intuitions about good second language teaching. It is thus not an exercise in "applied linguistics." I am, rather, using my experience as an ESL teacher, teacher trainer, and second language student as input to the theoretical model.

The central concepts of the model are two ways of internalizing linguistic generalizations, acquisition and learning. Acquisition refers to the subconscious representation of rules, and is the way children "pick up" both first and second languages. While we see some individual variation in the rate of language acquisition among children (Brown, 1973; Fillmore, 1976), success in child language acquisition, barring physical damage to the brain and sociological or psychological barriers, seems to be inevitable. For at least child second language acquisition, these variations in rate may be related to personality factors--some outgoing children may aggresively seek out environments that facilitate acquisition and thus progress faster (see e.g. Fillmore, 1976). We may thus not have to posit any significant individual differences in the "language acquisition device" to explain such variation.

Another characteristic of acquisition is that it does not seem to require or even profit from overt teaching, either in the form of explicit syntactic rules, or error correction. Brown and his colleagues have found, for example, that the parents they studied did not pay much attention to syntactic form, but instead tended to correct errors of fact (Brown, Cazden, and Bellugi, 1973). In another study, it was found that grammatically deviant child utterances communicated as well as well-formed utterances, indicating that there is no clear communication pressure influencing syntactic development. (Brown & Hanlon, 1970) Cazden (1965; see also discussion in Cazden, 1972) failed to demonstrate that error correction in the form of "expansions," or corrected repetitions, aided progress in first language acquisition more than simple verbal interaction.

Data from the child second language acquisition literature is also consistent with the hypothesis that overt teaching plays no necessary role in child language acquisition. Fathman (1975) compared children who had taken extra ESL classes with those who had not, and found no difference between these two groups in proficiency in English as a second language, as measured by her SLOPE test, an oral measure. Similar data is reported by Hale and Budar (1970). Fillmore (1976), in her study of kindergarten age second language acquirers, reports that English native speaking American friends of the ESL acquirers helped in many ways: they used simpler vocabulary, made maximum use of extra-linguistic context, and often provided models. They did not, however, correct syntactic errors.

Some things that adults, or caretakers, or other native speakers of the target language do may be of great help, however. There have been several studies that show that adults tend to simplify their speech to children (Snow, 1972; for a review, see Cazden, 1972). In addition, Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975) present evidence that suggests that the child second language acquirer receives significantly simpler input than the older acquirer, and they speculate that this difference may be a major factor in predicting observed child-adult differences in second language attainment.

Still another characteristic of acquisition is the lack of meta-awareness of the rule system internalized by the performer. When we use the term "rule" to describe the child's linguistic competence, it is not asserted that the child consciously understands the grammatical principle involved. As Brown has stated: "In saying that a child acquires construction rules, one cannot, of course, mean that he acquires them in any explicit form; the pre-school child cannot tell you any linguistic rules at all." (p.122) (See also Slobin, 1971, pp. 53-55.) There have been some recent reports that indicate that older children may develop some meta-linguistics awareness.

Their conscious grammatical knowledge, however, appears to be 〈 limited (e.g. rules such as plural marking and number agreement). See Hatch (1976) and Cazden (1975).

Finally, the acquisition process is thought to be governed by universal strategies available to all acquirers (Slobin, 1973; Ervin-Tripp, 1973). The presence of these universals explains the clear similarities researchers have found among children acquiring the same language (Brown, 1973; Dulay and Burt, 1975) and even among children acquiring different language (Slobin, 1973).

Language <u>learning</u>, the conscious internalization of rules, differs from acquisition in several important ways. First, it is clearly not inevitable . The learner's success, or rather, his degree of success depends on several factors, some of which are intelligence, diligence, and the clarity of the presentation of the rule by the text or teacher. Individual differences in learning may also be due to differences in cognitive style (Krashen, Seliger, and Hartnett, 1974).

While over-teaching in the form of rules and error correction is apparently not useful for acquisition, such teaching is thought to be quite useful for learning (Krashen and Seliger, 1975).

Linguists' ambiguous use of the term "grammar" (Chomsky, 1965) parallels the difference between acquisition and learning. The acquired grammar is equivalent to the native speaker's tacit know-ledge of a language (note that children who have acquired a second language also have this tacit knowledge, and it will be argued be-low that adult second language performers also have tacit knowlege of their second language), while learning is the same as the linguists' description of this knowledge.

I have listed elsewhere in detail (Krashen, in press) the evi-dence that suggests that adults, as well as children, are able to acquire language. Briefly, this evidence comes from four sources: (1) studies that claim that informal linguistic environments are quite efficient in increasing second language proficiency in adults; for complete discussion, see Krashen (1976) or (in press).(2) Evi-dence that adults can acquire aspects of interlinguistic codes used by second language speakers, without having any meta-awareness of the grammatical rules of the code ("foreigner talk"; see Hatch, 1976). (3) Psycholinguistic studies in which adults demonstrate competence in artificial languages without explicit learning of the rules (Braine, 1971; Reber, 1976). (4) The finding of the child's difficulty order for aspects of grammar in adult second language performance.

The last part of this evidence for adult acquisition deserves some clarification and discussion, as it also provides insight· into the operation of the Monitor Model, a model that specifies the relationship between acquisition and learning in adult second language performance.

Brown (1973) found a very similar order of acquisition for 14 grammatical morphemes, or functors, in children acquiring English as a first language: Certain morphemes, like the progressive marker ing and the plural marker / s/, tended to be mastered earlier than other morphemes, like the third person singular / s/ ending on regular verbs in the present tense, and the possessive / s/ marker. Brown's longitudinal results were confirmed cross-sectionally by de Villiers and de Villiers (1973): Those morphemes that were correctly supplied earlier also tended to be used more correctly at a given point in time. In a series of papers, Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974, 1975) reported that five to eight year old children acquiring English as a second language also share a common difficulty order. The order obtained was not identical to that found for first language acquisition, but there was striking agreement between different groups of acquirers in Dulay and Burt's sample, and the first language of the subjects did not affect the difficulty order found.

Two studies reported difficulty orders for adults second language performers that were quite similar to the child second language order. Bailey, Madden, and Krashen (1974) and Larsen-Freeman (1975) obtained these results using Dulay and Burt"s elicitation instrument, the Bilingual Syntax Measure (Burt, Dulay and Hernandez, 1973), and Larsen-Freeman (1975) also found the "natural order" using adult subjects on an imitation task. As in the child studies, no effect of first language was reported. Larsen-Freeman (1975) reported, however, that the "natural order," or the child's order, was not present for adult subjects when different measures were used, specifically when pencil and paper tasks (reading, writing, and listening) were used. I hypothesized then (Krashen, 1975, 1976) that this result was due to the particular way acquisition and learning are interrelated in the adult.

I have suggested that acquired competence is utilized for basic utterance initiation for all acquirers, children and adults. Many adults, however, utilize conscious linguistic knowledge as a Monitor. The Monitor is used by the performer when the emphasis is on form and not just communication, and when the performer has sufficient time to apply this knowledge "about language" to this output. (Note that the essence of the Monitor Model is that conscious linguistic knowledge is available only as a Monitor. It is possible, however, to monitor, or edit, using acquired compet-

ence as well. Native speakers do this when they correct slips, of the tongue. (See Slobin, 1971, pp.53-55.) Larsen-Freeman's results, then, can be easily interpreted in terms of this model: When subjects focus on form and are given sufficient processing time to allow the conscious grammar to intrude, the natural order is disturbed, as more than just acquisition is involved in producing the utterance. The intrusion of the monitor causes predictable changes in the rank order: Items that are easily learned but that are acquired relatively late, such as the third person singular ending /s/ or the regular past morpheme, rise in rank, while the article, which is fairly difficult to learn but acquired relatively early, falls in rank (details in Krashen, in press).

The Monitor model is also valuable in describing at least one kind of individual variation in adult second language performance. In Krashen (in press), performers are classified as Monitor optimal users, over-users, and under-users. Briefly, the optimal user employs the Monitor, or edits, when it does not interfere with communication--i.e. when it is appropriate to do so. Interestingly, we demand more accuracy in just those situations when it is possible to Monitor more, for example in written language and in formal speech. The optimal user monitors just at these times.

In contrast, the over-user tries to use rules all the time. This results in an overcareful, hesitant style of speech. Covitt and Stafford's subject "S" (Covitt and Stafford, 1976; described in Krashen, in press) is such an over-user. She says that she speaks very little because she tries to remember the rules all the time: "I feel bad . . . when I put words together and I don't know nothing about the grammar." Such performers typically show relatively better written performances.

The under-user appears to rely solely on acquisition. These performers appeal only to their "feel" for language and are typically immune to error correction, as are first language acquirers. Covitt and Stafford (1976) make the interesting point that some under-users may pay lip-service to the value of rules, but in reality utilize them little if at all in performance.

Other Post-Critical Period Learning

The acquisition-learning distinction, and the Monitor model, appear to fit other forms of adult post-critical period learning. There has been some serious thought recently on this topic with the current growth of interest in physical fitness among adults: Many adults are now taking up sports they did not pursue as children, and professional teachers are thinking more carefully about the best ways of teaching athletic skills to these students.

Before proceeding to a discussion of one of these careful
analyses, let me first present my own case. About ten years
ago, I became interested in the Martial Arts, another popular form
of post-critical period learning. My failure, I now believe, was
due to two factors, one related to learning and one to acquisition.
First, I thought I would progress solely by learning: I analyzed
every step of every movement, focussed entirely on form, and
found myself unable to perform with any speed or agility. Second,
I did not get as much input as my more successful classmates.
Many of the others clearly enjoyed fighting more than I did. They
saw Bruce Lee movies. They stayed around the gym after the lesson,
casually watching advanced students sparring. They sparred with
each other, something which I avoided, both for fear of getting
hurt and for fear of practicing errors. When I practiced, I
carefully went over the moves step by step, and tried to avoid
errors. My classmates were apparently unworried about their
errors and felt their mistakes would work themselves out. In terms
of the model, I over-relied on learning and denied acquisition. I
had no faith in the acquisition process, and did not provide myself
with suitable environments so that acquisition could take place.
Most martial arts skills are simply too complex to be learned,
and must be acquired, and I did not recognize this. (For dis-
cussion of the notions "easy" and difficult" and their relation
to acquisition and learning, see Reber, 1976, and Krashen, Butler,
Birnbaum, and Robertson, 1976).

Tennis is another complex skill that is apparently better
acquired than learned. Gallwey's excellent book The Inner Game
of Tennis (1974) has, I think, exactly this thesis. Gallwey
represents acquisition and learning as Self 1 and Self 2:

". . . the key to better tennis--or better anything--lies in
improving the relationship between the conscious teller, Self 1,
and the unconscious doer, Self 2." (p. 26)

Self 1 often takes a very explicit form, as Gallwey notes:

"Listen to the way players talk to themselves on the court:
'Come on, Tom, meet the ball in front of you.' . . . Who is telling
who what? . . . One, the 'I,'' seems to be giving instructions;
the other, "myself," seems to perform the action. Then 'I'' returns
with an evaluation of the action."   (p. 25)

In our terms, Gallwey seems to feel that many tennis players
are "over-users." They work Self 1 too hard and do not allow the
natural acquisition process to internalize the complex skill of
tennis. Typical complaints of the over-user are similar for tennis
and second language:

" 'It's not that I don't know what to do, it's that I don't
do what I know!' Other common complaints that come constantly
to the attention of the tennis pro:

When I'm practicing, I play very well, but when I get into a
match, I fall apart.

When I'm really trying hard to do the stroke the way it says
to do in the book, I flub the shot every time. When I concentrate
on one thing I'm supposed to be doing, I forget something else."
(p. 17).

