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ABSTRACT

This study describes and analyzes the state of English teaching in Colombian public secondary schools in 1971. Examined are the present status of the Colombian school system, the English curriculum, the attitudes of English students, and the organizations which contribute to the study of English in Colombia. The methods used to teach the language are described by observing a stratified sample of 30 classes and recording teacher behavior via the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories system. It is found that lecture is the most common teacher behavior pattern, but that pattern drills are also widely used. Self-evaluation studies indicate that the listening and speaking skills are the weakest and that professional preparation is the strongest of the English teachers' competencies. Major problems include large classes, poor pay, anti-Americanism, a lack of didactic aids, a nearly total absence of articulation, and a paucity of in-service programs. The English student is found to be quite negative, especially boys. Organizations contributing to the teaching of English are Colombian-American Linguistic Institute, the binational centers, professional associations, the Fulbright Commission, and the British Council. The study also describes the national curriculum guide and the most commonly used textbooks. Following the study are recommendations and appendixes, including a list of those interviewed and an extensive bibliography. (Author/HW)

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN COLOMBIAN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

A report submitted to the
Instituto Colombiano de Crédito Educativo
y Estudios Técnicos en el Exterior
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of a research grant awarded the author
by that organization

By

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THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN COLOMBIAN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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This study describes and analyzes the state of English teaching in Colombian public secondary schools in 1971. In order to gather information, many published and unpublished documents were consulted. These portray the present status of the Colombian school system, the English curriculum, the attitudes of English students, and the organizations which contribute to the study of English in Colombia.

The methods used to teach the language were described by observing a stratified sample of 30 classes, and recording teacher behavior via the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories system. It was found that lecture is the most common teacher behavior pattern but that pattern drills are also widely used. A fairly large amount of teacher correction was also noticed. No differences in method according to level were apparent.

Teacher competencies are portrayed through a self-evaluation scale completed by the teachers observed. The results indicate that the listening and speaking skills are the weakest and that professional preparation is the strongest of the English teachers' competencies.

Through numerous personal interviews the problems of Colombian English teachers were ascertained. These included large class, poor pay, anti-Americanism, a lack of didactic aids, a nearly total absence of articulation, and a paucity of in-service programs.

Many organizations were found to contribute to English teaching in Colombia. The major ones are the Colombian-American Linguistic Institute, the binational centers, professional associations, the Fulbright Commission, and the British Council. The first of these has retrained over 2,000 teachers in new-key methodology.

The English student was found to be quite negative about language study. This is especially true in the case of boys. Students pursuing the academic bachillerato degree usually score highest on the national English test.

The study also describes the national curriculum guide and the most commonly used textbooks. Concerning the latter it was found that most teachers prefer new-key textbooks, but that a traditional book is also widely employed.

Two recommendations for future research are made also.

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Numerous people have contributed to this project. Many of them are listed in the body of the work. Some however, have been so exceptionally generous in time and patience that they deserve special mention here.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACPI	Asociación Colombiana de Profesores de Inglés (confined to Valle)
ASOCOPI	Asociación Colombiana de Profesores de Inglés (national)
BNC	Binational Center
CATE	Colombian Association of Teachers of English (confined to Antioquia)
ICCE	Instituto Colombiano de Construcciones Escolares
ICETEX	Instituto Colombiano de Crédito Educativo y Estudios Técnicos en el Exterior (Prior to 1969, Instituto Colombiano de Educación Técnica en el Exterior)
ICFES	Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educación Superior
ICOLPE	Instituto Colombiano de Pedagogía
ILCA	Instituto Lingüístico Colombo-Americano
ILCF	Instituto Lingüístico Colombo-Francés
INEM	Instituto Nacional de Educación Media
MEN	Ministerio de Educación Nacional

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Problem

Traditionally Latin-American countries have depended on foreign institutions of higher learning for their advanced educational needs. Prior to this century it was customary for the young aristocrat to journey to Europe where he acquired not only his degree, but European culture and values as well. Due to the challenge of a technological age, however, an increasing interest developed in study in the United States after World War II. Since the opening in 1952 of the Instituto Colombiano de Crédito Educativo y Estudios Técnicos en el Exterior, or ICETEX, as it is generally called, the number of Colombian students helped by their governments to study abroad has grown to around five thousand per year. Some 42 per cent of these elect to come to the United States where excellent opportunities exist for advanced technical training in all fields in addition to the courses in law, medicine, and civil engineering which traditionally have been well covered by Colombian universities.

The population explosion in Colombia is indeed alarming. The birth rate in Bogotá is 33.8 per thousand as compared to a death rate of 19.6. Other cities, such as Medellín, have an even larger birth rate; and half the country's population is under 15 years of age. Thus

it can be concluded that the majority of the country's population will contribute little to the production of goods for some time to come.

Gale has estimated that by 1975 the South American continent will have to increase by eighteen times the internal production of machine[illegible] order to meet the demands of its expanding population.[1] The technology involved will demand a large number of workers qualified for complex jobs. A study done by ICETEX in 1964 showed that by 1975 Colombia will need 141,000 additional high level personnel, while the most optimistic prediction about university growth anticipates space for only 111,000 students in the interim. This figure includes those who will enroll, but not graduate.[2]

Dr. Diógenes Arosemena, Director of Panama's Institute for the Formation and Utilization of Human Resources, feels that there are only two methods through which developing countries can meet their manpower needs:

1. By obtaining professors and technicians from abroad, and
2. By sending their students abroad.[3]

The first of these methods has been used extensively in the past

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[1]Laurance Gale, Education and Development in Latin America (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1969), p. 45.

[2]Instituto Colombiano de Crédito Educativo y Estudios Técnicos en el Exterior, Recursos y requerimientos de personal de alto nivel (Bogotá: ICETEX, 1964), pp. 146-147.

[3]Diógenes Arosemena, "Desarrollo de los recursos humanos a través del intercambioeducativo," in El crédito educativo en America Latina, ed. by ICETEX (Bogotá: Imprenta Nacional, 1969), p. 247.

decade in Colombia and has been found to suffer from several disadvantages. It is very difficult to get persons of known expertise to live in underdeveloped countries. If such persons can be obtained, the language barrier is often an insurmountable problem both to them and to the foreign nationals who could profit from their knowledge. Finally, the cost of bringing such people to Colombia is extremely high in comparison with the average remuneration for local labor. For these reasons the Fulbright Commission in Bogotá, after a decade of frustration, all but ceased to include the use of this strategy after 1968. Instead, in their subsequent annual proposals to Washington, they recommend sending Colombians to the United States. Dr. Germán García Restrepo, Executive Director of the Commission in Colombia, feels that this strategy has worked much better and has the following advantages:

1. The cost per grantee is cheaper.
2. Returning grantees can then give seminars to Colombians with no resulting communication problems.
3. Unlike the American grantee who contributes only for one year, returning Colombians may contribute permanently (except for the 2.2 per cent who opt to remain abroad).[1]

Given the fact that foreign training will continue to play a major role in the development of human and technological resources so necessary for a dynamic economy, the role of English teaching in

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[1]Instituto Colombiano de Crédito Educativo y Estudios Técnicos en el Exterior, El crédito educativo en Colombia, 1950-1970 (Bogotá: Imprenta Nacional, 1970), p. 36.

Colombia becomes one of major importance.[1]

The Colombian student coming to the United States with six years of English study at the secondary level must be able to function in the English language.[2] UNESCO's trilingual handbook, Study Abroad, states that the greatest cause of failure among international students is their inability to understand and express themselves in the foreign language. The case of Colombia is typical. Personal observation by the writer has revealed that graduates often are unable to exchange even everyday banalities as reward for their efforts in English class. Those wishing to study abroad must have the funds necessary either to take private lessons from a tutor, or to enroll in a commercial English teaching establishment. Yet a six year sequence is compulsory for fulfillment of the requirements for the bachillerato. According to Nelson Brooks, this should be sufficient exposure to lead to a functional mastery of the four basic communicative skills; listening, speaking, reading, and writing.[3]

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[1]Mrs. Marina Muñoz de Miranda, head of ICETEX's Bureau of International Relations, discussed the demand for English with the investigator on August 16, 1971, at her office in Bogotá. She stated that English is by far the most needed language for study abroad. In addition to the United States, Canada, and England, many other countries receiving Colombian students require a speaking and/or fluent reading knowledge of English. The principal ones include Holland, Sweden, Denmark, part of Belgium, Norway, Italy, India, Japan, Nationalist China, Finland, South Africa, Australia, Jamaica, Israel, Thailand, Hungary, and the Phillipines.

[2]ICETEX, in Observaciones generales sobre la enseñanza en los Estados Unidos (Bogotá: Imprenta Nacional, 1966), p. 12, states "Experience indicates without any doubt, that the major problem which the foreign student will encounter in the United States, is the lack of a sufficient knowledge of English." (Translated by the investigator.)

[3]Nelson Brooks, Language and Language Learning (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1964), p. 124.

Between 1965 and 1970, the Florida-Colombia Alliance provided scholarships for over 250 Colombian students to study at Florida colleges and universities.[1] The English proficiency of these students, upon arriving in the U.S., was found to be so low that it was necessary to create the Florida Interamerican Learning Institute (FILI) to prepare them for entrance into the state's institutions.[2]

It should be noted that English is important to the Colombian student, even if he does not get the opportunity to study abroad. Although an attempt is presently being made to change the situation, very few textbooks exist in the Spanish language for the study of mathematics and the natural sciences at the university level. Consequently, most up-to-date Colombian professors adopt textbooks written in English which are sold by American companies or their Colombian agents. Here again, the student's high school preparation fails him, making it impossible for him to read his assignments with comprehension. At the 1968 meeting of the Colombian Association of English Teachers, the rector of the University del Valle, in Cali, stated that inability to read English is one of the most frequently cited complaints of Colombian university professors, when discussing the value of the high school preparation of their students.[3] Although Colombia's teachers

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[1]Gonzalo Arboleda Palacio, Acting Director of ICETEX, private interview, Bogotá, July 29, 1971.

[2]Lawerance L. Benson, Secretary to the Florida-Colombia Alliance, personal communication, Tallahassee, September 25, 1967.

[3]Alfonso Ocampo Londoño, "Opening Address," Bulletin of the Third National ASOCOPI Seminar (Cali: ASOCOPI, 1968), p. 3.

may be doing an acceptable job under the prevailing conditions, obviously much can be done to improve the quality of its English programs. With such improvements in mind, the following study was undertaken.

The Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this study are the following:

1. To establish an initial reference on English teaching in Colombian public secondary schools.
2. To gather a corpus of information which will portray the present status of English teaching in Colombian public secondary schools.
3. To develop from this information a set of recommendations for the strengthening of English teaching in said schools.

The Significance of the Study

This study is significant for several reasons.

Van Dalen has stated that before much progress can be made in solving problems, men must possess descriptions of the phenomena in which they work.[1] In providing such a description, the following study brings to light the problems confronting English teaching in Colombia today.

After research has identified the problems, educators may develop treatments in an effort to rectify the situation. Once the

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[1]Deobold B. Van Dalen, Understanding Educational Research (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966), p. 203.

treatments have been applied, the description may serve as a basis for comparison with the post-treatment findings. In this manner, not only can the description stimulate change, but it can also serve as a basis for evaluating change. The description provided herein may also be employed to fulfill such a function.

In addition, this description has historical significance in that it portrays the teaching of English at a particular moment in time, during the year 1971. In doing so it may enable future teachers to compare the state of their art with the state of the art in 1971.

The Design of the Study

Background

In January, 1969, based on previous exposure to the situation in Colombia, the researcher wrote a proposal for a study of English teaching in that country, and submitted it to Miss Faye Carter, Secretary to the Florida-Colombia Alliance. Although it was not possible for the Alliance to act favorably on the proposal, in February, Secretary of State Tom Adams took it with him on a trip to Colombia on behalf of the Alliance. There, he presented the proposal to Dr. Gerardo Eusse Hoyos, Director of ICETEX, who agreed to provide partial support through that institution. The support came in the form of a subsistance allowance of 4,500 pesos (approximately $225), a boarding pass to Avianca aircraft, and an office in Bogotá at the Colombian-American Linguistic Institute for the duration of the investigator's stay in Colombia. After accepting this offer of support, the investigator spent eleven weeks in Colombia, from June 1,

1970, to August 18, 1970, gathering the data interpreted herein.

The Sample

A total of 30 classes in 19 schools were visited in an attempt to analyze English teaching in Colombia. No more than two teachers were observed at any school and no teacher was observed more than once. Each of the six levels of English classes was observed five times during the months of June, July and August, 1971.

Because of the size of the population, and the limited amount of financial support provided the researcher, it was not possible to visit a sufficient number of classes via random selection, to significantly reduce the probability that any intervening variable had been excluded from the sample. It has been noted that this situation is common in broad scale research, and that under such circumstances a stratified sampling procedure is necessitated, provided that the intervening variables can be identified.[1] By using a stratified sampling procedure in Colombia, the researcher was able to select a sample which possessed characteristics similar to those of the total population, and in nearly the same proportion.

Three variables were taken into account in the selection of teachers. These were: (1) the presence of a rural or urban setting, (2) the type of degree which was offered by the school, and (3) the salaries of classroom personnel within the school.

Gale states that traditionally Colombian urban colegios have

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[1] Van Dalen, Understanding Educational Research, pp. 204, 292, and 299.

been of higher caliber and this is corroborated by the Colombian Institute for the Development of Higher Education.[1] It is difficult to decide on what is a rural school in Colombia. DANE, in its annual census of educational establishments defines a rural school as one located in a center of population of less than 5,000 inhabitants. ICFES, on the other hand, in its studies of the college aspirant, defines the rural student as one coming from a center of population which does not have its own university or is not the capital of a department. For this reason, other investigators will find conflicting statistics regarding the number and percentage of secondary students in rural settings.

For the purposes of this study, the definition as stated by DANE will be used. ICFES statistics can be misleading for the purpose of sampling, since several cities of 75,000 or more population are classified as rural, even though they enjoy a decided advantage in cultural atmosphere, a factor often associated with the quality of professors and students.[2]

In 1968, there was a total of 272,794 students enrolled in all types of secondary schools in the country. Of these 12,341, or approximately 4.4 per cent were enrolled in rural establishments, at a ratio of approximately 91 students per establishment.[3] Therefore, two

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[1] Gale, Education and Development in Latin America, Chapter II; Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educación Superior, Algunos aspectos del bachiller colombiano (Bogotá: ICFES, 1970), p. 90.

[2] ICFES, Algunos aspectos, p. 90.

[3] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística, Censo de establecimientos educativos, 1968 (Bogotá: DANE, 1970), p. 4.

rural schools were visited and one teacher was observed in each school.

Table 1 shows the percentages of students pursuing all types of secondary degrees, and the number of classes of each type observed. It is important to include this type of stratification in the sample since significant differences occur according to degree on the national English test given at the end of the sixth year.[1]

Table 2 shows the percentages of students that graduate from the three types of public high schools; municipal, departmental and national. This information was taken into account in sampling since salaries are usually best in the national schools and consequently these schools can be more selective in their requirements for employment. Following the national schools, the departmental schools are usually more selective. Municipal schools can be considered the least selective due to the fact that they usually pay lower salaries.

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[1] ICFES, Algunos aspectos, p. 140.

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS ENROLLED IN SECONDARY PROGRAMS BY TYPE OF PROGRAM AND THE NUMBER OF CLASSES OF EACH TYPE INCLUDED IN THE SAMPLE

Academic Bachelor	Normal School	Industrial Bachelor	Commercial Bachelor	Agricultural Bachelor	Total
71.93	9.47	4.92	12.28	1.40	100.00
		Classes observed			
21	3	2	4	..	30

Source: ICFES, Algunos aspectos del bachiller colombiano, p. 16.

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS GRADUATING FROM THREE TYPES OF PUBLIC SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND THE NUMBER OF CLASSES OF EACH TYPE INCLUDED IN THE SAMPLE

National	Departmental	Municipal	Total
39.6	55.1	5.0	100.00
	Classes Observed		
12	16	2	30

Source: ICFES, Algunos aspectos del bachiller colombiano, p. 28.
NOTE: It is assumed that these percentages would coincide with the total number of students enrolled in each type of building, were such figures available.

The Identification of Schools

Identifying rural schools can be a difficult task in Colombia, since it is not easy to determine the population of a rural village. For example, if a visitor asks a cab driver in a nearby city, he will respond that the village could not have more than a few hundred inhabitants. If the departmental English inspector is asked, he will respond that the village has about 5,000 inhabitants. Finally, upon arriving at the village, the rector will estimate that the village has about twice the population given by the departmental inspector.