The correlate of these observations in second language is
familiar: The over-user may know the rules, do well on (slow)
tests, but be unable to consciously control all aspects of gram-
mar when using the second language in ordinary contexts.

Tennis lessons, like second language classes where undue
emphasis is on form, are typically addressed to the monitor, or
self 1. Consider Gallwey's description of a "typical tennis
Lesson":

". . . The pro is standing at the net with a large bucket of
balls, and being a bit uncertain whether his student is consider-
ing him worth the lesson fee, he is carefully evaluating every
shot. 'That's good, but you're rolling your racket face over a
little on your follow-through, Mr. Weill. Now shift your weight
onto your front foot as you step into the ball . . . Now you're
taking your racket back too late . . . Your backswing should be
a little lower on the last shot . . . That's it, much better.'
Before long, Mr. Weill's mind is churning with six thoughts about
what he should be doing and sixteen thoughts about what he shouldn't
be doing. Improvement seems dubious and very complex, but both
he and the pro are impressed by the careful analysis of each
stroke and the fee is gladly paid upon receipt of the advice to
'practice all this, and eventually you'll see a big improvement."
(p. 18).

Like many mediocre second language teachers, I have taught
this way, impressing both myself and my students with my detailed
and careful analyses of the intricacies of English grammar. One
thing I noted, however, was that many of my students were having
"Eureka" experiences-I was supplying a conscious rule that cor-
responded to tacit knowledge they already had, similar to what
happens to native speakers who study the linguistic structure of
their own language. My students were satisfied and pleased with
this new knowledge, and it seemed to give them a great sense of
security. I was, in these cases, however, teaching linguistics
and not language.

The acquisition process in tennis is described by Gallwey as follows:

"There is a far more natural and effective process for learning and doing almost anything than most of us realize. It is similar to the process we all used, but soon forgot, as we learned to walk and talk. It uses the so-called unconscious mind more than the deliberate 'self-conscious' mind . . . This process doesn't have to be learned; we already know it." (p. 13).

Acquired performance is best revealed in tennis, as in second language performance, when the Monitor is not able to intrude, that is, when there is no time for it to intrude, or when the conscious mind is somehow "stilled":

'In rare moments, tennis players approach . . . unthinking spontaneity. These moments seem to occur most frequently when players are volleying back and forth at the net. Often the exchange of shots at such close quarters is so rapid that action faster than thought is required. These moments are exhilarating, and the players are often amazed to find that they make perfect shots they didn't even expect to reach . . . they have no time to plan; the perfect shot just comes." (p. 32).

Also, "the player's mind can become "so concentrated, so focused, that it is still. It becomes one with what the body is doing, and the unconscious or automatic functions are working without interference from thoughts . . ." (p. 21). In this state the player "is not aware of giving himself a lot of instructions, thinking about how to hit the ball, how to correct past mistakes or how to repeat what he just did. He is conscious, but not thinking, not over-trying . . . The 'hot streak' usually continues until he starts thinking about it and tries to maintain it; as soon as he attempts to exercise control, he loses it." (p.20).

When acquisition, rather than learning of tennis is allowed to occur, Gallwey says that we see errors correcting themselves naturally (assuming, of course, that self 1 = learning and self 2 = acquisition). Errors are best interpreted as part of the development process, something to observe but not to identify with. This is precisely what is said about errors in first language acquisition, and several scholars, especially Corder (1976), have made similar comments about errors in second language performance.

The Monitor Model and the Classroom

I have suggested that adult second language performance, and other kinds of post-critical period learning can be described with the same model. This does not imply that all post-critical period learning and instructions should be absolutely identical. It seems to me that the Monitor, or Self 1, may play a slightly larger role in second language than in tennis, for example, and that some degree of conscious learning might be quite useful in some language use situations. As mentioned above, there are occasions where the second language performer has plenty of time to edit an utterance or written sentence, and appeal to the Monitor may indeed increase accuracy (although the Monitor may sometimes get in the way when a complex construction is involved--see Krashen et al., 1976). Tennis may simply require such fast and complex performance at all times that monitoring is impractical.

I have, in fact, suggested elsewhere that the best approach might be one in which both learning and acquisition are fully utilized in the classroom. I base this not on any direct application and testing of the Monitor Model in the classroom, but on my observations that really good teachers provide clear rules for learning, presented in a variety of ways to accommodate different learning styles, as well as interesting, natural (contextualized) exercises. These exercises may provide for both learning (rule practice or induction) and acquisition at the same time. Again, this is not Applied Linguistics. What I think is occurring is that an independently developed Art of Teaching and anindependently developed model for adult second language performance reach similar conclusions.

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A COMPARISON OF READING COMPREHENSION
IN ENGLISH AND SPANISH[1]

Charles Alderson
Stephen Bastien
Ana María Madrazo
Research and Development Unit
Centro de Enseñanza de Lenguas
Extranjeras
Universidad Nacional Autonoma
de Mexico

I. Introduction

The opinion is frequently voiced by language teachers that it is senseless to teach students to read in a foreign language before teaching them to read in their mother tongue. By "reading in their mother tongue" is usually meant "reading well in their mother tongue", rather than simply being literate in the mother tongue. The assumption being made is that if, for example, a student cannot read well in Spanish, he will not be able to learn to read in English. In other words, it is assumed that there is a close relationship between reading ability in Spanish and ability to read in English: that the lack of ability to read in one language will imply a similar lack in the other, and that ability in the one will predict ability in the other. These assumptions and suppositions, however, are rarely put to the test. To gather empirical evidence on the matter was the aim of this research project.

A further, related, question which the research sought to investigate was: Is the students' knowledge of English, or English proficiency, a more important precondition for English reading comprehension than their reading ability in Spanish? That is, can they learn to read English regardless of their reading skills in Spanish, provided they are proficient enough in English? The answer to this question about the importance of English proficiency

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was usually given in the affirmative by the proponents of audio-visual methodologies, for example, up until only a few years ago. More recently, however, methodological approaches to the teaching of reading comprehension have come into conflict with the previous 'proficiency-first' view, and, based on the assumption that reading comprehension can or should be learnt before a student has received a thorough course in general spoken English, there now exists an increasing number of commercially available ESP courses, for example, which implicity or explicity contradict that previously strict audiolingual principle by their very existence. In other words, a strictly orthodox user of the old Collier MacMillan English 900 series, for example, would introduce the written form only of these English base sentences which the student had already mastered and could produce orally. The student's being taught to read the English of his engineering texts was anathema and entirely out of the question for reasons founded in that methodological approach.

How might these matters be investigated? A variety of possible procedures suggest themselves, but we need at least the following instruments:

Firstly, to find out how our students read Spanish would require a test of some kind. Hopefully, the results of such a test would give us a valid, reliable and objective measure of their reading ability in Spanish. Secondly, since we want to compare their reading ability in Spanish with their reading ability in English, we will need a reliable measure of their reading comprehension in English. This, of course, would require that our subjects have some previous knowledge of English. So we would also need a measure of their knowledge of English, which might be supplied by a proficiency test, for example. Then we must compare the results of the three measures - reading in Spanish, reading in English, and English proficiency - in order to find out what relationship or relationships exist, if any.

What are some of the possible implications for teaching which we might expect to come out of the comparison of these three measures of our university students?

1) We might find no relationship whatsoever between reading comprehension in Spanish and reading comprehension in English. In other words, those who did well in reading and understanding Spanish didn't necessarily do well in reading and understanding English. If this were the case, we might assume that there were two entirely different fields of knowledge and ability; one in Spanish, and another one, independent of the first, in English.

Such a result, i.e. no relationship between reading in Spanish and reading in English, would suggest that we might discount Spanish reading ability as a factor which might effect our teaching approach to reading in English.

2) We might find a <u>strong relationship</u> between reading ability in Spanish and reading ability in English. This sort of result would lead us to assume a possible large amount of <u>transfer</u> of reading skills from Spanish to English, which might conceivably be exploited through the teaching of reading strategies helpful in both languages, for example, instead of considering these strategies to be language-dependent, and therefore to be taught in different courses. Such a reading-strategies course could perhaps be designed which might be offered by the university to all entering students, and not only to these who are studying English as well as their academic field or profession. Or, such a reading-strategies course might be offered as a pre-requisite to taking a particular English reading course.

3) We might find that a strong relationship existed between previous knowledge of English, or English proficiency, and reading comprehension ability in English. If this were the case, we might simply teach general English courses and not design ESP reading courses in particular fields of study, or programs in English for Academic Purposes. This has been the assumption common in the past, when courses to teach reading as a separate ability in English were simply not offered, since reading was assumed to be a logical by-product of general knowledge or proficiency in spoken English. The problem with that approach was that it based its assumption on methodological considerations of what was the best way to teach oral English. The specific teaching of reading was at best downgraded and postponed until the student's oral production was considerable. The point is that whatever pedagogical approach is adopted, it be adopted not only on the basis of intuition and suppositions, but also on the basis of empirical data. Thus the aim of this study is to gather some facts about the nature of reading ability in English and Spanish, which might then lead us to modify our approach to the teaching of reading.

II. <u>The experiment</u>

This experiment was designed as a preliminary exploration of the relation between reading in Spanish and in English.

1) The sample

Twenty-eight Mexican students registered in the Master's program in Administration and at the same time taking a general English course participated in the experiment. ·The tests were administered to all the Administration students present in the English class on successive days. Those who took all three parts of the battery were included in the study.

2) Instrumentation

Two reading texts were selected from the field of administration for testing. One was taken from a textbook in English on human organization and has a high cognitive or conceptual level of content and ideas (Text B). The second text is also from a textbook in administration, but is at a comparatively low level of cognitive difficulty, and contains fewer vocabulary items which are specific to administration. (Text A)

Each of the original pieces was then translated into Spanish and revised and edited by native Spanish-speaking teachers of English and of Administration to ensure the Spanish translations were correct and readable. After translating the two original texts into Spanish, we had a total of four texts: the originals in English, and their translated versions in Spanish. For each of the four texts, comprehension questions or items were written, using both multiple-choice and true-false formats. The test items were designed to test over-all general understanding of the text, awareness of the difference between information and presented as personal opinion of the author and information presented as fact, inference, logical extensions of the arguments presented, direct reference, etc. (for examples of the tests see Appendix)

Besides the four reading comprehension tests, the TEAL test battery of English language proficiency for adult students (Caroline Clapham, 1975) was applied to all the subjects to measure their general knowledge of English.

3) Method

Of the four reading comprehension tests, two were given to each subject, one in English and one in Spanish. The subjects were selected at random to receive one or the other of the alternate pairs of tests, half receiving text A in English, text B in Spanish; the other half receiving text B in English and

text A in Spanish. Thus

a) one group of students did:
   1) text A in English (easy text)
   2) text B in Spanish, and
   3) the TEAL proficiency test

b) the other group did:
   1) text B in English (difficult text)
   2) text A in Spanish, and
   3) the TEAL proficiency test.

Each pair of comprehension tests was administered during a one and a half hour class period. The TEAL proficiency test was given in a separate period. Both class periods used for the test applications fell during the last week of classes in the English course. The students seemed generally agreeable to participation in the experiment.

III RESULTS

The tests were scored, and item-analysed. Poor items were removed and the tests rescored. Although the texts had been selected to represent two distinct levels of difficulty, at least for a native speaker non-subject specialist, texts A and B turned our to be of equal difficulty in English for these subjects, the mean being 11.6 (53%) on A and 11.1 (53% on B). In other words, for our testees the comprehension tests in English were statistically equivalent measures of English reading comprehension. The Spanish versions, however, seemed to show up at least some of the differences between the two original texts, in the sense that one had seemed to us to contain greater cognitive or conceptual difficulty of content and more specialized vocabulary. In Spanish, the mean for text A was 17.2 (82%) and for text B 13.0 (72%).

It is interesting that the two texts appear to be different from each other when readers are reading in their mother tongue, but that when they read in a foreign language, the differences disappear. The reason for this could be that the problems of reading in a foreign language are greater than any inherent conceptual or linguistic difficulties that might exist in one text and not the other.

Concerning the relationship between reading in Spanish and reading in English, the primary objectives of the experiment, we found positive but low correlations between the subjects' performance on one as compared to their performance on the other:

a) B English = A Spanish   .44 (p $<$ .05)
b) B Spanish = A English   .56 (p $<$ .05)

In other words, there was a relationship between reading comprehension in English and reading comprehension in Spanish. That is, the students who did well in reading in Spanish tended to do well in reading in English as well. This tendency or relationship was not found to be strong enough to be able to predict a student's score on one test, given his results on the other.

The strongest relationship encountered was between English language proficiency as measured by the TEAL test, and reading comprehension in English (Teal with B English .67, p $<$ .05). This finding is of considerable importance, since it suggests that the student's knowledge of English is much more important to his comprehension of English texts than is his reading ability in Spanish. Although the finding is not surprising, since one would not expect students with poor English to be able to read well in English, it is important because it appears to provide some sort of answer to those who feel that reading ability in one's mother tongue is the most important determinant of reading ability in English. One should be cautious, however, in interpreting this result, as a correlation does not imply a causal relationship. It does not follow that a concentration on improving our students' general proficiency in English will lead to a commensurate improvement in English reading ability. However, there is a suggestion that it is even less likely that improving Spanish reading ability will lead to an improvement in English reading.

It should be noted that the easy text (Text A) correlated at a considerably lower level with TEAL than the difficult text (.42 v .67). This might be taken to mean that knowledge of English is less important to the understanding of an easy text than to the comprehension of a difficult text. Certainly it indicates that one should be careful about generalising results gained from the use of certain texts to statements about reading ability in general, regardless of the nature -linguistic and conceptual - of the text. Furthermore the difference between the two correlations of the English and Spanish texts might well be attributable to the difference in texts. That is, it could be

generally true that the ability to read a difficult text in
Spanish will correlate higher with the ability to read an easy
text in English, than the ability to read an easy text in Spanish
will correlate with the ability to read a difficult text in
English. Such a conclusion is entirely speculative at present.

IV Conclusion.

The research posed the following questions:

1) How well can our students read Spanish?
2) Is their Spanish reading ability related in any way to
their ability to read in English?
3) Is their proficiency in general English more important
than reading ability in Spanish as a pre-condition to
their learning to read English?

The results of the study indicate a positive tendency for
reading ability in Spanish to relate to reading ability in English.
This relationship, however, is far from close, which is perhaps
somewhat surprising, at least for these who hold the view that
there is a necessarily close connection between the two.

The study also found that the best predictor of reading ability
in English was not reading ability in the mother tongue but pro-
ficiency in the foreign language. However, as the text variable
was also seen to have an effect, no general conclusion can be
reached. Therefore, at this stage no recommendations can be made
as to the type of course that might be helpful for students who
need to learn to read in English. Nevertheless, we feel that such
recommendations might change if subsequent studies should provide
clearer answers to our questions. Further research into the
nature of the relationship of reading in Spanish and English is
clearly necessary, possibly concentrating on measuring reading
strategies (the process of reading) and on measuring the various
sorts of information (the product of reading: factual, inferential,
evaluated, etc.) that can be extracted from text.

A PROJECT IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES:

ENGLISH IN THE SERVICE OF INTERNATIONAL FOOD PRODUCTION

Ronald Mackay
Director, R & D Unit
CELE, UNAM
Now at TESL Centre
Concordia University
Montreal, Quebec

Laura Cao-Romero
Head of Languages Department
FMVZ,
National Autonomous University
of Mexico

1. Introduction

In this article we will describe the rationale and procedural steps involved in the mounting and executing of a special purpose English language project which might act as a model for teachers or course designers faced with a similar task.

2. Background

This project was one of several resulting from the establishmen of a co-operative link between the Centre for the Teaching of Foreign Language (CELE), National Autonomous University of Mexico and the Department of (Applied) Linguistics, the University of Edinburgh and financed jointly by the Mexican and British Governments. This specific project, begun in March 1975, had three distinct, though related purposes: (i) to develop and test materials intended to provide students with English language skills as a tool in their academic/professional studies (ii) to document the progress and stages of the project so that the procedures followed could, possibly in a modified form, be used as a model upon which other projects with similar purposes could pattern themselves (iii) to train local personnel at every stage of the project to build up in UNAM a cadre of well-qualified and experienced applied linguists.

It was decided by CELE to carry out the first ESP project in UNAM in conjunction with the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine and Animal production (FMVS) because of the enthusiastic support

for the project by the Dean and his staff. Moreover, the role played by the FMVZ (and those in other Mexican universities) in food production in Mexico is of enormous importance. It was therefore felt that besides functioning within a suitable environment, the project would be meeting real needs in an important area contributing to the development of Mexico and thus justifying the time, effort and expense involved.

3. Operational model for the total ESP situation

The team selected to work on the FMVZ project, followed a working model for and ESP project:

                                    Special Purposes

Point of Departure   ⟶   Information Gathering Instruments

    provides: ⟶   Information about students needs

from which are   Special purposes in terms
    identified: ⟶   of operational skills

                                    Special Language

on the basis of which   ⟶   Texts

    are selected:

    which provide: ⟶ Description of the language deemed

                necessary in both formal and rhetorical terms

and from which are   ⟶   Teaching points

selected and sequenced:

Fig. 1 The operational model of the total ESP situation

(Mackay and Klassen 1976)

4. Information Gathering: Students needs

Experience indicated that an erroneous but common point departure for ESP projects is the "Special Language", the "Special Purposes" being assumed wrongly to be either self-evident or already familiar to those involved in the project. The team felt that there was sufficient disagreement among the opinions of those

who were "already familiar" with the students needs to warrant
a close investigation of these needs and a clarification of the
factors involved.

Initial examination of purported needs amply demonstrated that
there was inadequate distinction made between "current real needs",
"future real needs" and "future hypothetical needs". Another
category of "need" which tended to add to the confusion was that
"imposed" by a well-meaning teacher which reflected teacher desires
for certain kinds of instruction independent of any identifiable
need on the part of the students.

An exhaustive questionnaire was prepared for both the subject-
matter teachers and the students in the FMVA. Experience had
shown the inadequacy of information gathering instruments which were
left to the students to complete; they were returned with the answers
to some questions left blank, misunderstanding of questions was
obvious from conflicting answers, and anomalous answers were
difficult or impossible to follow up. It was therefore decided that
the questionnaire should be conducted as a structured interview in
which a trained interviewer would put the questions directly to a
faculty member or student being interviewed and note his answers.
In this way, deficiencies inherent in the type of questionnaire
mentioned above could be overcome.

The structured interview was conducted individually with 42
professors and 52 students representing every field of study and
every semester in the undergraduate degree in the FMVZ. The results
provided us with a clear picture of the needs of the students as
represented by both the staff and student body. In essence, the
results indicated that a knowledge of no language other than Spanish
was necessary for a student to complete his undergraduate studies
satisfactorily. However, it was felt by 78% of the faculty and 58%
of the students interviewed that a reading knowledge of English would
permit students to increase the quality of their academic and
professional knowledge significantly. No skill other than a reading
skill emerged as a need.

5. Selecting suitable texts

We then conducted a series of classes in which the variables
"intended readership of text", "students' familiarity with the
propositional content of the text" and "relationship (i.e. similarity/
dissimilarity) of the teaching texts to the target texts" were

examined. It was discovered that the intended readership of the text should coincide with the student readership, that the informational content of the text should be partly familiar, but should expand upon the students' existing knowledge of the subject and that teaching texts should be target texts. Clearly different results would be obtained for groups of students in different circumstances.

6. Identifying teaching points

Two attempts to identify "reading difficultes" of Spanish-speaking students reading English were made. One used the Cloze and modified Cloze techniques and the other used translation. These experiments are still in progress. Until the results of such work can provide us with objectively arrived at teaching points, our selection must inevitably be based on informed intuition and observation.

7. Creating exercise types

The exercise types used to practice the teaching point were also arrived at as a result of prior experience and familiarity with successful practices. Our observations and feedback from teachers using the materials did permit us to sequence the exercise types within any instructional unit to lead to optimum learning on the part of the student.

8. Evaluating the new programme

Finally, the materials and course of instruction which lasted 1 term (70 hours approx.) were evaluated in terms of student performance. Briefly, it was found that (i) the drop-out rate for students using the new material was 4% as opposed to almost 50% using traditional materials in CELE (ii) 94% of the students showed improvement in reading comprehension over the period of the course.

The materials are now being used with about 500 students in the FMVZ annually.

9. Conclusions

Our conclusions to date are that a carefully planned ESP programme can contribute effectively to a given learning situation but a great deal of very basic research is still required in order to permit all the procedural steps to be decided upon objectively.

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BEYOND "BASIC"
PART II[1]

Paul Davies
Instituto Anglo-Mexicano de Cultura
Puebla

In Part I of this article, I suggested that a learner's perception of and attitude towards the English language are likely to change considerably as learning progresses, and that the learning strategies employed are likely to change also. At first, only simplified bits and pieces of the language are perceived by the learner, who may manage to make apparent sense out of them but cannot be fully aware either of how they can be used or how they cannot. For example, the learner is unlikely to suspect that the Present Progressive can be used for future time ("We're having a party next Saturday."); that "It is a Chevrolet" may correspond to "Sí es un Chevrolet"; or that "box" may correspond to "palco" but not to "caja de cobro". In the early stages of learning, in formal study conditions, the learner is likely to be cautious and happier when he can work almost exclusively with the rules or models given by the teacher.

I also suggested that structural-situational approach to basic course teaching can create favourable conditions for learners to reach some limited communicative performance objectives. So far, I have been concerned with learning, but in talking of a structural-situational approach, I am now concerned with teaching. In formal study conditions, teachers traditionally attempt to impose learning strategies on the students. I have said that beginning students are likely to have little or no awarness of how the items of English they first meet fit into the wider panorama of grammatical structure and usage, and that they are likely to be cautious - and happier following the teacher's

[1]The first part of this article was published in Volume 2, number 2.

rules and models closely,

Beginners (adolescents and adults at least) also tend to approach the learning of English as they would approach the study of geography or any other school subject. A structural-situational teacher may, therefore, consider it his first task to train the students to learn English "his way" -by guessing meanings from situational contexts (rather than expecting Spanish translations and vocabulary lists to memorize); by constructing sentences after models (rather than expecting grammatical explanations and rules in Spanish); by listening to and producing English sentences most of the time (rather than talking about English in Spanish). I believe such a teacher is largely justified in his efforts to persuade students to learn English his way, with a greater deal of time devoted to performing in the language and very little to discussing the language. However, it should not be forgotten that some flexibility is always advisable and a little experimentation commendable

After two or three hundred hours in classes, the learner should be developing a broader perspective of the English language. He should be aware of much of the complex patterning, of regularities and irregularities ("rules" and "exceptions"), of the polysemy of many words and sentences, of some alternative ways of conveying the same message. He should be able to perform some simple communicative tasks quite well: write short letters, ask the way in the street, understand a simple airport announcement, and so on. Indeed, if these statements are not in any way true of learner, he should not pass to an intermediate course. The fault may not lie with the learner, of course, but with the syllabus designer or the teacher.