This description fits the case of the three rural schools observed. At the secretariat of education of the Department of Tolima, in Ibague, the writer was informed by the English inspector that the smallest village in the department having a colegio was Chicoral, about 50 kilometers away. He further stated that the town did not have even five thousand inhabitants, and the colegio was so small that it had only two levels of instruction. Upon arriving at the school, the writer was told by the rector that the town had 8,000 inhabitants in the urban sector, and if the outlying farming areas served by the town were included, its population would rise about 15,000. To the writer, the town appeared to have a population of about 500, with no more than 150 small houses and not a single hotel, restaurant, or paved street. Whatever the population of Chicoral, or the other villages visited (Floridablanca, Santander, and Rivera, Huila) may be, the investigator was told in each case that the department did not have a colegio in a smaller village. Indicative of the size of these colegios is the fact that not a single one offered more than four levels

of instruction.

School Calendar

Colombia operates on two school calendars. Calendar A, which is the official one in all departments except Valle, Cauca, and Narino, designates a semester break from the 20th of June to the 15th of July. Since the last two weeks of the semester are reserved for examinations, it was not possible to observe classes in the majority of the Colombian territory until the 21st of July. Calendar B is to be followed in the southwest section of the country, in the departments of Cauca, Valle and Narino, and in the commissary of Putumayo. This calendar calls for a year's-end break between June 30 and September 1. The writer visited the departments of Valle and Nariño between June 8th and June 16th, 1971, and found that all schools were either in examinations or on vacation already. Consequently, it was impossible to observe classes in these areas also, with the exception of the INEM's which work on a different calendar altogether. In addition, efforts to visit classes before the first of August were often frustrated by the fact that many schools, having fallen behind schedule, were now giving final exams at the beginning of the semester, which were supposed to have been given at the end of the previous semester. Therefore, the majority of these 30 observations were made during the month of August, 1971. Finally, it should be mentioned that the majority were made in the morning hours, since after August 2 most of the schools in the country were on a continuous six hour session from 7:00 a.m. to 1:00 p.m., so that during the afternoon students could watch the Pan-American games on television.

Materials and procedures employed

The study depended on the following sources for data:

1. Syllabi, lesson plans, textbooks, questionnaires, periodicals, bulletins, newspapers, personal correspondence, and reports by professional associations, the Colombian Ministry of Education, its affiliates, and the National Institute of Statistics.
2. Personal interviews with teachers, teacher trainers, administrators, curriculum and subject matter specialists, and other interested parties.
3. Direct observation of classes of 30 teachers located in various parts of Colombia. The classroom behavior of teachers and students was recorded via the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories, adapted to foreign languages by Moskowitz.
4. Related studies, both published and unpublished (i.e., master's and doctoral theses, etc.).

Outline of Chapters

Since it is necessary to comprehend the total nexus of the educational system before one can fully comprehend the circumstances of a single cog in that system, this study begins with a fairly extensive treatment of Colombian education in general. In addition, and relating more specifically to English teaching, the study reviews legal regulations and dictums, and traces the development of the study of English in the curriculum. The results of a questionnaire entitled "The English Classroom" are examined for information on characteristics of the class-

room, and the amount and type of equipment and supplies available.

Chapter III presents a detailed description of the contributions of the many entities, both Colombian and foreign, that have made contributions toward improving the quality of English teaching in Colombia.

Chapter IV describes the behavior patterns of Colombian English teachers. These patterns are based on the writer's observations of 30 teachers, using interaction analysis as the recording instrument. Through the help of a computer, the techniques of beginning, intermediate, and advanced level classes are elaborated and a comparison among them is drawn.

Chapter V deals with the human element of education: teachers, students, and supervisors. The results of a self-evaluation of teacher competencies is presented here and compared to the opinion of a select panel of experts.[1] Programs for teacher training are also reviewed.

Chapter VI consists of two parts. The first is a thorough analysis of the content and methods suggested in the curriculum guide for English which is used (by law) throughout the nation. The second part presents the findings of a survey to identify the most frequently used English textbooks, and examines the format of those so identified.

The final chapter summarizes the entire study, and draws some general conclusions. Numerous recommendations are made to Colombian educators, and some topics for future research are indicated.

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[1] See Appendix IV.

CHAPTER II

THE SETTING FOR LEARNING

Education in Colombia: An Overview

In Colombia, the organization and curriculum of education at the elementary and secondary levels is prescribed by the national government through the Ministry of Education. Like the Spanish language, the educational system was imported from Spain during the colonial period. Later, it suffered influences from France, Italy, England, Germany, and most recently the United States. Due to Colombia's slow economic growth, her educational system has had little opportunity to advance over the years. To a considerable extent it is reminiscent of European education in the last century; being mostly a property of the upper and middle classes, although the government has made manifest progress during the past two decades in rectifying this situation.

The Church in Education

The Roman Catholic Church has traditionally played a major role in Colombian public education. In 1888, the conservative government signed a Concordat with the Vatican which guaranteed to the latter the power to oversee the moral and intellectual development of school children. Since the Colombian constitution stipulates that the

Catholic Church is to be the official church of the state, the Concordat is still in effect. Many scholars Colombian and foreign have commented on this relationship. A typical analysis is the following:

> The provisions of the Concordat concerning education in Colombia are among the most significant in the shaping of the society. It is established that public instruction is to be organized and directed in accordance with the dogmas and moral precepts of the church, and that religious teaching is compulsory and the Catholic rites are to be observed in all of the schools (Art. 12). In execution of the preceding specifications, the bishop or his delegate in each diocese has the right of inspection and revision of texts to prevent indoctrination in religious or moral error. The archbishop of Bogotá has the responsibility of designating the religious texts for use in the universities and together with the prelates of other dioceses, he also selects the books for religious and moral instruction in the public schools. The government is committed to prevent the teaching in any other subject of ideas which are contrary to Catholic dogma (Art. 13). Should an instructor fail to conform with church doctrine, the bishop of the diocese may have him removed.[1]

Over the years the Church has exercised these powers when allowed to do so. However the Church's influence in education today is an issue which is frequently debated, particularly by Colombian university students. It seems that although the Church did exert a pronounced influence on public education in the early and mid 1960s, at present its sway is minor in the face of increased public consciousness.

Financial Support

Public schools in Colombia are financed via three administrative structures. Probably the highest quality institutions are called

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[1]Benjamin E. Haddox, "A Sociological Study of the Institution of Religion in Colombia" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Florida, 1962), p. 222.

"national" schools, which means they are financed entirely by the federal government. The second group and the most numerous are called "departmental" schools, which means they are financed by the department. In Colombia the departamento is the highest territorial governmental structure and can be considered more or less equivalent to the concept of state or province in other countries. Following the departments are the intendencias and comisarías which are undeveloped national territories. The responsibility for education in the national territories is delegated to the Church, which receives compensation from the federal government for the education provided. A minor source of funds for education is the local municipality. Schools depending on these funds are called "municipal."

Elementary Education

Public elementary education is free and obligatory for all Colombian children between seven and twelve years of age. School attendance is not enforced however, in areas where there is not enough space for all children. Presently, this includes all of Colombia, although the new Minister of Education has projected that the law will be enforceable in the capital city of Bogotá by 1975. Pupils take a five-year course which includes Religion, Spanish, Arithmetic, Social Studies, Natural Sciences, Music and Physical Education. An elementary degree is awarded upon successfully passing a comprehensive examination given during the last year. In 1968, Colombia had 27,361 primary schools both public and private and 78.5 per cent were public.[1]

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[1]Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadistica, Censo de establecimientos educativos, 1968 (Bogotá: DANE, 1970), pp. 1-3.

Although the number of primary schools in Colombia is growing, a larger percentage is becoming private. In 1960 for instance, 88 per cent of the 19,516 primary schools were public.[1]

There is little difference in public and private primary schools, however, since all elementary and secondary institutions are required to follow the national curriculum as established by the Ministry of Education and enforced through its inspectors. Due to the incentive for financial gain, some private schools are actually of poorer quality than public schools. On the other hand, many are better, usually depending on the amount of tuition charged. Most private elementary schools offer additional courses besides those prescribed by the ministry. Often these courses are foreign languages and most frequently English.

Perhaps the most drastic change to take place in the primary school during the past decade was the passing of Decree 1710 of 1963, authorizing the creation of coeducational public schools for rural areas. Previously, public primary education in Colombia was largely segregated according to sex. For example, in 1958 the National Department of Statistics reported that 88.7 per cent of all primary schools were segregated. The law effected no serious problem in the cities, where due to the multiplicity of buildings, students were assigned to each building according to sex. In rural areas, however, only a one

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[1]Colombia, Ministerio de Educación Nacional, Informe de la delegación de la república de Colombia a la conferencia sobre educación y desarrollo económico en America Latina, cited by William Grant Duncan, "Education in Colombia: A Sociological Approach" (unpublished Masters' thesis, University of Florida, 1966), p. 64.

room school was usually available, and the resulting situation was much more acute. Young boys and girls were forced to attend either half day sessions or, according to a schedule which received boys on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, and girls on Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday. Regardless of the schedule used, the net result was that students received only about one-half the normal amount of education per year. The effect of this situation can be appreciated by considering that in the same year 61 per cent of Colombia's primary schools offered a maximum of two years of study.[1]

The governments attempt to establish coeducational primary education met with strong opposition from the Church. In many areas the local priest simply made a public pronouncement that "You should not send your children to school." As a result, several schools were temporarily shut down.[2] The forces favoring coeducation were able to survive this setback however and today segregated schools comprise only 26 per cent of the total.

Another factor plaguing primary education is the lack of didactic aids. In some instances the teacher has nothing more than a blackboard and chalk to work with.

The condition of the physical plant is also a problem. The well known Colombian sociologist, Orlando Fals-Borda, once stated that most of the nation's primary schools were originally built as chicherías,

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[1]Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadistica, Estadísticas Culturales 1958, cited by Duncan, Ibid., pp. 66-68.

[2]Lucila Rubio de Valverde, Perfiles de Colombia (Bogotá: Editorial Guadalupe, 1965), p. 72.

a type of local bar serving home-made liquor.[1] Although the situation is presently not so acute, the fact remains that many primary schools are housed in buildings which were not originally built for that purpose.

A sociological factor inhibiting the quality of primary education in Colombia is the low accord held for the elementary teacher. Evidence of this may be found in the pay scale, which ranges from $40 to $80 per month. In addition, recent Colombian newspaper accounts indicate that when a department's educational resources become depleted, elementary teachers are the first selected not to receive their pay checks. This has caused several walkouts during recent years.

A review of primary education in Colombia shows many problems, some of which have been briefly outlined here. Perhaps it is for this reason that only one out of every four first grade graduates actually finishes the fifth grade.[2] Nevertheless, improvements are numerous and recent government pronouncements offer encouragement that more improvements at this level are yet to come.

Secondary Education

In Colombia this follows the European system with emphasis on the humanities, and a large number of prescribed courses. The total six-year program is divided into two cycles: a basic cycle consisting

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[1]Orlando Fals-Borda, "Bases for a Sociological Interpretation of Education in Colombia," in The Caribbean: Contemporary Colombia, A. Curtis Wilgus, ed. (Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1962), p. 201.

[2]Computed from statistics in Duncan, op. cit., p. 51.

of the first four years, and an advanced cycle consisting of the last two years. The curriculum was established by Decree No. 45 of 1962, which outlined the plan of studies for all schools public and private.

By referring to Tables 3 and 4, one can observe that the Colombian secondary student takes at least nine subjects each year. Intensification refers to additional courses the student may choose in any of the previously studied areas. Therefore, it is possible to take as many as thirteen subjects per year. As a result, students must attend from 35 to 38 classes per week. The Ministry prescribes that each class be of 50 minutes duration.

Colombian high schools may be classified into different types according to the degree they offer. Although there are as many as eleven different degrees, the five most common are the Academic, Normal, Industrial, Commercial, and Agricultural. Again such schools can be further subdivided into National, Departmental, and Municipal. All Colombian students must complete the program of studies outlined by Decree No. 45, regardless of the type of school in which they are enrolled. Students in non-Academic or Vocational schools do the area studies during the time allowed for intensification and extra-curricular activities. As a result, these students often take more subjects than do their counterparts in Academic schools.

In 1968, there were 272,794 students attending public secondary schools in Colombia.[1] Of these 58 per cent were boys and 42 per cent were girls as compared with a nearly equal ration in the primary schools.

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[1]DANE, Censo de Establicimientos Educativos 1968, pp. 1-3.

TABLE 3

THE SECONDARY CURRICULUM IN COLOMBIA
BY SUBJECT AND YEAR
BASIC CYCLE

Subject	Number of Hours Each Year				
	First	Second	Third	Fourth	Total
Religion and Morals	90	90	90	60	330
Spanish and Literature	150	150	150	150	600
Mathematics	150	120	150	210	630
Science	60	60	60	120	300
Social Studies	150	210	210	120	690
Foreign Language	90	90	90	90	360
Industrial Arts or Home Economics	60	60	60	60	240
Aesthetic Education	60	60	60	60	240
Physical Education	60	60	60	60	240
Extra-Curricular Activities and Intensification	270	240	210	210	930
Total	1140	1140	1140	1140	4560

TABLE 4

THE SECONDARY CURRICULUM IN COLOMBIA
BY SUBJECT AND YEAR

ADVANCED CYCLE

Subject	Number of Hours Each Year		
	Fifth	Sixth	Total
Religion and Morals	60	30	90
Psychology	60	..	60
Philosophy	90	120	210
Social Studies	..	60	60
Spanish and Literature	90	90	180
Foreign Language	150	150	300
Mathematics	90	60	150
Physics	120	120	240
Chemistry	120	120	240
Physical Education	60	60	120
Extra-Curricular Activities and Intensification	300	330	630
Total	1140	1140	2280

Of the 3,664 secondary establishments, 2,350 or 67 per cent of them were privately owned.[1] Further data inform that about 80 per cent of the private establishments offering academic degrees are affiliated with the Catholic Church.[2]

Private secondary schools, like their elementary counterparts, vary widely in quality. Normally, however, teachers in the national public schools are better paid for their services.

There are an estimated 40,932 secondary teachers in Colombia.[3] Sixty-three percent of them are employed on a full-time basis and the remainder teach part-time.[4] The figure is somewhat deceptive, however, since most Colombian teachers teach at two or more schools and consequently are counted twice in the total. Perhaps a more nearly accurate figure, although admittedly a crude one, can be derived by multiplying 63 per cent times the total number of teachers reported. This shows a total of 25,787 secondary teachers. The fact that roughly 62 per cent of them instruct in another school is one of the gravest problems facing the educational system today. A teacher with 35-40 classes per week in different locations cannot possibly dedicate himself to a school and its students. Homework assignments, if given, are nearly

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Gustavo Pérez and Isaac West, La iglesia en Colombia, cited in Duncan, op. cit., p. 77.

[3] Secretaría de Educación y Cultura, II asamblea nacional de capacitación del magisterio (Medellín: Departamento de Antioquia, 1971), p. 18.

[4] DANE, Censo de establecimientos educativos 1968, p. 185.

always corrected in class by other students. Nevertheless, the teacher cannot be blamed for this situation, since his low compensation perpetuates it.

The salary of teachers in Colombia is determined by rank on the national certification scale (escalafón). Due to the large number of proclamations which have been made regarding its interpretation, the escalafón has become such a complicated system that few people really understand it. Essentially the escalafón is divided into a dichotomy consisting of elementary and secondary teachers. It is further subdivided into four categories, which can be reached through education or teaching experience. As a teacher rises on the escalafón, so does his salary. As a result, schools with limited budgets contract many teachers who are unranked (no high school degree or experience), even when more qualified teachers are available. For example, Varner has cited that in 1965 there were 59 national academic high schools in Colombia with 923 teachers. These teachers were divided by category as follows:

First category.....345
Second category.....348
Third category..... 28
Fourth category..... 7
No category.....195[1]

Despite the fact that national schools are typically the most liberally supported, principals find it necessary to balance the budget by combining the country's worst teachers with its best. In the less favored institutions, the situation is undoubtedly worse. Therefore,

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[1]Glen F. Varner, Secondary Education in Colombia (Bogotá: Agency for International Development, 1965), p. 14.

it can be observed that the better educated teacher is not always the one to find a job.

Another problem in Colombian high schools is class size. Although the average class contains about 35 students, this is by no means a maximum. Some advanced classes may have only 15 students while many basic ones have as many as 60. Since most courses are offered only three times a week, and the average teacher has 30 or more classes in toto, it can be assumed that a normal hard-working teacher will instruct some 350 pupils weekly.

It was previously mentioned that only one in four Colombian students starting the first grade finish the fifth. One also must consider that about one-third of all children do not start elementary school. Since just 18 per cent of the students enrolling in the first year of high school actually graduate, it is apparent that only one in fifty first grade students continue to complete their high school degree.[1] Although the role of financial demands upon students cannot be ignored, the present inflexible secondary curriculum is clearly having a deleterious effect on pupil retention. Until administrators and planners take steps to correct this, the chances of an increase in the holding power of the Colombian high school seem doubtful.

The INEM Schools

INEM is the acronym for Instituto Nacional de Educación Media Diversificada. Since Spanish does not have a word final /md/ consonant

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[1]Computed from statistics in Duncan, op. cit., p. 51.

cluster, the "D" is not included in the abbreviation. The first INEM in Colombia was opened in 1970 in Bogotá. These schools portray the government's most determined effort to improve secondary education in Colombia.

An INEM school is considerably different from a standard Colombian colegio. Each INEM offers five degrees, rather than specializing in one as is done in other schools. Students take only 35 classes per week and the prescribed length of classes, 45 minutes, is five minutes less than in other colegios. All students are required to go through three cycles of two years each. The first cycle is called "vocational exploration" and is almost entirely predetermined for all students. During this period the student is becoming acquainted with diverse fields of knowledge. In the second cycle, "vocational orientation," the student has fewer required courses and more electives which he selects with the help of a guidance counselor within a specific degree area chosen by the student. The third cycle is called "occupational education," and at this stage the majority of the student's courses are electives. During the third stage the student selects a branch of specialization (modalidad) within the degree area he has chosen.[1]

The idea of the INEM's was suggested by Mr. Glen Varner of the National Education Association in a year long study of secondary education conducted in 1964.[2] The following year the Ministry of Edu-

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[1]Colombia, President, Decree No. 1085, by which is fixed the plan of studies for the INEM's, June 8, 1971, Article 1.

[2]Varner, Secondary Education in Colombia.

cation published a proposal to build 16 such schools by 1972.[1] The government of Colombia then made application in October of 1967 to the International Bank of Reconstruction and Development for a loan of $16.1 million in order to begin the project. This covers 50 per cent of the cost of construction and equipment for the first ten schools.[2]

Although the cost of the INEM's is formidable, the planners felt they represented a substantial saving over the per pupil expenditure in other schools. The teacher pupil ratio in regular colegios is about 12 to 1 nationally. The INEM's propose a 24 to 1 ratio by operating schools with an average of 2,000 students. This is probably six times the size of the typical colegio.

Aside from the financial justification, INEM planners in the Instituto Colombiano de Construcciones Escolares (ICCE) had other reasons for proposing an American-style high school. It was felt that mixing students pursuing an academic degree with students pursuing vocational-technical degrees would contribute to integration of the social classes. It was also hoped that the elimination of the traditional curriculum in favor of recognition of varying student interests would increase the holding power of the school.

In order to assist the students in choosing a career, each INEM is staffed with one guidance counselor for each 500 students. The

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[1]Colombia, Ministerio de Educacion Nacional, Proyecto Institutos de Educación Media: Plan Nacional (Bogotá: MEN, 1965).

[2]Richard R. Renner, Education in Colombia, in ERIC, ED 035 109, November, 1968, p. 160.

function of the guidance counselor is to increase the student's feeling of security by helping him identify his interests and capabilities.

To improve human relations among staff and students, teachers in the INEM's are not allowed to hold part-time jobs at other schools. Instead, they must devote themselves entirely to the activities of the INEM. This is made possible by offering INEM teachers a wage which is nearly double that earned by other teachers of the same rank. All INEM teachers must have a university degree.

As previously stated, the Colombian bachillerato degree is humanistically oriented. The INEM's, however, have departed from this philosophy in response to several educational realities. The traditionally high rate of attrition following each year of secondary education means that most students will not complete a degree (see page 26). Since vocational courses in the colegios are not offered until the last two years of the advanced cycle, students generally leave school with no greater vocational skills than when they enter. This is especially serious in view of Colombia's classification as a semi-developed country, which means that her greatest need is for semi-skilled and skilled laborers. In order to alleviate this problem, INEM students take vocational courses throughout the six year program. Therefore, even those not graduating enter the job market with a degree of vocational capability.

At present, there are 10 INEM's in operation. These are located in Bogotá, Barranquilla, Bucaramanga, Cali, Cartagena, Cúcuta, Medellín, Montería, Pasto, and Santa Marta. Additional schools are

planned for Manizales, Pereira, Ibagué, Armenia, Neiva, Popayán, Tunja, Villavicencio, and a second one for Bogotá, by September, 1972. Each of these experimental schools represents a major innovation in Colombian secondary education.

The Development of English Language Teaching in Colombia

During the colonial period (prior to 1820) the nature of Colombian education was especially humanistic. The medium of instruction in all schools was Latin, which was taught to Indians, mestizos, and creoles. The following statement by Dr. José M. Rivas Sacconi, Director of the Caro y Cuervo Institute, indicates the magnitude of the role of Latin in those times.

> Latin, the official language of education, literature, and science par excellence, is present everywhere. The learning of Latin grammar and literature constitutes the first part of an education, the first serious study that the student must confront after learning to read, write, and count. All these subjects, including Latin grammar itself, must be explained in Latin. Our textbooks are in Latin, as well as the major part of our reference works. Latin is heard at the private and public ceremonies of our educational institutions, in speeches and sermons. Documents that emanate from the universities or that are directed to them, must be drawn up in Latin. Finally, professors and students have the obligation to speak in Latin within the walls of their high school or university.[1]

During the seventeenth century British and Dutch Puritans arrived on the shores of what are today the Colombian possessions of San Andres and Providencia, two small islands located off the coast of Nicaragua. These immigrants, particularly the Dutch, were the first

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[1] Jose M. Rivas Sacconi, El latín en Colombia (Bogotá: Caro y Cuervo Institute, 1949), pp. 87-88, cited by Gabriel Gómez, La enseñanza del inglés en Colombia: su historia y sus metodos (Bogotá: By the author, 1970), p. 3. (Translated by the investigator.)

to teach the English language to the inhabitants of these islands. These included both Indians and later Africans, brought as slaves. The effect of these colonists was tremendous, and although they departed at the end of the eighteenth century, their influence is still manifest in the English-speaking inhabitants of the islands.

Once Colombia achieved independence from Spain, the study of foreign languages was designated a compulsory part of the curriculum almost immediately.[1] The first such law, signed in 1820 by Simón Bolívar, made Latin, French and English required subjects for the bachillerato.[2]

It is interesting to note that for many years English was considered the least important of the languages which were taught. Decree No. 1238 of 1892, provided that Latin would be taught for three years, Greek for two years, and that the student be given a choice of either English or French for two years. In all instances, the Spanish version (translation) of these languages would be taught.[3]

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[1]Ironically, it was an English translator who precipitated the War for Independence. José González Llorente, a native of Cádiz, Spain, who spoke and read English fluently, also owned a general store on the northeast side of what is today the Plaza de Bolívar. On July 20, 1810, a member of a well-to-do creole family tried to borrow a flower vase from him to be used at a party for the local governor. Llorente responded by insulting the creole who in turn struck the Spaniard. The incident initiated an anti-Spanish uprising in the market-place outside which soon spread throughout the countryside. In spite of the fact that Llorente felt the need to leave the country during the ensuing fracas, he returned several years later and was named the first official translator of the new republic.

[2]Gabriel A. Gómez, La enseñanza del inglés en Colombia: su historia y sus métodos (Bogotá: By the author, 1970), p. 7.

[3]Colombia, President, "Orgánico de la instrucción pública," Decree No. 1238 of January 1, 1892, in Juan Gallego, Pénsumes Colombianos de enseñanza secundaria (Medellín: Imprenta Departamental de Antioquia, 1955), pp. 35-36.

The first mention of method is made in Decree No. 229 of 1905. This decree stated that the methods of Ollendorf, Ahn, or Robertson were to be used in the teaching of French and English.[1] Although these methods were among the most modern of the times, they were still highly traditional in nature as evidenced by their discussions of declensions in English.[2] Oral work consisted of directing the teacher to have the student pronounce the words of each sentence as he wrote it, and a first chapter on English pronunciation.[3]

Latin began to diminish in importance after 1933, with the declaration that French would be required for five years and Latin and English for four years. The amount of required Latin was further reduced to three years in 1936, and to two years in 1939.[4]

During and immediately following World War II, English played a major role in the curriculum. In 1944, it was made compulsory for six years, and in 1945, its intensity (number of class hours per week) was increased. French began to regain importance when, in 1951, it was put on a par with English, both languages being studied for a period

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[1]Colombia, President, "Decree No. 229 of 1905, by which is fixed the program of studies for the Bachillerato in Philosophy and Letters," Ibid., p. 45.

[2]For a brief critique of the Ollendorf-Ahn method, see Renzo Titone, Teaching Foreign Languages: An Historical Sketch (Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 1968), pp. 28-29.

[3]A thorough discussion of these and other methods used in the 19th century is found in Gabriel A. Gómez, La enseñanza del inglés en Colombia.

[4]Juan Gallego, Pénsumes colombianos de enseñanza secundaria, pp. 99-105.

of three years. Three years later the concept of a four year cycle of secondary education became a reality, and English was required all four years. Students taking the advanced cycle were required to take both English and French, bringing the foreign language requirement to its present level of six years of English and two years of French.[1]

Laws Governing the Teaching of English

The study of English is an integral part of the academic preparation of a Colombian "bachiller." According to Decree No. 45, of January 11, 1962, English is to be taught three hours per week to all students enrolled in the basic cycle of secondary education. "Considering that each academic year has thirty weeks, we can say that Colombian high school students are taught English about 90 hours every year for four years."[2] Therefore it could be said that the student who completes this level of education has been exposed to some 360 hours of instruction in the English language.[3] This number is the same regardless of whether the student is enrolled in a program of studies leading to the degree of "bachillerato clásico," "bachillerato comercial," "bachillerato técnico comercial," or "bachillerato técnico

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[1] Ibid., p. 164.

[2] Víctor Quintanilla, "Who Studies English in Colombia?" (paper presented at the TESOL Convention, New Orleans, La., March 1971), p. 1.

[3] This figure is somewhat deceiving since secondary classes in Colombia meet for fifty minutes as prescribed by Decree No. 486, of 1962, Article 12. Therefore a more realistic figure is 300 hours of instruction. Nonetheless, the figure 360 hours will be used in this study since that is the one which is used by Colombian educators.

industrial." The only exception to this rule is the basic curriculum of the INEM's where the student is exposed to 396 hours of English during the basic and advanced cycles.

The fifth and sixth year of work toward all high school degrees demands that the student take at least 150 hours per year of foreign languages. For those students who are studying for the "academic" (classical) diploma, these 150 hours are divided into 60 hours of English and 90 hours of French. This means that such students receive a total of 480 hours of English instruction during the six year course of study. Students who complete the commercial degree divide the final 150 hours in the reverse fashion; English 90 hours per year and French 60, with the stipulation that the final 90 hours should be in Business English.[1] Those students who elect secretarial preparation during the final two years take 150 hours of Business English during both years and no French,[2] and are easily the ones who study the most English in Colombia.

Some adults pursue their degree at night schools, which offer only purely academic subjects. Consequently each subject is studied in greater depth in order that the student may graduate with the same number of hours as the day student who takes more subjects such as physical education and other electives. According to Decree No. 486

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[1]Colombia, President, Decree, "Educación Comercial," No. 2117 of 1962, Art. 6, Régimen de educación media, by Ricardo Rosillo Jacomé (Bogotá: Confederación Nacional de Centros Docentes, 1966), pp. 255-256.

[2]Colombia, Minister of Education, Resolution No. 0704, Art. 1, March 26, 1963, ibid., pp. 268-272.

of 1962, Art. 2, these students take 420 hours of English in the basic cycle divided into 120 hours the first year, 90 hours the second year, 60 hours the third year, 90 hours the fourth year, and 60 hours the fifth year. During the sixth year of the seven year program, the student takes an additional 60 hours which brings the total to 480 (Decree No. 486 of 1962, Art. 4).[1] The arrangement for the commercial bachillerato when obtained at night school is identical (Resolution No. 2024 of 1965, Art. 4).[2]

TABLE 5

AMOUNT OF ENGLISH STUDY IN FIVE COLOMBIAN BACHILLERATOS BY DEGREE, CYCLE, AND YEAR

	BASIC				ADVANCED			
DEGREE	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	Total
Academic	90	90	90	90	60	60		480
Secretariat	90	90	90	90	150	150		660
Commercial	90	90	90	90	90	90		540
Night Academic	120	90	60	90	60	60	..	480
Night Commercial	120	90	60	90	60	60	..	480

As was previously mentioned, the INEM's operate on a different plan of studies which has changed on various occasions due to the experimental nature of the project. The last decree (No. 1085) to

[1] Luís Alejandro Guerra, Legislación escolar colombiana (Bogotá: Editorial Voluntad, 1971), p. 575.

[2] Ibid., p. 590.

effect the English curriculum was given by the President on June 8, 1971, and consequently has not yet been catalogued. This decree divides the entire curriculum into three cycles of two years each. The first cycle, which is the same for everyone regardless of the degree he intends to pursue, is labeled vocational exploration. During the second cycle, vocational orientation, the student selects a minimum of seven electives in addition to the required courses. Upon entering the third cycle, called occupational education, the student must choose the branch and track of studies in which he wishes to specialize. There are five branches which are subdivided into eleven tracks.

During the first cycle (vocational exploration) all students must take English five hours per week for a total of 360 hours. This compulsory program continues into the second cycle with the distinction that the student must choose between English or French for three hours per week during the third year. Since the semester at the INEM is 18 weeks long, this gives the student electing English an additional 108 hours of exposure during that year.[1]

In addition to the above selection which must be made by all

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[1]It is difficult and somewhat confusing to compare the prescribed number of hours of an INEM with other types of schools. Decrees by the Ministry list five hours weekly as totaling 150 hours yearly in regular public schools, and 180 hours yearly in INEM's. This difference is the result of the fact that the academic semester is considered to be 18 weeks long at INEM's and 15 weeks long in other schools. Further investigation reveals that the final exam week is included in the 18 week figure of the INEM's while it is not included in the 15 week figure assigned to other schools. Since no classes are held during final exam week, a more accurate yearly figure for INEM's is 170 hours when the class meets five times per week and 102 hours when the class meets three times per week.

students, those planning to major in the academic branch must initiate a second foreign language (French) during the third year. The intensity with which they study both languages is to be decided by the students themselves but they must take five hours per week of one and three of the other.

Students in the commercial branch must take five hours per week of English and three hours per week of French during the third year.

Students electing the humanities track of the academic branch must take either English or French for five hours per week during the fourth and fifth year.

It is interesting to compare the relative importance given to English in a student's total background under the new INEM curriculum. By comparing Table I with Table II, we notice that in a regular Colombian school the amount of required English is in every case equal to or greater than the amount required in an INEM. If we consider Table III, which is a more honest representation of the exposure, the reduction of English instruction becomes even more apparent. Furthermore, if one considers that the student taking three years of English at the INEM is given three more years to forget it before going to college, it is likely that upon arriving at college and having to start all over the student will ask himself, "What good did those three years do? This situation is potentially dangerous, for it could lead to "proof" that the study of English in high school is worthless and likewise its inclusion in the curriculum. It is especially disconcerting to see this taking place in the Academic and Commercial branches which

TABLE 6

CYCLE OF REQUIRED ENGLISH STUDIES FOR INEM'S AS STATED IN DECREE 1085 BY BRANCH AND YEAR

BRANCH	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	TOTAL
Academic	180	180	108	...	...	...	468
Industrial	180	180	...	...	...	...	360
Commercial	180	180	180	...	...	...	540
Home Econ.	180	180	...	...	...	...	360
Agriculture	180	180	...	...	...	...	360

TABLE 7

NUMBER OF HOURS OF REQUIRED ENGLISH STUDIES AT INEM'S BASED ON FOOTNOTE 1*BY BRANCH AND YEAR

BRANCH	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	TOTAL
Academic	170	170	102	...	...	...	442
Industrial	170	170	...	...	...	...	340
Commercial	170	170	170	...	...	...	510
Home Econ.	170	170	...	...	...	...	340
Agriculture	170	170	...	...	...	...	340

*Page 36.

are supposed to be college preparatory.