Along with this broader perspective of English and this communicative ability, the learner is likely to feel rather impatient at learning new meanings and grammatical features in an elaborate fashion when he can see a more direct way himself: for example, by definition or explanation in English. Also, one cannot be sure what is completely new for students at the inter-mediate level. Different learners will almost certainly have had different exposure to English so that the teacher cannot

assume that all items in the syllabus are "new" for every student.
The student who has previously encountered the item may prefer
to tell the class about it himself rather than be told over again
by the teacher. Intermediate learners, even if they are conscious
of their short-comings and problems, are likely to want to listen
to the teacher and repeat after him less, and risk talking and
writing more themselves.

A sensitive and realistic teacher should respond to these
characteristics and aspirations of intermediate learners, so that
how they learn is determined rather less by the teacher and more
by the learners themselves. The intermediate course teacher
should certainly attempt to impose learning strategies on the
students much less than the basic course teacher. It is also
worth bearing in mind that the basic course teacher's efforts
may not in fact determine what learning strategies the students
employ. Rather, he should offer a variety of ways for students
to overcome their errors and weaknesses and to expand the range
and flexibility of their English. On the other hand, the teacher
should still create classes which appear to the learners to be
well-planned and purposeful.

Observation of actual teaching can be much more illuminating
than speculative discussion. What follows is intended to be
something between a plan and a description of a sixty-minute
intermediate class. It is fiction, but based closely on what
has happened in real classes I have given or observed.

CLASS 1
The teacher enters and makes the comment: "Good gracious!
Not many people here this morning! What do you think has
happened?" He gets a few suggested explanations and the comment
from one student: "It always is the same. Everybody is going
to be here in five minutes." The teacher asks the students to
do Exercise 14 in the textbook (a mixed conditional fill-in
exercise). As the other students come in, he gets them working
at the same exercise. Before most of them have finished, all
15 students have arrived. The students then give the answers
orally. To one of the sentences (Jack won't go to the party
unless Mary------), students offer the completions: "...unless
Mary goes" and "unless Mary goes to it too". The teacher says:
"Good!" or simply "..unless Mary d..", and pauses with the initial
"d" formed. A student says: "does". The teacher asks the student

to repeat the complete sentence, Then he says: "You can also
say : Jack won't go to the party if......". A student completes:
"Mary doesn't". The teacher exploits several sentences from the
exercise in a similar way. The teacher also asks questions like:
"Do you never go to parties unless your girlfriend does?" and is
lucky enough to get the reply from one student: "I always go to
parties unless my girlfriend wants to go too." The other students
laugh.

The teacher also asks for the opposite of "polite" which
occurs in the exercise; a student offers "unpolite" which the
teacher rejects. A second students offers "rude". The teacher
says: "Good! Does "rude" mean "rudo"?" One student thinks it
does but the rest say it doesn't. The teacher confirms that it
doesn't and asks: "How would you say "rudo" in English?" The
students decide: "rough". One or two sentences using the word
are elicited.

This exercise takes about 15 minutes. Some students take notes
about different points that come up. The teacher writes two or
three models on the blackboard like this:
If he had studied, he would have passed the exam.
This is an "old" pattern but the class is having some trouble
with it. Notice the circling and underlining to emphasise the
grammatical features. A short oral drill follows this exposition.

Then the teacher quickly draws a picture on the blackboard:

Students are asked to suggest what might have happened. "Might
have" plus the past participle was practised intensively a month
before. Then the teacher tells a story. "This man, Fred,
quarrelled with his wife. You see, she spent all the house-keeping
money on clothes. So Fred quarrelled with her and went down to
the pub. He drank too much. On his way home he started throwing
stones at the street lights. A policeman stopped him and he
punched the policeman on the nose. The policeman arrested him
and now he's in prison." The teacher checks that the students
have understood the story, eliciting explanations of "pub" and

"house-keeping money", He asks a student to retell the story. He continues: "Fred wishes he wasn't in prison. Would you like to be in prison? Of course not. He wishes he hadn't quarrelled with his wife. What else does he wish he hadn't done?" The students produce sentences like: "He wishes he hadn't gone to the pub." "He wishes he'd stayed at home." The teacher has to get some students to correct "has" to "had". From time to time, students are asked to write sentences on the blackboard as oral practice continues. Then the teacher suddenly asks an older student: "I didn't study very hard at school. Did you?" The student replies: "No, I didn't". The teacher waits, smiling at the student. After a moment's thought, the student says: "I wish I had studied hard...harder." The teacher says: "Me too." More personal examples follow from other students. The teacher now writes on the blackboard:

Fred (wishes) he had stayed at home.

(If) he had stayed at home he wouldn't be in prison now.

The teacher explains: "Both sentences refer to the past, to something that didn't happen in the past. Fred didn't stay at home; he went out to the pub. He didn't stay at home, but he wishes he had stayed at home. He didn't stay at home, but if he had stayed at home, he wouldn't be in prison now." The period of teaching "wish plus the past perfect" (the teacher having assumed that the item would be "new" for most students) takes about 15 minutes.

The teacher then hands out a supplementary reading comprehension book and asks the students in pairs to answer the multiple choice questions on a particular passage. He gives them ten minutes to do this and walks around encouraging the students to discuss the questions in English, not Spanish. The students then offer their solutions and where there is some controversy, the teacher asks the students to locate the relevant information in the passage. For one question, the relevant information is contained in the phrase "was willing to help". Asked for a translation, most students offer "deseaba" but one or two give "estaba dispuesto". The teacher asks a student: "If a rich relative invited you to spend a holiday in Europe, would you say you were willing to go or you would like to go?" The student hesitates and answers: "I would like to go." The teacher asks

another student: "And if someone asks you to help him to paint his house?" The student replies: "I say I am willing to help." The teacher says: "Yes. You would say you were willing to help. Does that mean you wanted to help?" A good student replies: "No, not necessarily."

Then the teacher reads through the passage aloud, breaking off to ask for an alternative way of expressing a particular idea, checking the meaning of words by asking for opposites, definitions or translations. The teacher also asks personal questions where appropriate. The activities based on the reading passage take about 20 minutes.

The teacher now says: "Suppose Juan had won first prize in a poetry competition. What would you say to him? Maria?" María looks blank. "Anyone else?" A student offers: "I'd really like to congratulate you on winning the poetry prize, Juan." The teacher says: "That's right. We looked at ways of congratulating people last week. Now suppose you've got some bad news for someone. Pepe has just failed an English exam and you've got to tell him. What would you say to him?" Students suggest: "You failed the English exam, Pepe, I'm sorry." "I'm afraid you've failed the English exam, Pepe." The teacher suggests: "Why not prepare him for the bad news and then tell him? For example: I'm afraid I've got some rather bad news for you. You didn't...." The teacher then drills this formula, substituting failure to get promotion, a lost book and so on. Alternative formulae are then discussed: "I'm sorry to have to tell you this, but...." The class is now coming to an end. The teacher asks the students to be ready to discuss the place of women in society in the next class. He points out that men still dominate in public life and asks the students to think (1) of reasons why this is so and (2) how this situation is changing (or not).

CLASS 2

In the following class, the teacher handles "I wish I lived..." and "I wish you wouldn't...", explaining that in the first the wish is impossible (or the speaker feels it is), and in the second the speaker feels that the person addressed may respond favourably. "I wish you wouldn't speak so loudly" is very similar to "Would you mind not speaking so loudly?" The grammatical and semantic similarity of "I wished I lived...." and "If I lived ...." is discussed. A fill-in exercise practising "wish" and conditionals is set. The topic of women in society is then discussed, first in groups of four or five and then in the whole class. A taped dialogue is then played to the students and their comprehension is checked in different ways, including the students writing occasional sentences on the blackboard. This

often helps to reveal and clear up misconceptions, either of
meaning or grammar. Finally, ways of giving bad news in a
formal letter ("We are sorry to have to inform you that..." etc.)
are discussed, practised, and compared with informal, spoken
formulae. At the end of the class the students are reminded to
hand in their brief book reports in the following class. This
task was set three or four weeks previously.

The reader may disagree with many aspects of the intermediate
teaching described above. In my opinion, however, it has a
number of virtues. It exposes the students to a great deal of
varied English without going beyond their capacity. They
listen to the teacher, to recorded materials, to each other; they
read from the blackboard. from the textbook, from reading
comprehension books, from simplified readers. The teacher
frquently comments on the language and the students are free to
ask questions about the language itself and how it is used. The
students are also given ample opportunity to use English com-
municatively rather than just practise structures and usage for
their own sake. The students use English to talk about the
language as well as to discuss topics of common interest and
books they have read. In doing so, students experiment in
finding words for the ideas rather than ideas for their words.
They take risks and make mistakes, but with the teacher and other
students monitoring their English and helping when necessary.

During free production, students will make some errors which
are merely slips of the tongue, others which are developmental
errors that will be corrected in time, and yet others which are
fossilised errors which have gained a permanent place in the
students' English. Errors of the first kind should normally be
ignored (except in written work); errors of the second kind may
sometimes be ignored, but may be self-corrected by the student
concerned or by the teacher; errors of the third kind are often
best handled by focussing the students' attention on the problem
and explaining very clearly what he is doing wrong. It is not
always clear, of course, which errors are of which kind. Slips
are usually not recurrent; developmental errors are usually in
items recently acquired, or in attempts to say something for
which the most appropriate form of expression has not yet been
encountered; fossilised errors are highly recurrent and often
in items taught a long time before.

Apart from giving wide exposure, ample opportunity for
communication and the chance to experiment and correct one's
own errors, I would argue for further merits in the style of
intermediate teaching described above. In the areas of grammar,

lexis and usage, the students should be acquiring a clearer preception of the systems of the language. At the same time, grammatical and lexical skills and knowledge are being extended. Key examples, drills, translation, explanations and so on, are used in extension and remedial work, giving students the opportunity to employ a variety of learning strategies. Explicit attention is also given to ways of expressing different communicative functions, and to different styles of expression.

Above all, I believe that an intermediate teacher should not approach his task from one angle only: by continuing, for example, with the same style of teaching used at the basic level; by "intellectualising" the teaching by using only grammar-translation and academic exercises; by totally abandoning teaching strategies and just encouraging students to talk and talk; or by teaching only "communicative functions". The intermediate teacher should be the master of a broad repertoire of techniques and should use a wide variety of materials and activities in the classroom.

If there are no "methods" for intermediate teaching, there are certainly none for advanced teaching. This is probably as it should be but it is nonetheless disconcerting for teachers.

Continuous exposure to a wide variety of English is essential for students to progress from the intermediate level towards an educated native speaker's command of the language. Extensive reading should form an important part of an advanced course. Oral and written discussion of topics for their own sake rather than for the sake of practising English should also be a key element. Students should be faced with the problem of finding appropriate language to express specific kinds of ideas in different types of communicative situations. Some students, however, do not readily get down to reading and writing or do not participate well in discussions.

The ideal focus of attention for an advanced class may well be a project or a series of projects. The preparation of the project can involve the students in reading newspapers, magazines and books, in discussing the material in class and in writing up their research. Points of pronunciation, lexis, grammar and style will be handled within this framework, usually with explicit explanation and dicussion and the giving of examples. Unfortunately, ideals are difficult to attain, and the enthusiasm of students is not always fired by a project. Also, the very challenge of the task may defeat the student's persistence and language resources.

An alternative to major project work is a variety of short and self-contained tasks. Here are a few examples.

(1) The teacher gives five or six sentences and the students have to give alternative ways of expressing the same ideas; this can lead to the discussion of specific structures.