Table 8 shows the amount of foreign language study required at INEM's by branch, track, year and language. Considering that a total of 660 hours of foreign language is required of all students under the traditional degree, we again see a reduction in all areas except in the Humanities track. Although this is not necessarily harmful in the non-college preparatory fields, it should be of concern in the academic and commercial branches (considering the high number of complaints by professors in all departments that students cannot read their textbooks).[1] Finally, in the one area where the INEM organization truly favors foreign language teaching (Humanities), we again see no provision for language teaching during the final year.

It should be noted that the new curriculum makes no allowance for the special preparation and certification of secretaries. This same omission occurred once before with the proclamation of Decree No. 2117 in 1962, and had to be corrected by Resolution No. 0704 of 1963, which took cognizance of the error.[2] A review of Table 5 shows that secretaries are given an intensive study of commercial English during their final two years under the normal curriculum, and that no such study is called for under the new INEM curriculum (see Table 8). The researcher suggests this oversight be corrected, since bilingual secretaries in Colombia make two to three times the salary of a normal secretary.

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[1]Alfonso Ocampo Londoño, "Opening Address by the Rector of the Universidad del Valle," Bulletin of the Third ASOCOPI Seminar, Universidad del Valle, May 25-27, 1968. No pagination.

[2]Rosillo Jacomé, Régimen de educación media, p. 269.

TABLE 8

MODERN LANGUAGE STUDY REQUIRED FOR THE INEM DEGREE
ACCORDING TO DECREE 1085 BY BRANCH, TRACK, YEAR, AND LANGUAGE

		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	TOTAL ML REQUIRED
Academic	English	180	180	...	...	...	...	648
	French	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Optional	...	...	108 & 180	...	...	...	
Humanities[a]	English	180	180	...	...	...	...	1008
	French	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Optional	...	...	108 & 180	180	180	...	
Industrial	English	180	180	...	...	...	...	468
	French	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Optional	...	...	108	...	...	...	
Commercial	English	180	180	180	...	...	...	648
	French	...	...	108	...	...	...	
	Optional	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Home Econ.	English	180	180	...	...	...	...	468
	French	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Optional	...	...	108	...	...	...	
Agriculture	English	180	180	...	...	...	...	468
	French	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Optional	...	...	108	...	...	...	

[a]This is a track of the Academic branch.

Solutions to the curricular problems facing language departments at the INEM's are not easy to formulate. The basic problem seems to lie in the fact the student is given his exposure to foreign languages during the first and second years, the vocational exploration cycle, of his schooling. For students in non-college preparatory programs this does not seem important since they will still be receiving the intrinsic advantages which are associated with language study (some knowledge of a foreign culture, increased knowledge of one's own language, etc.). However for students who will soon be entering a university, this problem seems more acute for two reasons:

1. The language is taught at the age when the student is least capable of assimilating any quantity of it due to the fact that he has no conception of grammatical or semantic categories in his own language, since the national curriculum guide for Spanish doesn't call for the teaching of much of this material until the fourth year.[1]
2. Those students who do not continually choose both English and French as electives past the third year, will forget what they have previously learned before arriving to college.

One remedy for this problem is to move language study into the vocational orientation cycle. This however does not appear to be compatible with the spirit of Decree 1085, which sets aside the first two years as a period of general studies. A more feasible remedy would be

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[1]Brooks allows this student two years to assimilate the amount that an older student could assimilate in one year, and most American school systems have found this judgment to be correct. See his Language and Language Learning (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1964), p. 121.

for each language department to write a statement of the problem which would be submitted to the school's guidance counselors. The counselors could in turn advise the students not to drop a language once it had been begun. As to whether or not such a procedure would work, one can only suppose that it would depend on high quality language teachers and cooperation from guidance counselors. Neither in itself would be sufficient.[1]

The English Classroom

Although a discussion of the physical characteristics of the English classroom is redundant in that it applies to other classrooms as well, the information is needed in order to ascertain the effect on both teachers and students. The data for this section were recorded by the observer on the questionnaire "The English Classroom," which may be examined in Appendix B. Normally, questions one through four and 6 a-d were answered before the class began. Questions 5, 6e, and 7 were completed after class and in conference with the teacher. The responses to questions 1, 2, and 3 are scaled from 1 to 4, with 4 being the most favorable and 1 being the least favorable. This scale is intended as a ranking of the quality of certain aspects of the classroom.

Seating

Reference to Question 1 shows that the semicircle is considered to be the most favorable arrangement of desks, while a series of rows

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[1]I wish to express my appreciation to Dr. Murray Simon, Secondary Education Advisor of the Agency for International Development in Colombia, for having proofread this section.

is considered least favorable. Thus, a quantified average can be obtained by adding the assigned number of points for each arrangement and dividing the total by 30. The average for Question 1 was 1.0, indicating that in all classes observed, the furniture wss arranged in rows. An arrangement of this type poses several problems for both teacher and student. By seating the students in rows, the teacher loses eye-contact with pupils, thus forfeiting this advantage in attracting their attention. Students sitting in the front rows are also deprived of eye-contact with the rest of the class, a factor which would encourage student-to-student communication. Moreover, students sitting in the back of the room cannot help but notice any unusual activity in front of them as they try to pay attention to the teacher. It is unfortunate, therefore, that a semicircular arrangement is not used, particularly in those larger schools where the teacher does not change classrooms.

Furniture

In most schools accouterments are very crude. Only in the national schools can one expect to see seats which have been shaped to fit the form of the body. In departmental and municipal schools the desks appear to be locally made and not always by a carpenter. Occasionally these desks are very shaky, and unusable desks are commonly encountered at the rear of the class. Although most classrooms have desks with either full or half-sized writing surfaces, a rural school was observed which had chairs only. Only in the INEM's can really comfortable desks be found and the writer wondered if students sitting on such hard surfaces did not become restless and

uncomfortable by the end of the day. On the other hand, no overt signs of such discomfort were observed.

Lighting

Question 2 concerns the lighting installations encountered in each room. Although the most frequent response was 2 (Use of unshaded incandescent lighting), the mean was 2.43. This was due to the fact that response 4 (flourescent lighting) was second in frequency of occurrence. Within the sample taken, national schools showed the highest mean (2.66), while departmental schools scored 2.37 and municipal schools scored 1.5. None of these figures should be considered generalizeable however. For each type of school the least frequent response was 3, thus indicating that when incandescent lighting is used, it is unshaded. Eight of the classrooms observed had flourescent lighting and five had no installations at all. The writer's observations suggest that the absence of lighting installations in some Colombian schools has no constant effect on students. Nonetheless, one teacher mentioned that on especially dark days this arrangement contributes to boredom.

Classroom Appearance

According to Maria Montessori, the secret of success in education lies in the teacher's ability to stimulate the students through the use of attractive pictorial and literary material all correlated around a central idea.[1] In the foreign language classroom cultural materials

[1]Violet E. Berquist, "New Developments in the Foreign Language Classroom," in Effective Foreign Language Instruction in the Secondary School, ed. by George E. Smith and M. Phillip Leamon (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1969), p. 118.

are used to interest the student in the subject matter. If the room is filled with travel posters, maps, calendars, periodicals, newspaper clippings, and foreign artifacts, it will become a colorful, cheerful place where students are eager to learn. Under such conditions even daydreaming may be oriented toward the foreign culture.[1] Students entering such a classroom will get the feeling that surely a great amount of learning must take place here. By surrounding the student with an environment that is totally foreign both visually and aurally, the student is given the impression of being in a cultural island.

In spite of the advantages of a well planned classroom, the writer found only one class in 30 that could be ranked a 2. This room had two travel posters with scenes from the United States and Canada, and was in one of the new INEM schools. Teachers in several other schools were asked why they did not use such materials. In every case they replied that anything left in the classroom at the end of the day would be stolen. Contrarily, the teacher at the INEM said that his posters had not been tampered with all year. Similar posters can be obtained free from the United States Information Service (USIS) or the British Council offices in Bogota. Although the foreign language classroom cannot offer a truly stimulating environment until crime in the country is reduced, this study has ascertained that posters having a high esthetic but low monetary value can be used without being removed from the classroom.

Some of the classroom characteristics which have been cited

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[1]Robert L. Morgenroth, "Culture and Literature Through Language," ibid., pp. 58-59.

as having an effect on students are ventilation, temperature, and distracting noises.[1] For this reason questions 6a, 6b, and 6c were included in the questionnaire. In order to quantify the results, one point was given for satisfactory conditions, and nothing was given for unsatisfactory conditions. The total number of points was divided by thirty, thus giving an answer which is a percentage.

Ventilation

A classroom was considered to have proper ventilation if the windows were open or fans were used when necessary. Ninety-six per cent of the classes visited fit this description. The one class that did not was located in Cartagena and was so classified because there was no electric fan present. In the rest of the classes observed in the hot, coastal cities, a large fan was present in order to circulate the air. Although the writer was never comfortable under 100° conditions, the students he observed seemed to tolerate them quite well. Apparently, the presence of a fan makes a real difference since it was noted on the questionnaire that both students and teacher in the room without a fan were obviously annoyed and frustrated.

Temperature

In analyzing the attainment of a proper classroom temperature, the writer judged the reactions of students to extremes of hot or cold. Again all classes were judged favorably except the above mentioned one without a fan. This indicates that generally Colombians adapt to the

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[1]Paul Dickson, Foreign Language Education (Tallahassee: The Florida State University, 1967), p. 28.

climate of their region. Since Colombia is such a mountainous country, cities located at higher elevations can actually be quite cool in spite of their proximity to the equator. Bogota, Manizales, and Pasto, are all large cities falling into this category. The writer visited schools in Bogota, and Pasto around noon, after considerable warming had taken place. Although no noticeable discomfort was observed, each teacher in both cities stated that students attending early morning or late evening classes are bothered by the cold. At this time of the day the temperature is often around 45°. In spite of the cold, and frequent night classes in large cities, no Colombian schools are heated.

Noise

Although problems of ventilation and temperature are not widespread, the counterproductive effect of noise is noticed frequently. Since many of the departmental and municipal schools in Colombia are very old, they are quite often not well built. Students changing classes in a wooden hallway can create considerable noise. At one of the schools observed in Cartagena the noise from students changing class became so loud that it was impossible to hear the teacher.

Some Colombian classrooms do not have four walls. This is particularly common in coastal areas in order to allow any passing breeze to enter. Rooms with walls only four feet high are also frequently seen here. In the interior part of the country it is not known why some classrooms do not have four walls. In such cases the physical condition of the school is such that apparently no one bothers to ask the question. In three of the classes observed (10 per cent),

noise from other parts of the school became so intense that it impeded hearing the teacher or other students.

The location of departmental and municipal schools seems to cause noise problems. In large cities they are not only located in downtown areas, but are constructed on small lots as well. Since this type school was usually built in the old mission style, a cemented basketball court may lie in the center of a block shaped building, surrounded by classrooms. In five of the classrooms observed students playing volleyball or basketball presented a constant disturbance.

Another problem plaguing "inner city" Colombian schools is traffic. Two of the classrooms observed in Bogotá were located some ten feet from the curb of a four lane and a six lane highway. In both cases the students were regularly disturbed by cars and trucks with loud mufflers, and the ever-present sound of horns blowing. This became especially annoying during traffic jams. The only other source of noise encountered by the writer was a mill located next to the departmental high school in the city of Pasto. Although no class was observed at this school due to vacations, its four English teachers were interviewed and two complained especially of this interruption.

Size

The researcher recorded the size of each class observed in the space provided below Question 6d on the questionnaire. The 30 classes contained a total of 1158 students with a mean of 38.6 students per class. This figure is probably generalizeable since a histogram of the number of students in each class forms a nearly perfect bell-shaped curve with a mode of 38 students, and an interpolated

median of 38.5 students. The largest class observed had 55 students while the smallest had only 17. No differences were found in the sample according to type of degree offered by the school. Classes in national schools showed an average of 35.3 students, while class sizes in departmental and municipal schools were 40.4 and 44.5 respectively.

Availability of Equipment and Supplies

Generally, supplies in Colombia are scarce. None of the teachers visited had a file cabinet or other place where they could store instructional materials they had collected. Therefore, even if a teacher had some at their home, they were not readily available for classroom use. It is difficult to store materials in desks, since these are quite small and also easy to rob. The fact that teachers keep supplies at home made it impossible to regularly obtain copies of tests from the teachers visited.

Textbooks

One of the most frequently absent aids in Colombian English classes is the textbook. In three of the classes observed, no book was used at all. In one case the teacher had assigned a book, but no one was able to buy it so the teacher simply gave a lecture and students copied off the blackboard. Perhaps it is significant that this was a rural school. In the other two cases the teachers felt that the students could not afford a textbook, and consequently made their own materials.

In ten (1/3) of the schools visited, the teacher stated that

all students owned a book. Eight of these ten schools were for girls only. This warrants the observation that Colombian girls buy their books more often than boys. In the remaining 17 schools the number of students owning books varied from 30 per cent to 90 per cent. Teachers never appeared irritated with students who did not have a text, and several remarked that they felt students could not afford them, and that once bought they were often stolen. Students not having a book generally borrow one from a companion taking the course at a different hour, or share one with a classmate.

Hardware

Seventy-three per cent (22) of the classes included in the sample had some audio-visual equipment within the building. However, often this equipment was not used. In 9 of the 22 classes having access to hardware, the teacher admitted that he never made use of any equipment. It is probably safe to say that the number of teachers not using equipment is even greater. Only two teachers were actually observed using A-V equipment and both were in INEM's, where an A-V specialist is employed to maintain the equipment and train teachers in its use.

The accouterment most frequently encountered is the record player, which was reported by 19 teachers to be in the school. Its use varied, however, since only six teachers said their school owned accompanying records. Four teachers said the record player was broken and one said it was the permanent property of the dance teacher. The number of record players varies greatly in each school. Most frequently the school has only one. The largest number of record players (six) was found at a departmental school in Medellín.

As might be expected, the second most common piece of equipment is the tape recorder. Eleven of the teachers interviewed had access to one. Again the number available showed considerable variation between schools, although one per school was the mode. The INEM's in Cali and Bogotá both own ten recorders two of which are large, and eight of which are small. The small ones, which use three-inch reels, are carried into class from the foreign language office by each teacher.

Four teachers had access to a 16 millimeter film projector. Surprisingly, the INEM's were not among these, although two such projectors had been ordered. On the other hand, the four teachers having access to a carrousel slide projector were employed at INEM's where one is assigned to each school.

Three teachers reported their school owned a 35 millimeter filmstrip projector, which is also capable of showing slides. The only school having professionally recorded tapes to accompany the textual materials was the INEM in Bogotá. The INEM in Cali writes its own materials and records its own supplemental tapes as well.

The INEM in Bogotá was the only school observed with an overhead projector, and it has eight. It should be remembered that the amount of equipment present was reported by the teachers interviewed. In some cases it can be assumed that the school had additional hardware the teacher was not aware of.

One school was found to have a television receiver for student viewing of educational programs.

In the southwestern section of Colombia, the Colegio Departa-

mental Ciudad de Pasto has an opaque projector. The teachers use it to make their own posters by projecting a magazine picture on cardboard and tracing its image. In this fashion they have developed a considerable collection of situational pictures for classroom use. Although this was the only opaque projector encountered by the investigator, other schools should consider purchasing one to be used for the same purpose.

The INEM's in Colombia are the best equipped schools in terms of hardware. Each has a large equipment room staffed by a full-time media specialist. This person often has several assistants, one of whom serves as director of the language laboratory. Few American schools can claim such an advantageous situation. The media specialist prints and runs off text materials, transparencies, posters, etc. The Alexander book (First Things First) used in Bogotá, employs many small 2" by 2" pictures which are converted to slides by the specialist. The slides are then used by the teachers with a carrousel projector in conducting vocabulary drills. The machine projects the image of an object or action on the screen, and the students give the corresponding word in English.

Language Laboratories

Three of the schools included in the sample had language laboratories. One of these, in Barranquilla, was a small console with earphones for six students. The researcher was not able to inspect it, since it was not in working condition and had not been used in three years. It is kept locked in a storage room. The other two labs encountered were located in the INEM's in Cali and Bogotá. The lab in

Bogotá had been functioning for one semester when observed in July. The following comments were recorded by the investigator while visiting the latter facility:

> The lab is audio-active with 40 earphones coming down from the ceiling. It has been here for three months. The booths have not yet arrived, so they are using chairs instead. The lab has five channels but only four can be used at present due to lack of a third tape recorder. The console is in a different room which overlooks the students through two picture windows. It has a full-time director who is a member of the department of audio-visual aids. There are three classes with more than 40 students. Nonetheless, all classes fit into the lab due to absences. The largest class has 45 students. The students come to the lab once every three weeks for the entire period. No provisions have been made for showing films in the lab. There are supplemental commercial tape materials for the Alexander book and in addition, the teachers make their own tapes for student use. Most teachers make a tape for each unit.

The description applies to the lab in Cali too, with the exception that several of the school's first year classes have 50 students. All other INEM's will have a similar lab. The laboratory is an Instructomatic 141, manufactured in Detroit, Michigan.

Already 10 such labs have been purchased for INEM's throughout the country at a cost of 155,000 pesos (approximately U.S. $7,750) each. An eleventh facility has been installed in the Colegio Nacional Restrepo Millán in Bogotá. At present, these labs are using chairs instead of booths, since the ministry did not receive any bids to supply them. As a result, the national audio-visual programmers decided to have the headsets hang from the ceiling in order that they might be installed without further delay. In addition to being used by language classes, it is hoped that the lab will be used by typing and shorthand classes for practice at dictation.[1]

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[1]Jaime Zuleta, a national audio-visual expert, private interview, Bogotá, Ministry of Education, July 28, 1971.

As previously mentioned the INEM labs are using chairs until the booths arrive. Once constructed, they will be 51 inches high, with soundproof panels and a transparent acrylic front. They will also have a four inch skirt where books may be stored, immediately below the working deck. The deck itself will be 20" deep and 28" long with a bonded-on formica finish. The student will have 30" of leg space between the floor and the bottom of the booth.

As presently planned, the dividers will have only one inch of overhang beyond the edge of the table. This is an insufficient amount to give the student that feeling of isolation which can be one of the advantages of the laboratory. An overhang of nine inches has been recommended by Stack.[1] For a visual representation of a booth unit of two places, the reader may refer to the specification sheet on the next page.

Late in June, the writer visited the Colegio Cárdenas, a national school located in the city of Palmira some 30 kilometers west of Cali. Although no classes were observed because students were taking semester exams, the language laboratory was toured.

A 40 booth audio-active-record facility of apparent high quality had been installed in a classroom for five months. The console was located in the front of the room on a raised platform. All of the equipment was of Japanese manufacture. Numerous blank recording tapes were also present. The total value of the lab as estimated by the department head was some 400,000 pesos (U.S. $20,000).

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[1]Edward M. Stack, The Language Laboratory and Modern Language Teaching (New York: Oxford University Press, 1960), p. 56.

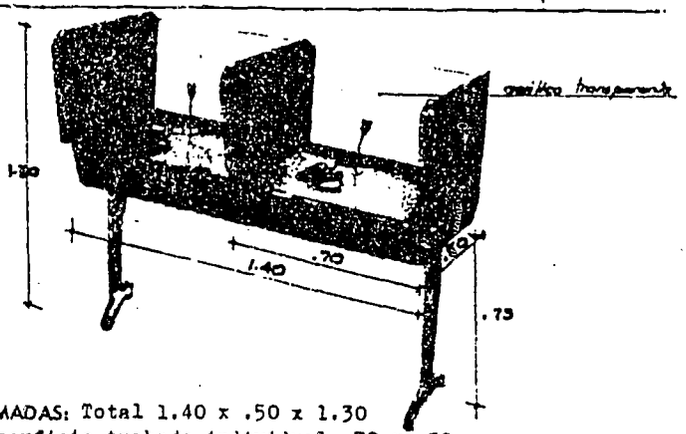
General Specifications of the Two Booth Unit
to Be Used at 10 INEM Schools

icce

MINISTERIO DE EDUCACION NACIONAL
INSTITUTO COLOMBIANO DE CONSTRUCCIONES ESCOLARES.

ESPECIFICACIONES

CUBICULOS - DOS PERSONAS	CODIGO: # 1200	ITEM: # 28



DIMENSIONES APROXIMADAS: Total 1.40 x .50 x 1.30
Superficie trabajo individual .70 x .50
MATERIALES: Altura piso .75 (fija)

Superficie de trabajo : Plástico laminado
Portalibros :Plástico, metal, o similar
Divisiones laterales : Madera o metal, tratado con recubrimiento acústico
División Frontal : Lámina plana - Acrílica transparente
Estructura : Metálica.

ACABADOS:

Plásticos laminados : pintura mate uniforme integrada, colores ópticos
Madera : Acabado natural
Estructura Metálica : cromada
Lámina metálica : esmalte horneado.

CARACTERISTICAS GENERALES:

- Unidad de dos cubículos con separación individual Gaveta portalibros bajo la superficie de trabajo (altura .10)
- Superficie de trabajo plana, con leve inclinación para escritura, y borde retenedor
- Posibilidad para colocación de equipo audiovisual individual.
- Lámina transparente de bordes biselados fácilmente cambiables.
- Copas protectoras, fijas o ajustables, en material elástico y resistente, al final de los apoyos.

REFERENCIA: ~~American Seating~~ # 225 0 similar	COSTO:

PAGINA: M-40

Upon inquiring as to how often the lab was used, the writer was told that it had not been used at all since no one knew how to operate it. Apparently, fear of somehow damaging this luxury item had kept all ten English teachers from experimenting with it.

This is similar to the response of many teachers in the United States during the late fifties and early sixties, who, upon returning to school in September, learned that they now had a laboratory. In Jefferson County, Colorado, a 64 channel dial-access facility remained dormant for four years following its installation under a federal grant. In 1963, the Keating report found that language laboratories were effecting no significant improvement in student achievement as they were currently being used. As a result, Keating concluded that a laboratory might not be a worthwhile expenditure in view of the fact that it was presumably draining money away from other areas of the curriculum.[1] Today, many new schools are being built without a lab.

Although Lorge has shown the laboratory to be effective when used properly, it may await the same fate in Colombia that it suffered in the United States.[2] Without an effectively trained operator, a laboratory is of little value. If its cost is to be justified, a training course should be proposed and sponsored by the Ministry of

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[1]Raymond F. Keating, A Study of the Effectiveness of Language Laboratories (New York: The Institute of Administrative Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963).

[2]Sarah W. Lorge, "Language Laboratory Research in New York City High Schools: A Discussion of the Program and Findings," The Modern Language Journal, Vol. 48 (November, 1964), pp. 409-419.

Education. Presently, the INEM media specialists are the only school personnel with any such training. This is not enough, however, since knowledge of how to operate a lab is only the first step. The teachers must know how to incorporate laboratory experiences into the curriculum as well. Fortunately, Colombia can count on expertise in such matters. The director of the language laboratory at the Universidad del Valle holds a doctorate in language pedagogy from a French university. His dissertation deals with the use of the language laboratory as an instrument of teacher self-improvement in language skills. It appears that he would be an excellent choice to conduct such a course.

During the investigation, 12 labs, which are already or will soon be in operable condition, were identified. No one in the Ministry of Education knew of any other labs in public secondary schools. Therefore, this figure can be considered a minimum, if not accurate, estimation of the number of laboratories in public secondary schools in 1971.

A review of the availability and use of audio-visual aids in Colombia indicates that much is lacking. Most schools either have nothing, or only a record player. When equipment is available, it is often not used. This is a considerable waste of money for a country whose educational needs are such that one-third of all school age pupils do not start school. The motivating effect of these aids demands that they continue to be purchased. However, before these materials can do any good, teachers must be trained and encouraged to use them.

CHAPTER III

CONTRIBUTORS TO ENGLISH TEACHING IN COLOMBIA

Community Resources

"English has become the second language of Colombia." Surprisingly, this statement has more often been repeated by Colombians than by Americans living in that country. Many Colombians are fearful that English may someday replace Spanish as the national language and they point to Anglo-Saxon neologisms as an example. At the 1969 Congress of the Colombian Association of Teachers of English (ASOCOPI), a guest speaker from the Industrial University of Santander stated that the teaching of English in Colombia worried him considerably, and charged that the Colombian technician knew more about the English language than his own.[1] He further stated that if American technical terms are entering Colombia, so are American techniques, and consequently American culture. Most Colombians unaffectionately refer to this pattern as "cultural imperialism."

In order to combat this phenomenon, Colombia's Minister of Education recently proposed a law to the House of Representatives giving him the power to take action "to provide for the sovereignty of the

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[1]Hernán Lozano, Bulletin, The Fifth Annual ASOCOPI Congress, (Bucaramanga: The Industrial University of Santander, 1969), p. 44.

country in educational material and the preservation of the cultural identity of the nation."[2] Although such worries may seem absurd in a country as pluralistic as the United States, they are well founded if one accepts nationalism as a progressive force.

The average Colombian is given a daily exposure to English speaking, and especially American, culture. The free world's two great news agencies, Associated Press and United Press International, are headquartered in New York and bring daily news reports and pictures from the United States to Colombia. Consequently, the educated Colombian is nearly as up-to-date on current events of the United States as those of his own country.

Rock music, immortalized by Elvis Presley and the Beatles, is now sung and danced to in all parts of the world. Colombian radio stations play these songs in both Spanish and English. The young Colombian going to a party will most certainly listen and dance to English songs. In addition, Colombians receive the Voice of America, and there is a commercial English language radio station in Bogota.

Although most Americans believe bullfighting to be the most popular spectator attraction in the Spanish speaking world, in reality it is one of the less popular. In Colombia, movies, cockfights, football, basketball, circus, and even ballet are many times greater in number of yearly events. According to the latest statistics available, in 1967 there were 382,013 movies shown in Colombia which

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[1]Editorial Voluntad, "Informaciones nacionales," Boletín Bibliográfico Pedagógico, No. 98 (February-March, 1971), p. 14.

were attended by 85,491,071 spectators.[1] In August, 1969, the U.S. Cultural Affairs Officer did an inventory of films advertised on a single day in one of Bogotá's leading newspapers. The results showed that 43 American and British films were being shown compared with 27 from all other countries.[2] None of these films are dubbed with Spanish voices. Although some Colombians complain of this, the linguistic resource to students of English represented by movies is noteworthy.

The value of such movies as a cultural resource is equally impressive. Mr. Paul Gotch of the British Council has expressed this value aptly:

> The actors are the moral embodiment of the characteristics of their own people. The tones of voice, the physical grimaces of these actors reflect the thought and spirit of the nations to which they belong. No travel book can bring countries so alive as the film. The foreign observer is fascinated with the unfamiliar, is moved to want to go to the country, to see it for himself.

Although an increasing number of textbooks are being immediately translated to Spanish, the Colombian university student will still have to read a large number of texts in English. University libraries testify to the preponderance of English materials. In June, 1971, the writer visited the library of the University of Valle and found that some 60 per cent of the professional journals on display in the reading room were written in English. Since the secondary school-aged aspirant

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[1] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística, Anuario general de estadística 1966-1967, Vol. 2 (Bogotá: Litografía Colombia, 1968, p. 283.

[2] Andy G. Wilkinson, letter from the U.S. Cultural Affairs Officer in Colombia to Mr. John I.B. McCulloch of the English Speaking Union of the United States, Bogota, August 14, 1969.

to the university is aware of this, the situation can only be considered reinforcing for English teaching.

With 75,000 U.S. citizens leaving the United States yearly in search of a better place to live, the number of Americans living in Colombia continues to grow. As a result a bi-weekly English language newspaper was founded in 1969. It is called The Andean Times and has a circulation of 4,000. Copies may be obtained at most of the binational centers throughout the country or by writing the editor, Mr. William A. Pinney, Carrera 9 No. 15-28 - Office 402, Bogota, Colombia. According to an article in the July 1, 1971 issue, there are now 18,000 Americans living in Colombia. Approximately 11,000 live in Bogota, 6,000 in Cali, and the other 1,000 are spread around the rest of the country. This does not include Peace Corps Volunteers, tourists, or English speaking people of other nationalities all of whom contribute to the linguistic resources of the country.

The United States Information Service contributes to the support of two binational schools in Colombia; the Colegio Nueva Granada in Bogotá and the Colegio Anglo-Americano in Cali. Two other binational schools are receiving support from the British Council. Many of the students attending these schools are Colombians, who have the opportunity of becoming bilingual without leaving home. There are also many bilingual English-Spanish kindergartens and elementary schools and most of the private elementary schools have FLES programs in English.

U.S. firms in Colombia and Colombian firms involved in international business employ thousands of bilingual secretaries. In addition,

the pay for a bilingual secretary is almost twice that of a monolingual one. Consequently, there is a keen interest among all secretaries in acquiring the skills of letter writing, shorthand, dictation, and typing in English. As a result the larger binational centers offer courses leading to a diploma in this field. In June, 1971, the Centro Colombo-Americano had some 600 students enrolled in this program.

In addition to the binational centers there are many private schools in Colombia specializing in language teaching. The largest of these are the Meyer Language Centers which are located in eight different cities with a total enrollment of nearly 9,000 students. It has been estimated that, including the binational centers, there are about 40,000 Colombians studying English in non-public language centers.[1] Thus there can be no doubt that there are many reinforcers to the study of English in Colombia.

The Colombian-American Linguistic Institute

The objectives of the Colombian-American Linguistic Institute (ILCA) at the time of its foundation were twofold.

a) To provide advanced training to Colombian English teachers in the most modern methods of teaching that language and to familiarize them with the linguistic concepts that form the basis of those methods.

b) To produce a six level set of English teaching materials for

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[1] Quintanilla, "Who Studies English in Colombia?", p. 4.

use specifically in Colombian secondary schools, taking into account the current conditions of these schools and incorporating the most recent advancements in linguistic science.[1]

Founding

The history of ILCA dawns in 1958 with the organization of a series of annual seminars for Ecuadorean teachers by the binational commission there. These seminars were held at various schools and universities throughout the country.[2] In January, 1961, while serving in Quito under the auspices of the binational commission, Dr. John W. Martin of the University of California at Los Angeles was offered U.S. $155,000 in Colombian pesos by the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs of the United States Department of State to set up a series of workshops for secondary school English teachers in the major cities of Colombia. The University of California agreed to administer the grant in May, and the first course was initiated on February 5, 1962 with an enrollment of 36 teachers. The participants in this course were selected on the basis of their English proficiency and superior's recommendation from the departments of Santander, Boyacá, Meta, Tolima, Huila, and Cundinamarca but excluding the special district of Bogotá. Those participants who were teachers in the national

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[1] John W. Martin, "Instituto Lingüístico Colombo-Americano," English, Vol. 2, No. 1 (April, 1962), p. 33.

[2] J. Manuel Espinosa, "30 Years of English Teaching in Latin America: Efforts to Break the Language Barrier," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, Vol. 5, No. 1 (Summer, 1969), p. 25.

public colegios were provided with a grant equivalent to their regular salary as well as reimbursement for travel expenses to Bogota by the Ministry of Education. The course was offered twice a year for a period of 19 weeks. Students who distinguished themselves were offered Fulbright scholarships for advanced training in TEEL at the University of California at Los Angeles.[1] During the years 1963-1968 a total of 24 students received these awards which included transportation, books, tuition, and a monthly living allowance for one year.

Resolution 0045, dated January 10, 1962, of the Ministry of Education, designated ICETEX as disburser of Ministry funds allocated to ILCA. Two years later ILCA was made a special department of ICETEX, the Instituto Colombiano de Crédito Educativo y Estudios Técnicos en el Exterior. An advisory board, composed of the Director General of the Ministry of Education, the Director of the Technical Branch of the Ministry, and the Director of ICETEX, was appointed to assist ILCA in liaison with other educational organizations.[2]

ILCA received assistance in October of 1963, with the proclamation of Ministry Resolution No. 3452 which counted completion of the first of its four courses as sufficient professional advancement for placement in the fourth category of the "escalafón," or certification scale.[3] Subsequent courses counted as one year's experience as did

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[1] Martin, "Instituto Linguístico Colombo-Americano," p. 34.

[2] John W. Martin, "History of the Instituto Linguístico Colombo-Americano," Interpret, No. 1 (1966), p. 5.

[3] Ibid., p. 5.

any course taken by a teacher already ranked on the escalafon. With implementation of this policy, ILCA courses were now considered as "university equivalent."