(2) The teacher reads a passage containing information which the students take down in notes; after a second reading, the students write a summary of the passage.

(3) The students are given a number of extracts from different sources. Their task is decide what kind of text they come from (giving reasons) and commenting on style, use of lexis and so on.

(4) The teacher says a word ("spring, for example) and a student says the first word that comes into his head ("love", "bed", "water" or whatever) and then has to explain the association.

   This continues round the class.

(5) The students are presented with a problem situation; various solutions are discussed and voted on. For example: Venice is sinking. Should we

   a) let it sink as it is too expensive to save it;

   b) spend an immense fortune on saving the city;

   c) spend less money reconstructing the city in a safer place?

Again, as for intermediate teaching, I would stress that a varied approach is vital to advanced teaching. I can imagine nothing worse for students than an endless string of reading comprehensions followed by summary writing.

In conclusion, I would like to correct any impression I may have given that I see the basic stage as being clearly divided from the intermediate stage, and the intermediate from the advanced. Obviously, each merges into the other. What I do believe is that a series of basic courses should have clear performance objectives; this is especially important for the many learners who will go no further in the formal study of English. A series of intermediate courses should have further performance objectives (based on the native-like use of English in a fairly wide range of restricted tasks). A series of advanced courses should be aimed towards an educated native speaker's command of English, so learners should engage in

many of the same language activities that the native speakers
can, and how to cope with.

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PROGRESSIVE DECONTROL THROUGH DELETION:
A GUIDED WRITING TECHNIQUE FOR ADVANCED ESL LEARNERS
IN TECHNICAL FIELDS

Robert C. Weissberg
New Mexico State University

Second language teachers have long used the techniques of
guided writing in their composition classes. To date, these
techniques have been used to best advantage in developing writing
skills at the elementary level, but have posed problems when
adapted to the needs of advanced students. The manipulative,
rigidly controlled nature of much guided writing practice is not
attractive to learners who have already developed fluency, though
perhaps not accuracy in their writing, and who have sophisticated,
original ideas to express. The purpose of this paper is not to
argue against the use of guided writing practice with advanced
students, but rather to identify its drawbacks and to illustrate a
technique that seems to answer them.

The teaching hypothesis underlying guided writing as a method
is that by systematically building up a repertoire of writing
features in the second language, students will acquire fluency
in writing in a gradual, orderly fashion. Cooper's complaint
(1970:305-8) that a second language probably cannot be taught by
analyzing and sequencing its discrete features need not necess-
arily be taken as a refutation of guided writing per se, but it
should alert us as practitioners to dangers inherent in the method.
If communicative competence is to be our goal in teaching writing,
classroom exercises are probably valid only insofar as they are
set in situationally relevant contexts. Certainly, we must guard
against the use of non-contextual materials for second language
learners at any level of proficiency, in any skill area.

Neither should Rivers' warning (Rivers 1972: 24) against
practice that excludes the original language input of the student

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[1] This paper was given at the IV [th] Mextesol Convention, Monterrey,
N.L., November 1977.

invalidate all guided writing. However, it serves to remind us
that any technique which over-emphasizes manipulative operations
at the expense of genuine, student-initiated communications is
likely to be as ineffective in developing competence in writing
as it is in speaking. Although such techniques provide intensive
practice in specific areas of difficulty, they give no assurance
that the "great leap" will be made from skill-getting to spontaneous
skill-using (Rivers 1972: 23).

Selecting appropriate guided writing materials for advanced
students is especially problematic in that these students' weaknesses
are very often just those discrete points (e.g., proper use of
tenses, articles and prepositions, connectives, referentials, etc.)
which seem best approached through repetitive, manipulative practice.
The methodologies currently available attempt to solve this dilemma
through various strategies, a few of which are briefly examined
here from the standpoint of the advanced learner.

1. Step operations: In this technique the student is asked to
perform a programmed series of grammatical operations arranged
according to a hierarchy of difficulty (e.g., alteration of sentence
subjects in number or gender, shifting tenses, expanding existing
sentences with clauses or phrases, etc.)A variety of passages is
provided upon which the operations are to be performed (Paulston
and Dykstra 1973). This technique has the advantage of isolating
and strengthening specific grammatical problem areas, while pro-
viding a variety of contextual settings to maintain interest. Its
disadvantage is that at best students are engaging in a pseudo-
communicative activity (Rivers 1972: 22-3) which is of questionable
value if not followed by genuine skill-using opportunities. The
learner is in effect abandoned at the most crucial stage in the
acquisition process: just as he is ready to integrate the new
item into his own writing repertoire. Also, advanced students tend
to complain of the mechanical nature of such practice, sensing
that the grammatical operation has priority over meaningful
content.

2. Situational models: A series of composition models is
provided, illustrating various written language situations (e.g.,
a cookbook recipe, a bread-and-butter letter, a political speech,
a short biography, etc.) The student first copies the model, then
studies various grammatical patterns and lexical features selected

as typical of the modeled situation. Finally he constructs his
own passage along a related topic, attempting to utilize the se-
lected features as best he can (Baskoff 1971). To the extent
that the model provides an authentic example of written language
relevant to students' needs, this can be a valid and useful tech-
nique. All too often, however, the language situations presented
are neither relevant nor sophisticated enough to maintain face
validity for the advanced student. Also, this technique often
neglects intensive written practice of discrete points in favor
of its communicative bias. Unhappily, it is exactly these points
which the advanced student needs to practice and refine. Thus,
problems remain uncorrected and the student continues to make the
many small errors whose cumulative effect is often to render
his writing incoherent.

3. Teaching cognition: Other types of guided writing materials
attempt to teach the second language student to write comprehen-
sively by teaching him to think logically within the prose cat-
egories common to written English (e.g.,comparison and contrast,
narrative sequence, cause and effect, proposal, refutation, etc.)
(Lawrence 1972, Arapoff 1970). In its most useful form this
technique provides students with the linguistic devices necessary
to express abstract relationships in the second language. Often,
however, it is tacitly assumed that the student has developed
neither the cognitive processes nor the language to express them
and must be instructed in both. Granting the possibility of the
latter, the former is of dubious validity, especially with students
at the university level, where such an approach results in a loss
of student interest in the materials.

Still granting the basic validity of guided writing practice
at the advanced level, the materials developer is thus faced with
the task of providing students with 1) intensive practice with
discrete features of the language, 2) contextual writing situations,
3) opportunities for original language use, and 4) content of
sufficient interest and sophistication to maintain credibility.
A technique featuring progressive decontrol through deletion meets
the stated objectives.

Decontrol through deletion: The technique of deletion has been
established as a useful means of determining second language com-
petence, as in cloze tests (Oller 1973: 192-4). It has also been
employed by Newmark (1964) in a writing text as a practice device
to develop control over "chunks" of language as cued by the

surrounding context. Newmark's technique differs from a cloze in that phrasal groups as well as individual words may be deleted from a passage, and a set deletion schedule (e.g., every sixth word) is not followed. The technique to be illustrated here uses deletion-by-grammatical-category as a means of focusing attention on discrete areas of written grammar. As in Newark, deletions need not be limited to single lexical items.

The deletions are gradually expanded, giving the student progressively more freedom to deviate from the original text. The corpus employed may represent any type of written English the instructor finds appropriate for his students. The examples given here are of the technical English found in agricultural extension bulletins, since the students with whom these materials are used are working toward graduate degrees in agricultural fields. It should be kept in mind, however, that the corpus could just as easily represent the English used in newspapers, the academic writing of the social sciences, or any other desired type.

The target feature used in the present examples is the passive voice construction, one of the most common features of technical English. In our classes the instructor precedes the deletion exercises with an introductory lesson on the passive, consisting of example sentences projected from a transparency and small-group oral drill. From there, progressive decontrol through deletion proceeds as follows:

1. Identification: Copies of an appropriate written sample are handed out and students are asked to identify and underline all examples of the target feature they can find. In our class students read an extension bulletin describing a pesticide experiment, underlining passive constructions (see Example 1 for excerpts). The instructor checks the results of the exercise with the students as a group to be sure that everyone is able to identify all instances of the feature.

At this point the instructor checks students' comprehension over the passage as a whole. In our class individual students are asked to briefly explain the purpose, method and results of the study described in the bulletin. Any problems with specific vocabulary or questions on the content of the study are dealt with at this time.

2. Fill-in: In a succeeding class period a ditto hand-out of the original bulletin is presented as a fill-in exercise. The target feature has been deleted at each occurence and the students are to

replace it (see Example 2). From their previous exposure to the passage, students usually find it easy to replace the deleted segments. In our class exact duplication of original wording is not required, although use of the passive is, and we insist that whatever wording the students choose to use be contextually appropriate.

This exercise accomplishes two purposes: to check students' over-all comprehension of the passage, and to provide for controlled practice of the language feature as it is used in appropriate situations. The last is most important; in those situations where the passive construction is inappropriate (e.g., "... the decrease in hoeing time ranged from 45% for Dacthal......"), the restrictions on the use of the target feature must be pointed out to help students avoid its misuse.

3. Completion: A new hand-out is provided in a following class period in which the same selection is reproduced, this time with whole phrases or clauses containing the target feature deleted (see Example 3). This presents more of a reconstruction problem than the fill-in, although if the passage provides enough contextual clues to support the deletions students can generally approximate the intention of the original. Use of the target feature is required in each clause or phrase replaced but variations in wording are encouraged. Following the activity the students' completions are discussed with the class and all acceptable variations are acknowledged.

This step serves as an intermediary between mechanical fill-in or memorized segments and freer writing; although the content is predetermined, the student is given opportunity for original input. Many students will try to rewrite verbatim the missing segments, reconstructing them with little or no variation. This is not viewed as unproductive since through direct recall of the forms the student is often internalizing them, thus making them available for use in other, analogous contexts.

4. Paraphrase: The jump to freer writing is made here. The instructor elicits a general outline of the passage under study from the students and writes it on the blackboard. Students are asked to use the outline as a guide in composing a one page paraphrase of the original passage. A topic outline is preferable to a sentence outline as it allows the students more room for original writing. The students are asked to use the target feature in their paraphrase wherever they feel it to be appropriate, and to underline it at each occurence to aid the instructor in reviewing their paper.

Ideally, results of this exercise determine the succeeding step; if the students have demonstrated an acceptable level of control over the content and the target feature, step five is appropriate. If not, repetitions of previous steps may be called for, using different selections to maintain interest.

5. Free composition: The necessary extension of such a series of guided writing activities as outlined above is to allow the student to demonstrate mastery over the target feature within content he himself determines. Without this step there is no guarantee that he has in fact acquired the feature as part of his active writing repertoire. Our students are asked in a following class period to write a brief summary of a research study they have been involved in or have knowledge of. Since the students are engaged in graduate research, choosing a topic is not difficult. They are again asked to employ the target feature wherever appropriate, and to underline each occurence. Passages written at this step are kept to about the same length as the summaries produced in step four. Here, accuracy in the use of the target feature is of primary importance in evaluating students' work, although clarity and general organization are also taken into account.

Materials based on this scheme have been found successful in our classes. Students' grammatical and stylistic repertoires have expanded and appropriately used target features appear regularly in their unguided writing. It was found that providing representative passages from a variety of different fields is essential to the success of the activities and to the quality of student writing, as not all students can be expected to write with equal enthusiasm on herbicide application studies. In general, writing is best when face validity of materials is highest for the individual student.

Perhaps the most useful aspect of progressive decontrol as a guided composition technique is its adaptability to a variety of teaching objectives. Although the examples here deal exclusively with a grammatical consideration on the sentence level, applications can easily be made to discourse level features such as the use of intersentence connectors and enumerative devices, or to the development of a micro-vocabulary and its collocations within a specific technical field (Kocourek 1972).