The ILCA Guides

Early in 1962, the Ministry of Education commissioned ILCA to write a six level set of materials which would consist of a student workbook and a teacher's guide. By presidential decree these would be published by the National Press on a non-profit basis. The teacher's guides are very extensive and represent a major portion of the work for each level. The first of these guides, completed and published in 1964, was followed soon by the second in 1965. The third guide was published after a two year delay in 1967, thereby causing a problem for those teaching third year courses to classes previously working with ILCA materials. The fourth guide was completed in October, 1969, an event which created even greater confusion in those schools where the series was being used.

The writing team for the first three guides included three linguists employed by U.C.L.A., the Colombian staff of the Institute, and the two Fulbright lecturers that were assigned to the Institute each year from 1963 to 1966.[1]

After two and one-half years of operation in Bogotá and the retraining of only about 100 teachers, ILCA officials began to realize that although progress had been made toward changing the status-quo,

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[1]Colombia, Ministry of Education, Instituto Lingüístico Colombo-Americano, Report of Activities of the Instituto Lingüístico Colombo-Americano, December 1961-July 1967 (Bogotá, n.d.), pp. 3-4.

the number of teachers who could benefit from ILCA office in Bogota was very limited.[1] Needed were branches of ILCA in every major city of Colombia. The cost of such an organization, however, was not within the means of the Colombian Ministry of Education. A solution to the problem was realized by the signing of an agreement with the director of the Peace Corps in May of 1964. Consequently, in October of the same year, what had previously been a local operation became national in scope.

During that month 23 Peace Corps volunteers, all of whom had received training in linguistics at Georgetown University followed by an intensive course in ILCA techniques given in Bogotá, opened ILCA branches in Bucaramanga, Barranquilla, Cartagena, Medellín, Pereira, Ibagué, and Manizales.[2] In 1965 additional centers were opened in Cali, Tunja and Pasto, bringing the total number of volunteer staff to 35.

During the first session that was offered, over 350 teachers in all parts of the country signed up for the courses, which met in the evening for three hours, five days per week. A major factor in such a large enrollment must have been the willingness of the Ministry to count these courses toward avancement on the escalafon.[3] In August

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[1]Hugo Acosta Cadena, "Trabajos del Instituto Lingüístico Colombo-Americano," El simposio de México: actas, informes, y comunicaciones (México: Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, 1969), p. 339.

[2]Charles B. Neff, "A New Approach to Teacher Training in Colombia," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, Vol. 3, No. 1 (Summer, 1967), p. 31.

[3]Ibid., p. 31.

of 1966, through the assistance of the University of Valle, a center was opened in Tuluá, while the centers in Cúcuta and Popayán were preparing for their opening one month later. By 1967, over 1000 in-service and pre-service teachers had taken the first-year course and an additional 500 had completed the second year course, through Peace Corps assistance.[1]

Impressed by the quantity and quality of the combined efforts represented by the ILCA program, the Ministry of Education began a similar program in the fields of mathematics, biology, and physics, employing a total of 42 volunteers with undergraduate and graduate majors in those fields. Among the accomplishments of this follow-up group was the implementation of SMSG, BSCS, and PSSC, materials in translation in Colombia, and the development and publication of a 200 page curriculum guide for the SMSG series.[2]

Financial Support

The irregularity of the financial support received by ILCA since its conception has been a constant source of worry and insecurity. John W. Martin (1966) reports that in 1964 the Department of State reduced the amount of its original grant to the University of California and refused financial support beyond the originally programmed date. Auxiliary support was then provided by the Agency for International Development and the Fulbright Commission, which gave ILCA a third

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[1]Colombia, Report of Activities of the Instituto Lingüístico Colombo-Americano, December 1961-July 1967, p. 2.

[2]Neff, "A New Approach to Teacher Training in Colombia," pp. 32-34.

lectureship for one year. At the same time the Ministry increased its annual allocation to 470,000 pesos. In 1966, the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs renewed its support by offering to pay four staff salaries through June, 1967. Some support from the Ministry of Education was assured until completion of the final guide. By 1967, the number of Colombian instructors paid by the Ministry had grown to three, including a full time Colombian director.[1]

In February, 1968, the Fulbright Binational Commission brought Doctor Albert Marckwardt to Colombia to assist in a study of the cost and accomplishments of ILCA. Although the investigators encountered numerous complaints about the ILCA materials they summarized their report with the following conclusions.

> An examination of the three volumes which have been published thus far reveals a highly integrated organization, careful sequencing, and full directions to the teacher.
>
> We can only say that many of the adverse criticisms have come from persons who have not been professionally involved in teaching English as a foreign language, whereas three highly favorable comments came from those who are in the profession but have no vested interest in the project.
>
> Considering the time, energy, and money which have gone into the development of the ILCA materials thus far, one can only conclude that to withdraw specialist support at this point would constitute waste rather than prudence or economy. Two full-year specialist grants might well be considered a terminal gesture, and at the same time the Peace Corps should be encouraged to continue and even increase the number of volunteers assigned to the project.[2]

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[1] Colombia, Report of Activities of the Instituto Linguístico Colombo-Americano, December 1961-July 1967, p. 2.

[2] Albert Marckwardt and Carlos Patiño Roselli, Report of English Teaching and Linguistics, Report by the Long Range Planning Team for the Fulbright Binational Commission in Colombia, February 24, 1968 (Washington, D.C.: The Center for Applied Linguistics, 1968), pp. 6-7.

In spite of such favorable comments the Fulbright Commission opted to not continue support of ILCA and consequently the fourth guide and workbook were written in their entirety by only two members of the ILCA staff with no significant technical assistance. Credit should be given to Dr. John W. Martin who during 1968 continued to work with ILCA at a salary of U.S. $100 per month paid out of the ILCA budget, after all attempts to secure outside support had failed. In June, 1967, the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs once again ceased to provide support for four American technical assistants. Fortunately, however, the Agency for International Development agreed to fund three of them through 1968. Since that date, no ancillary financial support has been received from any agency except the Ministry of Education.

Administrative Problems

Previously it was mentioned that in 1965 there were 35 Peace Corps volunteers working with ILCA. In 1967, however, the number began to decrease due to a policy decision by the Peace Corps Director to place more emphasis on the teaching of the sciences and the retraining of mathematics and science teachers. As a result, when a volunteer terminated his tour of duty, he was not replaced. By mid-year, 1968, only five ILCA branches remained open in the cities of Bucaramanga, Cartagena, Medellín, Ibagué and Cali, through the efforts of eight volunteers. Peace Corps assistance to ILCA was dealt a death blow with the appointment of Arismendi Posada as Minister of Education. Dr. Arismendi felt that Colombian education should not be subject to any foreign influences. Consequently, all Peace Corps programs in this

area were terminated or phased out after Fall, 1968. Also, some 60 newly arrived volunteers prepared to teach in the natural science program were returned to Washington, to be reassigned, two days after their arrival in Colombia. In addition, Arismendi established the policy that any future Peace Corps involvement would only be at the specific request of his office. Since that time, requests from various educational institutions have been sent to the Ministry, but the only six approved have been at the university level and in the fields of physical education, English literature, and the natural sciences. It should be noted that this policy is entirely satisfactory to Peace Corps administrators in Bogotá whose primary interest is in the more direct kind of assistance afforded by agriculture, rather than educational assistance, which often lends itself to the accusation of political involvement, an area in which the Peace Corps is anxious to prove it has no interest.[1]

It is interesting to ponder how the present Ministry policy relates to ILCA. Although ILCA is not a university, its courses are considered equivalent to university level since they are valid for an increase in rank on the escalafón. Perhaps a concerted attempt should be made to secure at least one Peace Corps volunteer with the stipulation that he possess a Master's degree in TEFL. If such an attempt were successful, additional volunteers could be requested, now that the precedent had been set.

In December, 1968, the Instituto Colombiano de Pedagogía (ICOLPE)

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[1]Alberto Ibarguen, Assistant Director of the Peace Corps in Colombia, private tape recorded interview, Bogotá, July 8, 1971.

was created as an organ of the Ministry of Education and charged with conducting educational research, assisting in the teaching process, and writing new didactic materials.[1] ILCA, as well as the Peace Corps Science Project, were made part of this organization.[2] According to the ILCA Director, Hugo Acosta Cadena, two years of confusion resulted from this change with no one really certain where ILCA's funding should come from. However, since the Ministry had previously stated that Col $700,000 pesos should be allotted for the two organizations, the sum was split and ILCA received an operating budget of $350,000 pesos during both 1969 and 1970. Although this was far from sufficient to cover expenses, an additional $200,000 pesos were received from the sale of ILCA textbooks. During the present year (1971), ILCA's Budget has been reduced to $300,000 pesos. The austere situation was worsened by the delay in printing of additional textbooks. It is estimated therefore that only an additional $100,000 pesos in revenues will be realized from this source.

The Closing of the Last Branch Office

As a result of these problems, ILCA was forced to close its only remaining branch, Cali, in July, 1971. This event was unfortunate since the Cali branch trained more teachers for the past two years than its mother office in Bogotá, due perhaps to the tremendous interest

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[1]Colombia, President, Decree, "Del Instituto Colombiano de Pedagogía," No. 3153 of 1968, Art. 13, Legislación escolar colombiana, by Luís Alejandro Guerra (Bogotá: Librería Voluntad, 1970), p. 172.

[2]Colombia, President, Decree, "Instituciones que se incorporan a ICOLPE," No. 3153 of 1968, Art. 23, Legislación escolar colombiana, by Luís Alejandro Guerra (Bogotá: Librería Voluntad, 1970), p. 176.

shown in the Valle in English teaching.

The costs in Cali have indeed represented a bargain for the Ministry. Two highly dedicated Peace Corps volunteers, both of whom re-enlisted for a third year of service, conducted classes there in the Centro Colombo-Americano. The only expense encountered in Cali was the need for one Colombian staff member, at a salary of $4500 pesos per month. Gary McElhiney, a Peace Corps Volunteer and Director of the Cali program before it closed, believes that revenues from the sale of materials alone would make the Cali branch self-sustaining, if the Peace Corps would provide two more volunteers and ICOLPE would authorize continuance of the Colombian staff member. Such was not the case, however, since ICOLPE notified the staff member in May of her termination effective July 1, 1971, and the two volunteers returned to the United States in September, with no arrangements made to replace them.

Contributions to TEEL in Colombia

ILCA's contributions are myriad. Since February, 1962, a total of 1,824 English teachers have taken the course on the use of the first year guide. One thousand one hundred sixteen have taken the course on the use of the second year guide, 611 the course on the use of the fourth year guide.[1]

During 1966 ILCA began a program of collaboration with the national universities. Consequently, with Peace Corps help, ILCA courses

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[1]Hugo Acosta Cadena, Memo to ICOLPE on ILCA activities, March 13, 1970.

were offered for credit toward the licenciatura at the Universities of Antioquia and Nariño. In 1968, the program was extended to the University of Quindío and the Pedagogical and Technological University of Tunja. It should be noted that although the Peace Corps volunteers have now returned home, the courses in Tunja and Pasto continue to be offered by professors of those institutions trained by ILCA.

At the request of the Faculty of Humanities and Languages of the National University in Bogotá, ILCA professors taught a seminar on their materials to graduating seniors at the institution in 1968.[1]

In July of 1968, ILCA also began teaching short, vacation courses in various parts of the country using their own Bogotá trained students as professors. A total of 252 teachers took these courses which were taught by 20 different Colombian professors.

At the request of several Colombian universities, the ILCA staff is composing two manuals to be used in linguistics courses. The texts will treat the fields of articulatory phonetics and contrastive phonology and will be based on the experiences of the ILCA staff in teaching these two subjects in the first year course. Emphasis will be placed on the writing of exercises designed to make the teacher aware of probable errors made by Spanish-speaking students of English.

In December, 1971, in cooperation with the United States Information Service and the British Council, ILCA hosted the annual seminar for English teachers of these two organizations. The Ministry of Education provided transportation and living expenses for 75 teachers

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[1] Ibid.

throughout the country. Each teacher was chosen on the basis of possession of a licenciatura in languages and proficiency in the oral skills. The theme of the seminar was "The Evaluation of Textbooks." Teaching faculty included one specialist from the United States, one specialist from England, two instructors from the Centro Colombo-Americano in Bogota, and three members of the regular ILCA staff.

At the request of ICOLPE, the director and assistant director of ILCA made an evaluation in April, 1970, of the English teaching materials prepared at the Instituto Piloto Nicolás Guerra for use in the Radiophonic Schools of Colombia.[1]

Presently, the ILCA staff is working on revision of the first year guide and workbook in an attempt to update them with contemporary methodological trends. They have also produced two long play records which supplement the first year guide. These records give a native model of all dialogs and cue sentences introduced, and are designed to be used by the teacher in preparing for each lesson. The two records sell for 60 pesos.

ILCA has also produced a series of 59 full color posters to be used with its series of teachers manuals. The entire set sells for 180 pesos. Finally, the student may purchase a set of pictures accompanying the dialogs in the first three texts. These pictures are reasonably priced, with the first year set selling for 1/2 peso, and the next two sets selling for one peso each.[2]

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[1]Hugo Acosta Cadena, Letter to Dra. Margarita Castro of ICOLPE, April 15, 1970.

[2]I wish to express my thanks to Hugo Acosta Cadena, Director of ILCA, for having proofread this section.

The Binational Centers

The world's first binational center was opened in Buenos Aires in 1927, by a group of Argentines who had lived and worked in the United States, in an effort to maintain contact with Americans and American culture. In order to support their center they decided to teach English to Argentines and Spanish to Americans living in that city.[1] Although other such centers opened in various parts of the world afterwards through the insight of Nelson Rockefeller, Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, all were totally self-sustaining until World War II. At that time, the U.S. government, realizing their potential as a propaganda medium and strengthener of friendships, began providing them support.

The first binational center (BNC) in Colombia was founded in September 19, 1942, by American and Colombian residents of Bogotá. Apparently the opening was a major event as it was attended by such dignitaries as the Colombian president, Nelson Rockefeller, and the U.S. ambassador.[2]

At present there are twelve BNC's in Colombia with a total

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[1]U.S., Congress, House of Representatives, Subcommittee on Interamerican Affairs, "Central America: Some Observations on its Common Market, Binational Centers, and Housing Programs, Appendix II, Binational Center, History," Report to the Committee on Foreign Affairs by the Honorable Roy H. McVicker, Colorado, pursuant to H. Res. 84, 89th Cong., 2nd Sess., August 4, 1966, Congressional Record, p. 31.

[2]William Zapata, "A Long Way from 1942 for the Colombo," The Andean Times, July 1, 1971, p. 6.

estimated enrollment of approximately 15,000 students. The centers in Bogotá and Cali are the largest with 4,000 and 4,500 students respectively. Other centers are located in Medellín, Popoyán, Manizales, Barranquilla, Santa Marta, Sagamosa, Bucaramanga, Barrancabermeja, Pereira, and Cartagena. The BNC in Cali claims the distinction of being the world's largest, and has grown tremendously in the past five years.

Although the contributions of the BNC's to English teaching are many, perhaps the most important is the annual two week seminar for public school English teachers, which the Bogotá center organizes in cooperation with the British Council. The USIS underwrites the expense of bringing to Bogota an American lecturer and the British Council does the same bringing a lecturer from England. The BNC in Bogota provides the use of three of its staff members who are already on the payroll. At present, attempts are being made to get the Ministry of Education to provide transportation and per diem so that teachers outside of Bogotá may attend. The teachers attending are charged a fee of 50 pesos which covers paperwork and miscellaneous expenses, and consequently the two organizations are able to continue the seminars on a break-even basis.

The BNC in Cali is the site of the monthly meetings of the Asociación Colombiana de Profesores de Inglés for the Department of Valle. The president of that chapter, Víctor Quintanilla, is also Director of Courses at the BNC there.

The BNC's in Bogotá and Cali maintain a list of interested teachers to whom they send English Teaching Forum, a magazine for the

teacher of English outside the United States published by the USIS in Washington. Currently there are some 1,300 teachers in Colombia receiving this periodical free of charge six times per year.[1] Each issue usually contains four lengthy articles on practical and theoretical aspects of foreign language teaching as well as several comments and reports on the subject originating from different parts of the world. Although these contributions are seldom documented, it should be noted that they provide a copious source of information to the researcher interested in the international dimensions of English language teaching.