Whatever aspects of written language are chosen as the teaching focus, they will receive greater legitimacy in the mind of the learner if they are introduced in relevant, meaningful contexts. There is a greater likelihood of their being established in the learner's active repertoire if he is given opportunities to employ them in progressively longer segments of original output. Progressive decontrol provides for these features and so proves a useful addition to existing methods of instruction in guided writing.

Example 1: Exerpt from Extension Bulletin 213, "Weed Control
in Chili Peppers," by Phillip M. Trujillo and J. Wayne Whitworth,
New Mexico State University, October, 1971.

.... In 1966, chile was seeded by hand into the beds to
obtain between two and five plants per hill spaced at
three-foot intervals. In 1967 and 1968 the seeds were
hand-planted with the intent of obtaining one plant per
each foot of row on the beds. The same variety of chili,
Espanola No. 1, was seeded each year. Irrigation im-
mediately followed planting, with additional irrigations
as needed. A randomized block design was used each year
with three replications in 1966 and five in 1967 and 1968
...

Example 2: Fill-in

.... In 1966, chile _____ _____ by hand into the beds to
obtain between two to five plants per hill _____ at three-
foot intervals. In 1967 and 1968 the seeds _____ _____
with the intent of obtaining one plant per each foot of row on
the beds. The same variety of chile, Espanola No. 1, _____
_____ each year. Irrigation immediately followed planting,
with additional irrigations as _____ . A randomized block
design _____ _____ each year with three replications in 1966
and five in 1967 and 1968 ....

Example 3: Completion

.... In 1966, chile _____ the beds
to obtain between two to five plants per hill _____
intervals. In 1967 and 1968 _____
with the intent of obtaining one plant per each foot of row on
the beds. The same _____
_____ each year. Irrigation immediately followed
planting, with _____ . A
randomized _____ each year with
three replications in 1966 and five in 1967 and 1968....

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USING GRAPHICS TO TEACH THE CULTURAL CONCEPT OF LOGICAL THINKING IN COMPOSITION

Mary Durland Kauss
Intensive English Program
University of Texas at
Austin

Writing is one of the most complicated tasks that human beings undertake. It requires a combination of skills that begin in primary school and develop through life. Each culture has its own special way of thinking which determines how thought patterns are structured into complicated written material. English thought normally follows a pattern of development different from Spanish which has its own structural development. Those who need to learn to write in English need to understand and imitate these cultural patterns in order to successfully master written skills. Dean Theodore Gross of the City University of New York says, "...for most students, writing is expository, and exposition is standardized and should be clear and logical. It is the obligation of every English teacher to give students this primary skill."[1]

There are many textbooks that develop the process of constructing English composition. It is said that all writers need common sense, a little thought, and a little work. Common sense can mean learning all the skills presented by the textbooks, a little thought the improvisation, free association, and knowledge of research methods, but a little work means getting down to the business of organizing, developing, and manipulating the material to be used.

The last is the area in which non-native speakers of English have the most difficulty. Most texts do not take into consideration the cultural significance of the writer's own thought patterns in his native language. Kaplan uses a very effective graphic to illustrate the difference between two languages.

Figure A
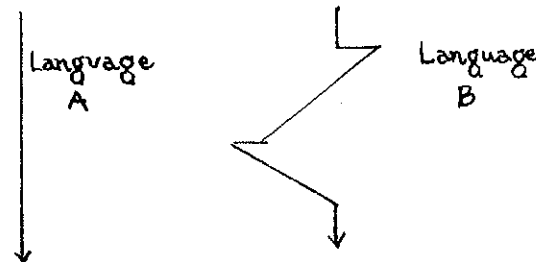
Note that they are very different. Language A follows a straight vertical direct method while language B often digresses; these digressions often develop before returning to the original point of the thought pattern. These two examples are models of normal and accepted forms in each language. Anyone who wishes to master another language must consciously take this into consideration and learn to imitate the accepted structure.

However, there is a large discrepancy between learning the thought patterns to be used in conversation and learning the thought patterns to be used in written expression. Oral communication is facilitated by body language, timing, voice tones and even pauses anticipating help from others; whereas the writer has nothing to draw on but his own devices. He must convey all his thought in such a way that they follow the logical patterns of the language. Helping the student understand and adopt this natural phenomenon with simple graphics makes logical construction easier to imitate.

There are the experts who insist that outlining is the only logical way to teach expository composition. Outlining is vital - but can a student outline a theme, argument, or composition if he cannot think logically in the language? This simple graphic system can be used by itself, before making an outline or simultaneously with outlining. Here is a simple graphic to illustrate the structure of the introductory paragraph of this article:

Figure B
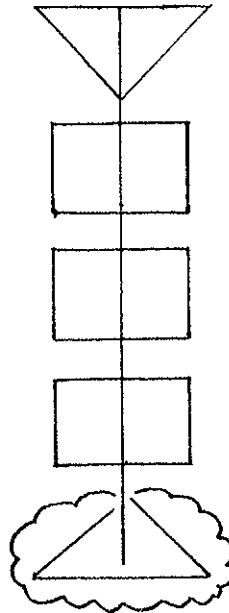
Outlined it looks like this,

Mini Outline

I.   Topic Sentence

A.   Idea 1

Figure C   B.   Idea 2

C.   Idea 3

II.   Conclusion

Since the introductory paragraph was developed into a longer unit
the final step or conclusion is omitted. This is shown by the
irregular line. However, when teaching only one paragraph struc-
ture, it is a part of both the graphic and the mini outline.

If we expand the graphic to illustrate a longer composition
the figure might look like this:

T. S.   Introduction

Paragraph 1

Figure D   Paragraph 2

Paragraph 3

Conclusion   Concluding
                                         Paragraph
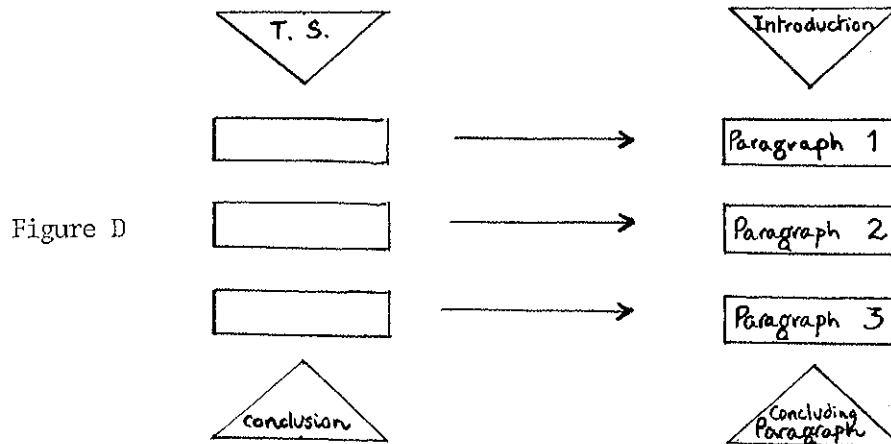
Simple outlines can thus be presented by graphics.

To get the strength of the introductory paragraph across the
triangle can be illustrated with a heavier point for emphasis.
(Figure E) The conclusion figure is opened at the top to indicate
the flow of ideas into the final paragraph. (Figure F)

60
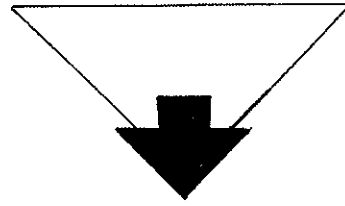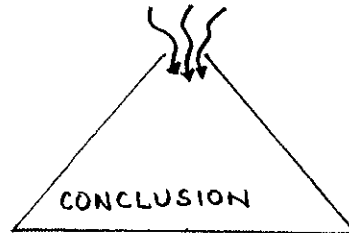
Figure E

Figure F

By this time, the structure should be familiar and the process of the logical thinking firmly established. The next step is to illustrate transitions and connectives. Squiggly lines suggest a chain which conveys the concept of linkage.[4]
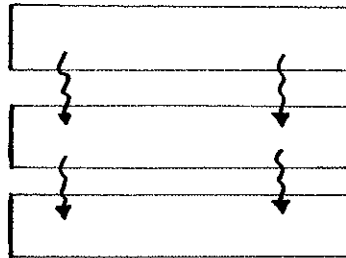
Figure G

Vocabulary is added as the process continues. When teaching coordinating and subordinating paragraphs, the blocking out can look like this.
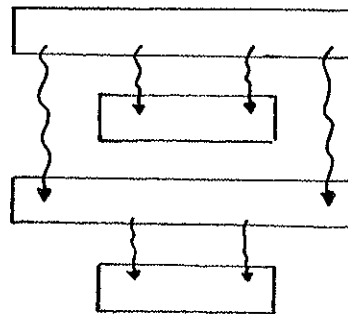
Figure H

The student can also be shown the outline structure of a whole composition. If the outline structure has been presented along with the graphic it now becomes a maxi outline.

Figure I

MAXI OUTLINE

I —
II —
  A —
  B —
III —
  A —
  B —
IV —

V —
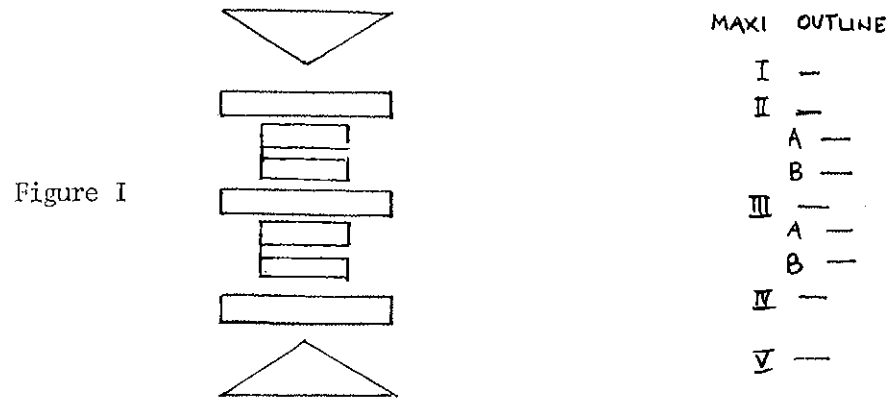
One of the most difficult steps for a student is learning to develop a thesis statement. By using the inverted triangle or funnel, the student can be helped to see that his generalization belongs to the wide section and he can develop it into a specific thesis statement.[5]

Figure J

GENERALISATION

SPECIFIC THESIS
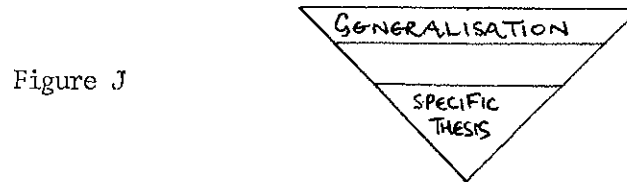
When this has been mastered, the argumentative essay can be introduced and its construction illustrated.[6]

THESIS

PRO
CON
PRO
CON

Figure K

SUMMARY
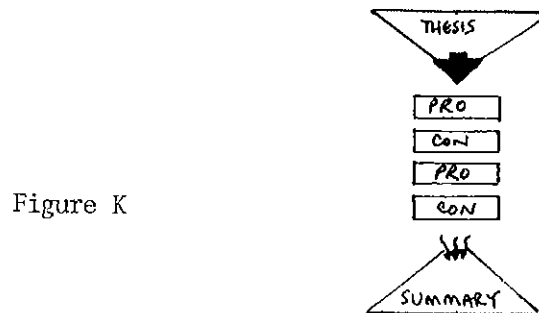
The basic paragraph graphic can also be used for teaching logical relationships and methods of construction. Chronological order, comparison and contrast, cause and effect, just to mention a few, are easy to illustrate using the primary design, figure B. The data can be manipulated around the figure and the figure itself imposes the uniformity.

In order to build composition skills, it is useful for students to dissect the work of other writers. By using the graphic method, a student is able to examine the work of others and the teacher has another valuable aid for instruction and reinforcement.

Composition takes conscious effort with continuous thinking to achieve any measure of success. It is not easy to keep the student interested and inspired. There are no games, no community involvement. Applying cognitive concepts without losing motivation is challenging to the teacher but sometimes boring for the student. Patterns as symbols help and become a part of the meta-language of writing skills. They also perform a very needed service - that of helping to simplify the often involved thought patterns of a complex culture.

NOTES

1. Gross, Theodore, L. "How to Kill a College" Saturday Review. February 4, 1978. p. 16.

2. Diagram for Robert B. Kaplan, "Cultural Thought Patterns in Inter-Cultural Education" Language Learning. Vol. XVI, Nos. 1 and 2, p. 15.

3. Payne, Lucile Vaughan, The Lively Art of Writing, New York, Follett, 1969, p. 41.

4. Wittig, Susan, Steps to Structure. Cambridge, Winthrop Publishers, inc. 1975. p. 135-140.

5. Stanford, Gene, Steps to Better Writing. New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. 1972, p. 79

6. Payne, op. cit. p. 52

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BOOK REVIEWS

WRITING ENGLISH LANGUAGE TESTS

J.B.Heaton

Longman   1975

Brian Heaton's book is a useful addition to the slowly growing number of books on the subject of language testing, and is in danger of becoming as revered and as often referred-to as the textbooks by Lado, Valette and Harris, to which inevitable acknowledgement is made by the author.

As the subtitle of the book suggests ("A Practical Guide for Teachers of English as a Second or Foreign Language"), the main body of the text is primarily concerned with advice to classroom teachers on how to construct their own tests, or how to improve them. Although it concentrates on testing techniques, the book is not at all technical, and no English teacher need be afraid of approaching it.

Following traditional practice, the book divides language testing into six areas, each of which forms a separate chapter: grammar and usage, vocabulary, listening comprehension, oral production, reading comprehension and writing skills. An impressive variety of examples of techniques appropriate to each area is given. Although many of the techniques offered are familiar from previous books on testing, Heaton does manage to include several which have been developed in the past few years; the teacher should find many ideas for the improvement of his own tests. A positive feature of the book is the inclusion of visual stimuli into testing techniques. Given that the nature of a language test depends on its function (as Heaton rightly points out) it would have been helpful to have had an indication of how some of the techniques might best be used for particular purposes. Although many testing techniques are presented, the reader is not given the criteria on the basis of which he might choose one technique rather than another. Yet Heaton is not reluctant to offer prescriptive advice to teachers on how to write questions. The word "should" appears very frequently in the section on techniques, sometimes unjustifiably. There is a certain

tendency to present as established fact what in reality is Heaton's own opinion about technique.

Nevertheless, the book contains much good advice and common sense, which the reader would be well advised to take note of. Heaton correctly points out the importance of clear instructions and example for the students, and of careful administration, without which the best test is useless. The teacher/tester is cautioned to ensure that some other person reads the first version of his test to avoid obscurities, ambiguities or a poor balance of items. As Heaton points out: "It is simply impossible for any single individual to construct good test items without help from another person." This quotation should hang over the bed of anyone who writes language tests.

The chapter on the interpretation of test scores is particularly useful for its detailed discussion of item analysis, and his explanation of the consequences of such analysis with sample test items. Perhaps more could have been done to counteract the negative reaction of many teachers to numbers, and to get rid of prevalent superstitions that some magic figure like 70% should be a pass mark, regardless of the nature and function of the test.

A very positive feature of this book is the final section entitled "Practical Work", which presents a series of exercises related to the themes of each chapter, and gives extensive practice both in analysing and criticising test items and in constructing items. This section could be used in the testing section of a teacher-training course, or as part of an in-service course for practising teachers.

Although the book appears to be a manual of testing techniques, it is much more than that. Hidden away in different parts of the text are many sensible comments about testing. For example:

> "There is a constant danger of concentrating too much on testing those areas and skills which most easily lend themselves to being tested."

Another example is the observation that the only difference between subjective and objective testing lies in the scoring of the responses, since the selection of items for inclusion in the test is, of necessity, subjective. Unfortunately, many of these remarks are easily overlooked by the reader since they are never emphasised.

Although the book does contain such questions as "What is correct English?" or "Should foreign language learners be measured against native speakers?", no answers are suggested and the topics are rarely discussed, so that the reader is left with the impression that in testing all is cut and dried: that there is a right way and a wrong way to test. This is unfortunate, first of all because it is not true, and secondly because teachers may not feel they know enough about testing and so leave it to those they consider experts instead of accepting it as an important integral part of teaching.

Heaton shows a curiously old-fashioned desire to ensure that one item tests one language item or skill, when it is now becoming acknowledged that this is an unrealistic ideal (which is what common sense has suggested for longer than many want to admit).

Similarly, his division of language into phonology, grammar, and vocabulary is somewhat outdated, ignoring more recent pre-occupations with pragmatics, discourse analysis and semantic relations other than the purely lexical.

He points out the important contribution testing can make to teaching and to the development of our knowledge about language and language teaching, and quite rightly mentions the backwash effect of testing on teaching (that if something is not tested, then it will not be taught, and if something is tested - for example, translation - then it probably will be taught). Yet important latter-day pre-occupations - such as the testing of communicative competence and the use of testing in the teaching of English for Special Purposes - are almost entirely ignored. This is a pity since a person of Brian Heaton's experience in both teaching and testing could have an important contribution to make in such areas.

Urgently needed in the field of testing (perhaps as a sister volume to this?) is an extensive discussion of the implications of modern developments in linguistics and applied linguistics for language testing, as well as a full exploration of issues which are occasionally raised, but rarely discussed by Heaton.

Charles Alderson

Research and Development Unit

Centro de Enseñanza de Lenguas Extranjeras

Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México.

GROWING IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS:
STEPS TO COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Mary Finocchiaro
Violet Hoch Lavenda

Regents Publishing Company
1977

This workbook/textbook for students at an intermediate
level of English displays some of the characteristics we have
come to recognise in the numerous articles and books by
Dr. Finocchiaro: clarity of design, humour and common sense.
The book contains ample notes to the teacher and students,
an index of units with their topics and structures, and an
extensive vocabulary list at the end. The book's major flaw
is, for me, a conceptual one which concerns the relationship
between the content and the second half of the title.
To oversimplify for the moment: how can a book claiming to
develop communicative competence fill a large part of its
pages with mechanical grammatical and lexical drills and
exercises? However, let us first examine the book in some
detail before pursuing this point.

Each unit follows the same basic design. Students are
directed to think about and discuss a situation, which is
presented to them in a few sentences, as the one below, from
Unit XV:

"There are certain people we like to be with and others
that we don't like to be with. What makes the difference
to you? In this passage, the visitor liked the fact that
his hostess was not apologetic all the time and that she
didn't ask any unnecessary questions." (page 85)

The introduction is followed by a vocabulary list (glossed
in English) of words and expressions which will appear in the
text. The text itself is usually no more than three or four
short paragraphs, usually narrative. It is to be used for
reading and listening comprehension.

A series of exercises follows each text. The first
exercise asks the student to select the most appropriate
title for the text from four alternatives. Comprehension
questions about the text follow, either in the form of
identifying true and false statements, or writing short and
then long answers to questions about the content.

There follows a vocabulary section, in which students may be asked to find synonyms and antonyms for words in the text, convert adjectives to adverbs and provide missing prepositions in sentences. Next comes a grammar section which contains substitution and conversion exercises.

After the grammar exercises, students are asked to look at a sequential series of drawings, which again relate to the subject matter of the text presented at the beginning of the unit. They are directed to write two sentences describing each picture. Then, they are asked to write a brief summary of the text itself. In some units, this is followed by a cloze procedure exercise, also based on the original text.

In the final section of each unit, entitled "If There is Time", students are asked to learn dialogues related to the text, and to dramatise them. They may also be asked to write true sentences about themselves, and sometimes space is provided for them to write a dictation.

The book contains a total of thirty units, an admirable range of structures, and ample exercises. Generally, the texts and picture stories are entertaining and informative, and the exercises are carefully controlled to avoid possible semantic or structural ambiguities.

There are, however, a few editorial slips. One, on page 36, occurs where, above a picture of a woman sitting in a room, but at some distance from a table, the authors write

Example: The woman is sitting at the table.

This observation would be trivial but for the fact that the exercise which follows is designed to practise the use of prepositions. Another slip occurs on page 29, in a substitution exercise dealing with object pronouns - to him, to her, to us, etc. The pattern sentence given is

It's no use to talk to him.

The usual form is surely

It's no use talking to him.

The "If There is Time" section in each unit suggests another possible flaw by its very title. The wealth of purely mechanical substitution and conversion exercises which appear in both the Vocabulary and Grammar sections (and I must admit that the distinction between these two sections is unclear to me, since in a Vocabulary section

(page 23) there is an exercise which instructs the students
to change a list of adjectives to adverbs, and in a Grammar
section (page 37) students are asked to change a list of verbs
to nouns), are better relegated to the "If There is Time"
classification, or left for homework.   Conversely, in the
"If There is Time" section most activities (dialogues,
original sentences and so on) seem much more suitable for
classroom use, and, incidentally, much more in keeping with
the expressed aim of the book.

The "If There is Time" section itself is not entirely free
of problems.   On page x of the Introduction, teachers are
told that students are not to memorise the dialogues before
dramatising them; however, in the textbook itself, the
instructions to the student read

Learn this dialogue. Dramatise it.

It appears to be incumbent upon the teacher to decide for
himself the functional difference between "learn" and
"memorise" as used in the context, and to explain it to his
students.

Furthermore, the dialogues provided are not fully
exploited.   Here is an example from Unit III (page 19):

B.   Learn this conversation. Dramatize it.

- Did you hear about Joe?
- No.   What happened to him?
- He won the National Science Award.
- I'm glad. He spent a lot of time working
  in the science laboratory.

C.   In B above, change Joe to Jane. Make all necessary
changes.

Although there are opportunities later in the book for students
to write their own dialogues, it appears wasteful not to do
more with this one, and others like it, than to change the
names and pronouns (especially in a book claiming to develop
communicative competence).   After all, the book is designed
for use by intermediate students. The underlining in the
dialogue is mine, and indicates where other possible
substitutions could have been recommended.

The above criticisms may (and perhaps should) be regarded
as minor: particularly if it is felt that the book serves its
purpose well.   It seems undeniable that a structurally oriented

book such as this serves a real purpose in teaching inter-
mediate level students.   My question is this: does it serve
the purpose it sets for itself, namely "to help students
develop communicative competence, the principal objective
of language teaching programmes today" (page vi); that the
majority of language teaching programmes regard this as a
principal objective is, in itself, dubious. Here in Mexico,
for example, the principal objective of thousand of language
teachers is to teach English: structures, words and basic
language skills.

In fairness, it should be noted that most recent texts
purporting to promote communicative competence have not, to
this writer's satisfaction anyway, indicated how the content
and arrangement of their exercises and activities actually
do so.   One suspects, however, that classroom practice
which most closely approximates to the necessities of "real"
communication - whatever that may be - might at least be a
"step" in the right direction.   Certain exigencies of real
life can be duplicated in the classroom with an acceptable
degree of verisimilitude. Some of these are: the necessity
to narrate, to describe fluently; to greet, take leave,
express sympathy, extend congratulations; to request, argue,
command or complain; to rapidly adjust one's register and
tone; to select one's vocabulary and phrases carefully, under
pressure of time. Some, but in my opinion far too few
of the activities suggested in this book are designed to give
students practice in these types of oral production. In fact,
the book seems more closely directed at developing the skills
of reading and writing.