The BNC's throughout Colombia offer partial scholarships to English teachers wishing to improve their oral skills. These scholarships, presented in the form of discounts in the matriculation fee for courses, vary between 35 per cent and 50 per cent at the various centers in the country.[2]

Although at first glance the emphasis of BNC personnel seems to be on English teaching, a closer look at their program reveals an almost equal emphasis on cultural activities, the majority of which are designed to portray aspects of contemporary America. For example, during 1969, activities at the Bogotá center included a Moon Rock exhibit, a visit by the Apollo 11 astronauts, 17 art exhibits, 40

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[1]Robert Haywood, Academic Director, Centro Colombo-Americano, private tape recorded interview, Bogotá, Colombia, July 1, 1971.

[2]Joseph Young, BNC Coordinator, private tape recorded interview, United States Embassy, Bogotá, Colombia, June 22, 1971.

choral presentations, 75 movie sessions, and community action projects. Non-students may participate in these activities by paying a yearly fee of 200 pesos. Consequently, Bogotá's leading newspaper, El Tiempo, has labeled it one of the centers of cultural activities of the city.[1] Thus, it can be assumed that public school English teachers attending the centers are offered this additional exposure to American culture.

The BNC's are all equipped with libraries of varying sizes for the use by the public and students. A library card fee of fifty pesos (U.S. $2.55) is charged the non-student holder and is valid for one year. The library at the BNC in Bogotá is the largest, containing some 9,500 volumes, about 60 per cent of which are in English, as well as subscriptions to some 50 magazines and a record center offering 1,000 volumes. A subscription to the New York Times is also maintained. The library in Bogotá has a capacity of 150 persons and an average of 400 visit it daily.[2] Again it can be assumed that a portion of these are public school English teachers taking courses at the center.

The BNC in Cali has been very active in placing teachers in positions throughout the department and maintains a list of former students they have trained for recommendation to both private and public schools in the district, providing a teacher, materials, and facilities, in return for reimbursement from the schools.[3]

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[1]Gloria Valencia, El Tiempo, February 8, 1970. Mentioned in the quarterly report of the Centro Colombo-Americano, Bogotá, 1970.

[2]Zapata, "A Long Way from 1942 for the Colombo," p. 6.

[3]Víctor Quintanilla, Academic Director, Centro Colombo-Americano, private tape recorded interview, Cali, Colombia, June 15, 1971.

In 1965, the BNC in Bogotá published a series written by Ruth Metcalf de Romero, who was director of courses at that time. Although the series was originally written for use at the BNC, it was adopted by many secondary schools and at present some 34 are using it, several of which are public schools. The two titles which compose the series are English Everywhere and English is Spoken.

The BNC in Bucaramanga has organized free week-long seminars for English teachers during the past four years (1967-1970). The 1970 seminar received partial support from the American Book Company and from the BNC in Bogotá, which sent two lecturers. Some 30 participants were recruited from a list of local English teachers provided by the departmental secretariat. This BNC, like nearly all others with an A or B ranking, sends out occasional graded readers, and English Teaching Forum to secondary teachers with whom it has contact. These materials are received from USIS headquarters in Bogotá.

The USIS office in Barranquilla is located in the BNC. Although this BNC itself does not appear to contribute to English teaching regularly, the local USIS office does. The office mails out books to libraries of local schools at the rate of about 50 per month. They also maintain a film library of several hundred reels and additional films can be requested from Bogotá. For example: 25 fifteen minute films which accompany the Let's Learn English series are kept permanently on file here. These are lent to local schools when requested. If the school does not have the necessary audio-visual equipment, a 16 millimeter projector and screen can also be loaned, as well as a projectionist if necessary. The USIS office in Bogotá also provides

this service at the embassy.

A catalog of films is available, free, to teachers who wish to make use of the service. It is called Catálogo de Películas Educacionales, Informativas, Culturales, y Científicas, and may be secured by writing the embassy in Bogotá. The BNC's in Bucaramanga, Cali, Cartagena, Manizales, Medellín, and Popayán, also serve as liaisons in coordinating this service.[1]

In Cartagena the BNC has established an innovative policy with the local secretariat of education. If a student fails English during the year, he may take a special 45 hour English course offered by the BNC during the year-end vacation. If he passes it, he is allowed to enroll in the following level the next year.

In December of 1970, the Cartagena BNC organized a free three-day seminar in English language and methodology for any teacher who wished to attend. The seminar was attended by about 30 teachers, some of whom, it can be assumed, were employed in public schools.[2]

A review of the contributions and activities of the BNC's in Colombia shows that they do make a contribution to English teaching and the English speaking cultural atmosphere of the nation. Nonetheless, their efforts could improve with very little additional cost to the centers via the following measures:

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[1]Alfonso Fajardo Penalosa, USIS media specialist, Centro Colombo-Americano, private interview, Barranquilla, Colombia, August 11, 1971.

[2]Ann Mock, Director of Courses, Centro Colombo-Americano, private interview, Cartagena, Colombia, August 13, 1971.

1. Wherever financially possible, English teachers, particularly public school English teachers who are usually teaching students of the lowest socio-economic stratum, should be given a 50 per cent discount for matriculation fees for courses.
2. The library fee for non-students who are members of the above-mentioned group, should be reduced by 50 per cent. This would permit the teacher to keep up to date on the transformations taking place in contemporary American culture.
3. The cultural activities fee should be reduced by 50 per cent since presently it is not within the means of this group.
4. In view of the fact that Americans are constantly claiming an interest in helping the lower class, interested students attending public secondary schools should be given similar reductions in the library and cultural activities fee.
5. Each BNC director should maintain a list of Colombians who have traveled in the U.S., and native Americans residing in Colombia, who would be willing to talk to English classes in the public secondary schools about life in the United States. In addition, staff members should be encouraged to accept such offers. It should be noted that because of housing patterns these students have little opportunity for contact with Americans residing in Colombia.
6. Each BNC director should write a description of services available to public school English teachers and send it to the language teaching inspector for that department. In this way inspectors could encourage teachers to take advantage of these services.

ASOCOPI

ASOCOPI is an acronym for Asociación Colombiana de Profesores de Inglés. This is the largest and most active of the English teaching associations in Colombia. It is composed of about 300 members, approximately 75 per cent of whom are high school teachers.

ASOCOPI was founded on May 21, 1966, at the University of Los Andes in Bogotá, at a meeting attended by some 70 university English teachers from all parts of Colombia. Nevertheless, the idea of ASOCOPI originated in 1965, at a seminar for 38 university English professors in Bucaramanga. This seminar was organized by Mrs. Clare de Silva, chairman of the Department of Arts and Letters at the Industrial University of Santander, who secured the support of the American Embassy and the Fulbright Commission for delegate expenses.[1] The three day meeting generated considerable enthusiasm and as a result the participants voted to form the Asociación Universitaria de Profesores de Inglés and appointed a committee to draft its constitution and present it at a similar reunion the following year.[2]

At the second seminar, or congress, as they were called after 1968, the constitution was ratified and Gustavo Troncoso of the University of Antioquia was elected provisional president by delegates

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[1] W. Leland Northam, "ASOCOPI," English Teaching Forum, Vol. 10, No. 1 (January-February, 1972), pp. 40-41.

[2] Universidad Industrial de Santander, Bulletin. Seminar for University English Teachers at the Universidad Industrial de Santander, Bucaramanga, Colombia. October 14-16, 1965, pp. 1-2.

representing 24 universities and 34 high schools. Immediately following adjournment of the Congress, the recently elected Board of Directors met and chose Clare de Silva as ASOCOPI's first president, a position she held until returning to the United States in 1969.[1]

Since its constitution specified that ASOCOPI was an organization for university teachers, high school delegates were not given voting privileges at the organizational meeting. Consequently, a protest ensued and by vote of the university delegates, high school teachers were excluded from active membership.[2]

Pursuant to the May seminar at Los Andes, a meeting of the Board of Directors was held in October. Again the subject of high school teachers arose, and after a full day of discussion, it was decided to admit high school teachers as active members if they had a university degree. Those who did not fulfill this requirement could become associate members of the organization, without a vote at the annual meetings. This decision remains in effect.[3]

It should be pointed out that during its first years of operation ASOCOPI received financial assistance from the Fulbright Commission which paid the expenses of all university delegates, and from the American

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[1]Ronald F. Dorr, ed. Bulletin. The Second Seminar for English Teachers, Bogotá, Colombia, May 19-21, 1966, p. 7.

[2]The Fulbright Commission was indirectly responsible for this encounter, since in its efforts to stimulate English teaching at the university level by setting up a university English teacher's organization, they completely forgot that high school teachers might want to participate also. This was indeed unfortunate in that as a result many hard feelings were generated. Also excluded were teachers from the binational centers and ILCA.

[3]W. Leland Northam, former president of ASOCOPI, private interview tape recorded, Bogotá, Colombia, August 16, 1971.

Embassy, which published the proceedings of the first and second congresses. The USIS staff of the embassy also contributed to ASOCOPI during its initial years by printing and mailing announcements of forthcoming congresses.

At the 1970 Congress, Dr. Carlos Medellín, of the Asociación Colombiana de Universidades, made an offer to accept ASOCOPI into the organization as a "grupo de trabajo." This would mean a yearly allotment to ASOCOPI from the organization in order to carry out its expressed goals. As of this writing, the proposed incorporation has not occurred, although the new ASOCOPI officers are continuing to investigate its possibilities.[1]

As stated earlier, ASOCOPI began as a university oriented organization. The enthusiasm and need of high school teachers for the organization has always been apparent and has grown steadily. This has caused disillusion to many university professors, who feel that the standards and the prestige of the organization are lowered when non-university memberships are accepted. As a result, many have ceased to participate during recent years. Correspondingly, the organization has become more oriented toward the high school teacher in an effort to serve its constituency better. Although this new direction has caused ASOCOPI to grow, it will not be an asset when asking for recognition from the Asociacion Colombiana de Universidades.

ASOCOPI has had seven annual congresses since its inception. These were held at the Universidad Industrial de Santander in Bucaramanga

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[1] Ibid.

in 1965, Los Andes in Bogotá in 1966, the Universidad del Valle in Cali in 1967, the Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana in Medellín in 1968, and the Universidad de Cartegena in 1969, in Bogotá in 1970, and in Popayán in 1971.[1] All meetings are held in May or June.

Although the topics at these meetings have become increasingly oriented toward the high school teacher, the university professor has done nearly all the lecturing. A review of the speakers at the 1967, 1968, and 1969 conventions shows that 41 speakers were from universities, six from private colegios, five from the Fulbright Commission, two from the British Council, two from ILCA, two from the Ministry of Education, and one from the Caro y Cuervo Institute. Not a single public school teacher was involved, in spite of the fact that some talented ones can be found. It would seem that if ASOCOPI does not succeed in involving its high school teachers in a more direct sense, it will run the risk of creating disillusion among the great majority of its members.

One of the reasons university professors dislike having high school teachers attend congresses is that it necessitates that the program be conducted in Spanish. Although it may seem absurd to conduct an English congress in Spanish, it is probably equally absurd to conduct it entirely in English with full knowledge that the majority of the participants (high school teachers) do not possess sufficient

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[1] The 1969 congress in Cartagena coincided with Governor Rockefeller's visit to Colombia and the wave of anti-Americanism it precipitated. Those who attended the congress were forced to flee the university under a hail of stones and it was later decided that future meetings would not be held at a university.

comprehension skills to benefit from the lectures presented. Again a review of the Bulletin of the previously mentioned seminars shows that only 5 of 27 reproduced speeches were in Spanish. It is assumed that the ratio of English lectures to Spanish lectures actually delivered is similar.

Colombians and Americans alike complain that Americans are dominating the organization. This was overtly apparent at these congresses where Americans gave the majority of the presentations. On the other hand, Paul Gotch of the British Council feels that ASOCOPI would become defunct without the aid of interested Americans.[1] It should be pointed out that some Colombians agree. When discussing the problem with a former ILCA professor, he stated that many of the Colombians in the organization show considerable mistrust of each other, believing the other fellow is only working toward election to a prestigious position in the association. This situation may improve, however, since Father Fulgencio Cabrera of the Javeriana University was elected president for the 1971-72 term.

The occasional journal of ASOCOPI is called How. It originated as simply a newsletter for teachers in 1966. Professor Robert Ilson, a Fulbright lecturer at the Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana, served as author and editor of the first issues. As Professor Ilson became more enthusiastic about the new English teacher's association, he offered, in 1967, to make his newsletter the official publication of the organization.

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[1]Paul Gotch, Director of the British Council in Colombia, private tape-recorded interview, Bogotá, Colombia, July 8, 1971.

Dr. Ilson edited twelve issues of How before returning to the United States early in 1968. Afterwards, How ran into problems. Although new editors were found, they were always full-time teachers and consequently could devote only limited time to the journal. Professor Nelson Fritz of the Universidad Industrial de Santander edited the next two issues, and Pegi Lee Drumgold de Torres of the Department of Modern Languages at Los Andes has been editor since 1970. While a total of 17 issues have been published, only five have come out in the past three years.[1] Thus, it seems that the very existence of How is becoming a matter of increasing concern.

The quality of How as a local journal is attested to by the fact that three of its articles have been reprinted in English Teaching Forum.[2]

Dues for membership in ASOCOPI are 50 pesos per year for active members and 30 pesos for associate members. A life membership is available for 500 pesos and a "sustaining" membership for 3,000 pesos. Several book companies have purchased sustaining memberships.

Members of the organization receive many benefits. Perhaps the most valuable is a free subscription to English Teaching Forum, published six times yearly. In addition, members also receive free issues of How, and an optional subscription to English Language Teaching

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[1] I believe this makes How the longest-lived English journal in Colombian history.

[2] The reader is referred to: "Some Pointers for Classroom Teachers," by Gustavo Troncoso, in the January-February, 1969, issue; "More Suggestions from Professor Ilson," in the May-June, 1969, issue; and "Pace," by Clare de Silva, in the January-February, 1970, issue of this international publication.

at half price. Memberships in the British Council are also half price, and registration at the national congress is offered at a reduced rate. Recent university graduates with an English major are awarded a year's free membership by ASOCOPI, in order to encourage further participation.[1]

In 1969 ASOCOPI initiated, in conjunction with the British Council, a yearly essay contest for English students and teachers. The contest offers prizes of Col. $500, $300, and $200 for the best essays as well as books for honorable mention. In addition, the money winning essays are published in How.[2]

In reviewing the accomplishments of ASOCOPI, it can be said that the organization has done and is still doing much to stimulate English teaching in Colombia. Its annual conference provides an opportunity for some 100 teachers to become acquainted and discuss common professional problems. Its journal provides a forum for innovative ideas in teaching and a means of keeping its membership throughout the country informed. It is to be hoped that ASOCOPI will continue to receive support in the future from all concerned with English teaching in Colombia, from the Ministry of Education to the textbook companies.

The Fulbright Commission

The Fulbright Commission or the Commission for Educational Exchange as it is called in Colombia was initiated in 1958 with head-

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[1]Taken from ASOCOPI propaganda. No date, title, or publisher listed.

[2]Pegi Lee Drumgold de Torres, "ASOCOPI Essay Contest Winners," How, No. 15 (First semester, 1970), p. 4.

quarters in Bogotá. The purpose of the commission is to "encourage a wider exchange of knowledge and professional talent through educational activities."[1] Like the binational centers, the Commission for Educational Exchange is supervised by a binational board of directors. This board appoints an executive director who is normally a Colombian.

The commission's interest in English teaching is based on the premise that it is a valuable element of educational exchange.[2] Consequently, since its initiation it has played a major role in the revision and updating of university English departments and teacher training institutions. In 1959, during the commission's first year of operation, seven American professors were assigned to Colombian universities at a cost of U.S. $95,876. These lecturers taught courses in English linguistics, methodology, and American studies.[3] The program continued until 1968 when after a total of 42 lectureships had been provided, it was discontinued because it was felt that university departments had been sufficiently strengthened and reorganized that they could now continue to produce quality graduates on their own.[4] Although this contribution was made directly to Colombian

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[1]Commission for Educational Exchange between the United States and Colombia, Report of the Board of Directors, Ten Years of Educational Exchange (Bogotá, Colombia: Editorial Andes, 1968), p. 13.

[2]Ibid., p. 44.

[3]Idem., Annual Program Proposal, 1959, Bogota, July 30, 1957, p. 9.