To the extent that the book works on vocabulary expansion
and the manipulation of grammatical structures, it can be
hoped, but not shown conclusively, that the students' accuracy
and fluency will be improved in situations where real commun-
ication is necessary. But this is the same hope which authors
of traditional grammars, authors of audio-lingual textbooks,
and authors of structural-situational textbooks have always
held.

The relationship between oral or written drilling and
functional discourse remains unclear and tenuous.

That there is a relationship of some kind is confirmed by the experience of most teachers. But that mechanical drilling is a direct "step" to communicative competence is an assumption which neglects to examine the inconclusive results of teachers' experience and observations.

Leslie Adams

Instituto Anglo-Mexicano
de Cultura
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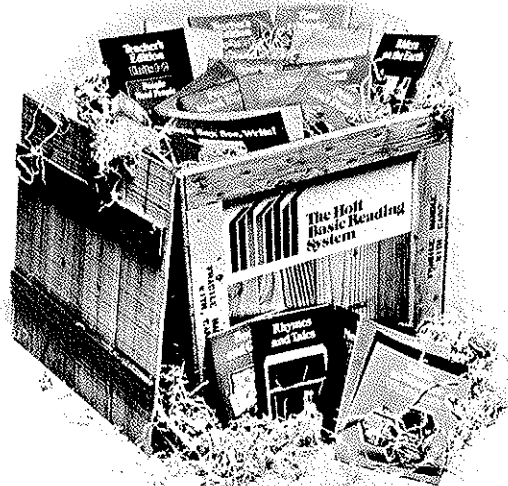
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Learn English for Science is for students at pre-intermediate level who have studied English for about three years. This book and its follow-on volume, **Master English for Science**, form a bridge between the general English students learn in the earlier part of their language course and the scientific and technical language they will need later on. The text-based approach will be familiar to the general English teacher though the content is relevant and interesting to the science student.

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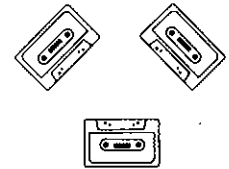
CONTACT ENGLISH 1

STUDENTS' BOOK

COLIN GRANGER
AND
TONY HICKS
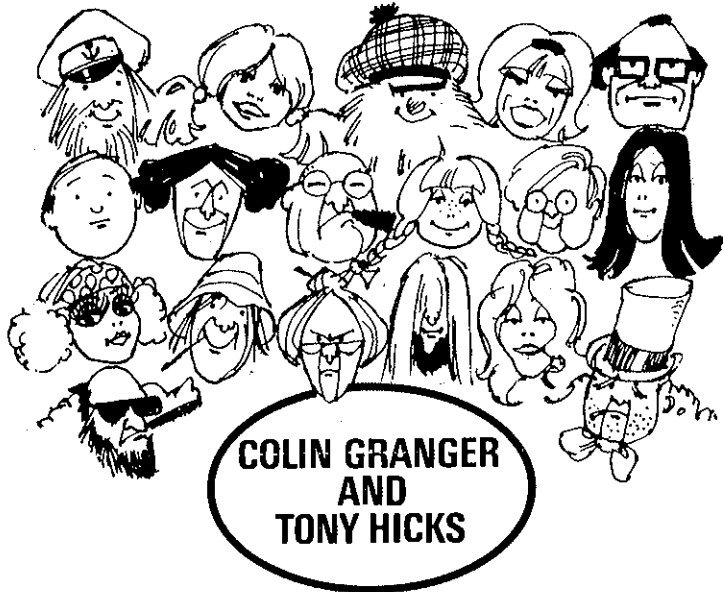
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Cue for a Drill
Shiona Harkess and John Eastwood

English drills in Context

Cue for a Drill IS AN IDEAL PRACTICE BOOK FOR THE INTERMEDIATE, STUDENT WHO NEEDS REMEDIAL PRACTICE IN GRAMMAR.
THE CUE IS PROVIDED BY AN ILLUSTRATION, CHART OR DIAGRAM WHICH PROVIDES INFORMATION AROUND WHICH THE DRILLS ARE CENTRED. IT IS THE STUDENT WHO DOES THE TALKING, NOT THE TEACHER WHO IS FREE TO MONITOR THE STUDENT'S PERFORMANCE. AFTER INITIAL GUIDANCE FROM THE TEACHER EACH DRILL CAN BE CARRIED OUT ENTIRELY BY THE STUDENT HIMSELF. HE MUST EXTRACT INFORMATION FROM THE ILLUSTRATION AND USE IT TO COMPLETE THE PATTERN PROVIDED. HIS RESPONSE THEREFORE REQUIRES INITIATIVE AND IS CONSEQUENTLY MORE MEANINGFUL. THE CUES COVER A WIDE VARIETY OF SUBJECT AND CONTEXT.

Murder at the Flats

Miss Gray

Mr and Mrs White

Miss Green

Mrs Groves

Mr and Mrs Phillips

Mr and Mrs Brook

Mr Barnes

28   Section 3

Mr Graham

Drill A
What were you doing at eight o'clock last night, Mr Barnes?
  I was reading a book.
What were you doing at eight o'clock last night, ...?
  I was/We were ....

Exercise A
1 Mr Barnes was reading a book at 8 pm.
2 Mr and Mrs Phillips ....

Drill B
Did you hear the shot, Mrs Brook?
  Yes, we were having a drink at the time.
Did you hear the shot, Mrs Groves?
  No, I was having a nap at the time.
Did you hear the shot, ...?
  Yes/No, I was/we were .... at the time.

Exercise B
1 Mr and Mrs Brook heard the shot when they were having a drink.
2 Mrs Groves didn't hear the shot because she was having a nap.
3 Mr Graham ....

Drill C
What was Mrs Groves doing when the murderer fired the shot?
  She was lying on the sofa.
What was/were .... doing when the murderer fired the shot?
  He was/She was/They were ....

Exercise C
1 Mrs Groves was lying on the sofa when the murderer fired the shot.
2 Mr and Mrs White ....

Section 3   29

specimen page (reduced) illustrating use of
simple past   past continuous.

NOW Basic ▭ English for Today !

DE ACUERDO AL PROGRAMA OFICIAL PARA EL
CURSO DE INGLES EN ESCUELAS SECUNDARIAS

Lesson Four

PEOPLE AND OCCUPATIONS
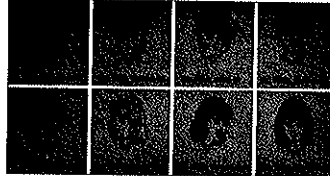
The lesson format is highly usable by teachers and also highly learnable because it takes each segment of grammar in small portions. Each lesson is divided into a series of *mini lessons* consisting of *examples* of the vocabulary and structure about to be taught and a series of drills teaching the concepts. The teacher need not use the entire lesson but may choose mini lessons as time permits.

example of what is to be taught

This is Mr. Scott. He's a farmer.
This is Mrs. Scott. She's a teacher.
That's Sam Scott. He's a student.

new vocabulary and structure

4.1 Use the picture cards or the illustrations above as you identify the people on them. Use *this* or *that* alternately, in the following drill.

Mr. Scott
1. This is Mr. Scott.
Mr. Baker
2. That's Mr. Baker.

Mrs. Scott
3. ....
Miss Scott
4. ....

mini lesson

Sam Scott
5. ....
Ken Baker
6. ....

Ann Scott
7. ....
Kathy Baker
8. ....

4.2 Practice statements with *he* and *she* and names of occupations.

he
1. This is Mr. Scott.
2. This is Mr. Baker.
3. This is Sam Scott.
4. This is Ken Baker.
He's a farmer.

she
5. This is Mrs. Scott.
6. This is Miss Scott.
7. This is Ann Scott.
8. This is Kathy Baker.
She's a teacher.

drills to teach concepts introduced in example

he and she
9. That's Mr. Scott.
10. That's Mrs. Scott.
11. That's Ken Baker.
12. That's Sam Scott.
13. That's Miss Scott.
14. That's Kathy Baker.
15. That's Mr. Baker.
16. That's Ann Scott.
He's a farmer.

2. Kathy is a student and Ann is, too.
3. Mrs. Scott is a teacher and Miss Scott is, too.
4. Mr. Baker is a pilot and Mr. Cook is, too.
5. Mr. Scott is a farmer and Mr. Allen is, too.

II Is Mr. Scott a farmer? Yes, he is.
Is Mr. Scott a teacher? No, he's not.
What is he? He's a farmer.
Is Mrs. Scott a teacher? Yes, she is.
Is Mrs. Scott a student? No, she's not.
What is she? She's a teacher.

4.3 Refer to Example II above. Practice short answers with *he* and *she* in a chain drill.

S1: Is Mr. Scott a student?
S2: No, he's not.
Is Mr. Scott a teacher?
S3: No, he's not.
Is Mr. Scott a farmer?
S4: Yes, he is.

DIALOGUE Introductions: Formal and Informal

reinforces what has been taught up to this point

Formal:
S1: Mr./Mrs./Miss (Baker), this is Mr./Mrs./Miss (Scott).
S2: How do you do?
S3: How do you do?

Informal:
S1: (Ken), this is (Ann Scott).
S2: Hi!
S3: Hi!

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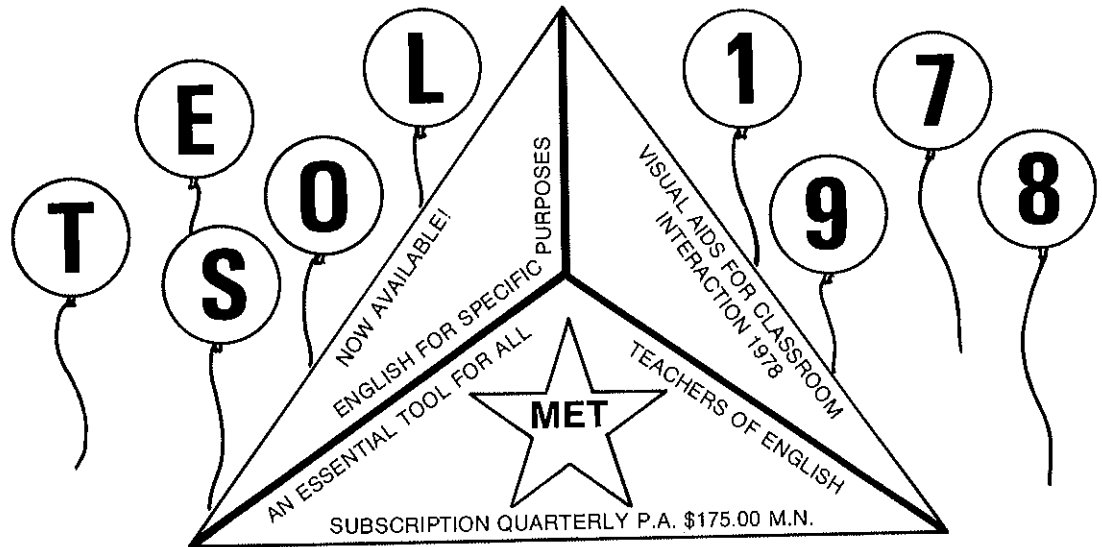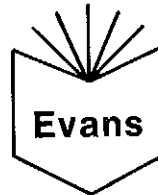
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NOTES

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