[4]Germán García Restrepo, Executive Director of the Colombian Commission for Educational Exchange, private tape recorded interview, Bogotá, Colombia, July 6, 1971.

universities and ILCA, it can be assumed that some public school English teachers derived benefit in the form of better university training. The total cost of this program during the ten years of its existence was approximately U.S. $678,891. In addition, 48 Colombian students and teachers were sent to the United States for a year to study TEFL methodology. In the case of some, such as the ILCA-UCLA students, the local commission paid transportation only, while the headquarters in Washington paid their living expenses through the Institute for International Education. The total investment in this program from 1960 to 1968 was approximately U.S. $79,572.

In 1966 the commission began the Teacher Interchange Program, which was designed to improve the teaching of English in Colombian public schools and the teaching of Spanish in the United States. During its first three years of operation six Colombian teachers of English were sent to the United States to teach Spanish, while perfecting their command of English and receiving a first hand acquaintance with American culture. The Fulbright Commission Headquarters in Washington, through the United States Office of Education, was responsible for placing the teachers in a school district, and the district in turn paid them a salary of at least U.S. $6,000, or whatever in excess the local pay scale demanded.[1] Therefore the Educational Exchange Commission in Colombia contributed only the travel expenses for these teachers. This contribution totaled U.S. $2,928 by 1968. The teachers selected to

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[1]Board of Foreign Scholarships, Eighth Annual Report to the U.S. Congress, Continuing the Commitment, Washington, D.C., October 1970.

participate in this program were nominated by the local secretaries of education in the departments of Cundinamarca, Valle, Antioquia, and Atlántico.

In Colombia, the six American teachers' salaries were paid by the local commission as well as a housing allowance and travel expenses. This amounted to a contribution of an additional U.S. $52,544, to which can be added the savings for the local secretariat of six regular Colombian salaries.[1] Teachers selected to participate in the program were not required to have a high degree of language proficiency, and in fact, a lack of previous travel experience was made a requisite for candidacy.[2]

After 1968, the program for American teachers was discontinued. Four Colombian teachers were sent to the United States in 1969, and travel expenses were paid on a one-way basis only for six teachers in 1970, and five teachers in 1971. Present plans call for maintenance of this level of support in 1972.

In 1964 the commission initiated a series of 90 day grants to secondary English teachers to study TEFL at Georgetown University.

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[1]All composite figures represented in this section are non-official figures based on the author's calculations of the yearly allocations for these programs. The sums of $678,891 and $79,572 cannot be considered exact since up until the year 1964 all proposals were made in pesos, and the value of the peso often fluctuated during the year thus changing the dollar equivalent. A memorandum from the Colombian commission to the Department of State dated February 19, 1965, states that on successive days of that month the value of the peso was 13.80, 14.00, 15.20, and 14.20.

[2]Commission for Education Exchange Between the United States and Colombia, Annual Program Proposal, 1967, Bogotá, November 23, 1965, pp. 13-16.

By 1970, a total of 24 had been awarded.

The commission has cooperated extensively with ILCA by providing them with twelve lecturers over a seven year period.

The Teacher Development Program begun by the commission in 1964 included eight six-month grants for Colombian secondary teachers per year. According to the 1965 report, a "large number" of these grants were received by English teachers since they were often the only ones with a sufficient command of English to study at an American university. Nonetheless, after 1965, emphasis on English proficiency was diminished so that teachers from other fields would have a better chance of receiving an award. English teachers continued to be among the recipients although it is not possible to calculate their exact number.

Also included in the Teacher Development Program are grants to secondary teachers to attend 40 day curriculum workshops. These workshops are held principally in Puerto Rico, where the participants spend one month studying U.S. educational techniques in Spanish. Upon conclusion, the teachers spend ten days in Tampa, Florida, and Stockton, California, attending lectures and observing schools. Present plans call for such grants to be continued through 1972, with English teachers being eligible for these also. The policy of the commission is to award these grants to people in leadership positions since they are the ones most able to effectuate change. Consequently, it is recommended that department heads and inspectors of English apply for them. It should be mentioned that the commission has been active in organizing and supporting ASOCOPI, and brought Dr. Albert Marckwardt of Princeton

University to Cartagena, in May of 1969, to speak at the fifth annual ASOCOPI congress. In addition the commission has paid the expenses of several of its lecturers to participate in these meetings and supported Professor Theodore Higgs during 1968, in his recruiting efforts throughout the country on behalf of the organization.[1]

Finally, on May 15, 1971, Professor Glenn Kerch was brought by the commission from Honduras to give a six week seminar on applied linguistics and the teaching of English at the Pedagogical and Technological University of Tunja for professors in the English department there.[2]

A review of the Fulbright Commission's contributions show them to be considerable at both the secondary and university level. They have sent many Colombians to the United States and supported ILCA in the writing of its textbooks. The contributions seem to have diminished in the last few years, however, due to reductions in funding and an increasing orientation toward the improvement of teaching in the natural sciences.

The British Council

The British Council was established in 1934, as a body representative of British life and institutions, and with the long term goal of bringing about a better understanding between Great Britain and other

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[1] Garcia Restrepo, private interview.

[2] The writer wishes to express appreciation to Mrs. Isabel Donald, former secretary, and to Mrs. Elsa Bustillos, secretary to the Commission for Educational Exchange in Colombia, for having proofread this section.

countries. Although the council receives considerable financial support from the national treasury, it has a certain independent status since it is not a department of the British government.[1] In terms of its American counterparts, the British Council performs functions similar to those of the United States Information Service, the educational attaches, and the binational centers.

Prior to 1964, the British Council in Colombia operated several British Institutes where English was taught to Colombian students. Since then, however, it has been directing its efforts in this field to the training and retraining of Colombian national English teachers.

The council works to accomplish this goal through various activities. It has previously been mentioned that it sponsors an annual seminar for secondary teachers in conjunction with the binational centers. It also lends support to ASOCOPI by providing speakers from abroad for the annual congress, and by offering a half-price subscription to the journal English Language Teaching and half-price membership in the council to all full-time English teachers.

Volunteers in Service Overseas (VSO) is the British equivalent to the Peace Corps. At present there are 19 such workers in Colombia, 11 of whom are teaching English in Colombian universities. Their placement is arranged by the council which serves as their mother organization in Colombia.

In cooperation with Inravisión, the national television network, the council has put on a didactic English serial called Slim John,

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[1]The British Council, What is the British Council (London: McCorquodale Company, 1967), pp. 1-2.

six times per week, since March 30, 1970.[1] The serial, which is produced by the council and the British Broadcasting Corporation, depicts the life of an invader from outer space who comes to England as a precursor and spy for his people. One program is shown each week; the first half being shown on Monday, the second half on Wednesday, and the entire program is reviewed on Friday. As Slim John, who is a robot, learns English, so does the viewer. New vocabulary is demonstrated on the Monday and Wednesday sessions and the viewer has the opportunity to practice comprehension of the entire program during the Friday review. The serial is shown twice a day at 8:00 a.m. and at 4:45 p.m.; the local council feels that it is a success and states that several schools are now using the accompanying book as a text.

Twice a month the council puts on a 30 minute radio program in cooperation with Radio Nacional, the national radio network. These programs, which are in Spanish, usually treat some aspect of British culture with the description often being given by a Colombian who has recently visited Britain. A literary review is also frequently presented. It is not known if secondary teachers of English are accustomed to tuning in the program which is presented at 8:00 p.m. on the first and third Wednesday of each month; however this would certainly by an inexpensive way to become informed about the cultural traits and heritage of the British people.

The council has cooperated with ILCA by sending the director

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[1]The British Council, "Special Note," How, No. 16 (1st semester, 1970), p. 5.

and the assistant director to Britain for training in teaching English as a foreign language. According to the council's director, eight students have received one year scholarships in the past five years at a cost of approximately 1,500 pounds each. Present plans call for three more to be awarded in 1971, to people in leadership positions. Also, the council has provided room and board for three to six months for four additional English teachers who have paid their own way to England.

Every two years the council invites a specialist in English language teaching from the headquarters in London to give lectures at a Colombian university. The last such lectures took place at the National University in Bogotá in 1969.

The council maintains a library of some twelve thousand volumes adjacent to its office in Bogotá. This library is open to the public and books may be checked out by members. The majority of the books deal with English literature and institutions. Included in the library is a collection of 900 16 millimeter films which may be borrowed by individual teachers for classroom use.[1]

In evaluating the role of the British Council one can fairly say that they are active and sincere in their efforts to improve the caliber of English teaching in Colombia and seem to concentrate their efforts more on the secondary level, rather than the university level as is the case with the Fulbright Commission. Nevertheless, it would seem that their effect could be increased by maintaining the current level of three scholarships per year, and by instituting a program of

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[1]Paul Gotch, Director of the British Council in Colombia, private tape recorded interview, Bogotá, Colombia, July 8, 1971.

teacher exchange, similar to the one currently supported by the Fulbright Commission, whereby one-way transportation could be paid a Colombian to teach Spanish in a British school. Such an innovation would represent a low cost per recipient to the council, compared with other programs currently in effect in technical fields, while at the same time offering a teacher the opportunity to improve his English and become acquainted with British customs.[1]

The Textbook Companies

Publishing houses that handle textbooks in the teaching of English as a foreign language have also made contributions to the betterment of English teaching during the past few years. Naturally, behind these contributions is the belief that improved teaching means greater satisfaction with the textbooks. In addition, such contributions often bring publicity and increased sales.

Perhaps the company which has contributed most in Colombia is the American Book Company, which publishes the Let's Learn English series. Gordon Holmes, the company's representative in Colombia from 1966 to 1970, is an honorary member of the board of directors of ASOCOPI and attended seven congresses and seminars as such with company funds. The company has presented five seminars in the past five years to teachers using their texts in the cities of Cucuta, Cartagena, Bucaramanga, Bogotá, and Tolima. These seminars have either employed local methodologis s or brought methodologists from the

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[1] I wish to express my appreciation to Mr. Paul Gotch, Director of the British Council in Colombia, for having proofread this section.

United States. The seminars in Bucaramanga, 1967, Cartagena, 1967, and Cucuta, 1968, were exclusively for secondary school English teachers.[1] The company also paid for the first printing of How, the ·asional Journal of ASOCOPI, in 1967, and brought Dr. W. Brice Van Syoc, author of their fifth year text, to the 1971 ASOCOPI congress to speak on approaches to testing.

Regents Publishing Company sent Dr. Robert Lado to the 1970 ASOCOPI Congress where he was the principal speaker. Longmans Publishing Company sent Dr. L. G. Alexander, who gave lectures at ILCA, the National University, and in the auditorium of the Colseguros Building in the summer of 1970. Editorial Voluntad recently contracted with Longmans to publish the Alexander series in Colombia, and is planning an extensive campaign of orientation for teachers using the book.[2] Oxford University Press brought down Dr. W. R. Lee for a seminar at the National Pedagogical University in December 1969. This seminar was attended by English teachers from all the INEM's in the country, since most of these schools use Dr. Lee's books in their second and third year courses.

In 1968, Mr. Robert Ilson, a Fulbright lecturer at the Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana, organized with the help of Dr. Raphael López, Director, a linguistics reading room at the Public Pilot Library in Medellín. The purpose was to make the latest books and periodicals

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[1]Gordon Holmes, former representative of the American Book Company in Colombia, private interview, Bogotá, July 12, 1971.

[2]Gastón de Bedout, Assistant Director of Editorial Voluntad, private interview, Bogotá, July 19, 1971.

in and about foreign languages available to all those interested in learning, teaching, and using them. A total of 104 books, mostly English and language teaching texts, were collected from various publishers with the help of the British Council and the sales representatives. They are available on loan throughout Colombia from the Biblioteca Pública Piloto, Apartado Aereo #17-97, Medellín.[1]

The Colombian Association of Teachers of English

In 1968, Solomon Cabanzo, an English teacher in Medellín, organized with the help of a few friends, the Colombian Association of Teachers of English (CATE). The purpose of the organization is to promote scholarship, disseminate information, and strengthen instruction and research at all levels of teaching.[2]

CATE exists exclusively in the city of Medellín and numbers about 125 active members. The majority (75 per cent) of its members are high school teachers and 50 per cent of them teach in public colegios. This makes CATE, unlike its sister organization ASOCOPI, an organization whose primary interest is the teaching of English at the secondary level.

In many ways CATE resembles a kind of English speaking club. Many university students are members and membership is free to anyone interested. Through the help of the Centro Cultural Colombo-Americano in Medellín, all members receive the English Teaching Forum.

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[1] Annals of the Fourth ASOCOPI Congress, Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana (Bogotá: ASOCOPI, 1968), pp. 38-42.

[2] Colombian Association of Teachers of English, "Constitution," p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

In its short period of existence, CATE has been of significant service to its members. In 1968 the association put on four Saturday seminars for its members which were taught by Víctor Quintanilla, of the BNC in Cali, and Ted Higgs, a Fulbright lecturer. The organization meets sporadically, with meetings being called by the president. ASOCOPI organized a Saturday seminar for CATE members in March, 1970, on the use of audio-visual aids. On other occasions, movies are supplied by the USIS dealing with the teaching of English or some aspect of American culture.[1]

One wonders why organizations such as CATE have not arisen in other Colombian cities under the leadership of the departmental English inspector or a similar person having contact with many teachers.[2]

The Cordell Hull Foundation

The Cordell Hull Foundation for International Education was founded by friends of the former Secretary of State, Mr. Cordell Hull,

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[1]William Boltero, president of CATE, private interview, Medellín, July 22, 1971.

[2]There is actually a third English teachers' organization in Colombia known as the Asociacion Colombiana de Profesores de Ingles (ACPI), which should not be confused with ASOCOPI. This group exists only in Cali and is an affiliate of ASOCOPI, the present national organization which provides the same privileges to ACPI members as it does to others. Its president is Víctor Quintanilla, Director of Courses at the binational center there. The ACPI group in Cali is the only remaining chapter of a previous national organization of the same name which existed in the early sixties. ACPI was founded in 1960, through the efforts of Mr. Elbert S. Moore, an English professor at the Universidad del Valle. The organization published several issues of a journal entitled English, beginning in 1961. Its editor, Dr. Robert Saitz, authored an article in the first issue on techniques of teaching large classes in Colombia which was later reprinted in Harold B. Allen, ed., Teaching English as a Second Language (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1965), pp. 322-325.

after his death, as a living memory to his work towards international understanding. Mr. Hull was instrumental in the founding of the Organization of American States and was the author of the Good Neighbor Policy.[1]

The Foundation deals exclusively with Latin American English teachers, bringing them to the U.S. to teach Spanish language and culture in U.S. high schools, and on occasion, U.S. colleges. Most of these teachers go to rural counties in the South, where a language teacher is difficult to obtain. The Foundation normally pays transportation and the local county pays the teacher's salary according to the local scale. Incoming teachers receive a two day orientation session in New Orleans, Louisiana, during the month of August.

Interested candidates must have a licenciatura in modern languages and at least one year of teaching experience. In Colombia, the program is administered through ICETEX which reports that since its initiation in 1965, approximately 10 Colombian English teachers per year have participated.[2]

During the 1969-70 academic year a total of 50 Latin American teachers participated in the program. Of these, 23 received contracts for a second year.[3] This is the maximum time allowable by visa regulations. Grantees may apply to the Organization of American States for

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[1]The Cordell Hull Foundation, Description (New Orleans), p. 2.

[2]Gonzalo Arboleda Palacio, Acting Director of ICETEX, private interview, Bogotá, July 29, 1971.

[3]Mario Bermúdez, Executive Vice-President of Cordell Hull, Letter to ICETEX, March, 1970.

financial assistance to attend summer courses at American universities before returning to their respective countries.

UNESCO

In December of 1970, UNESCO in cooperation with the Colombian government, began an American style Master's program at the National Pedagogical University in Bogotá, and the University of Antioquia in Medellín. Although the program is oriented towards educational research, and consequently lacks subject matter methodologists, it can be considered an important contribution toward the establishment of a scientific attitude about teaching. The program includes a specialization in supervision for persons in, or about to assume, positions of leadership, and attempts to train them in the democratic methods of bringing about curricular change (round tables, discussion groups, etc.).[1] It is important that language inspectors receive the opportunity to participate in this program, so they may become effective stimulators of instructional improvement.

At present, the tuition for this program is U.S. $500 and therefore out of reach of most of those who could profit most from it. Nonetheless, loans to pay the matriculation fee are available from ICETEX and all persons in positions of responsibility (ASOCOPI officials and national language coordinators) should become aware of the program's existence, and encourage local inspectors and department heads to apply for these loans.

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[1]Universidad Pedagógica Nacional, Cursos de Magíster en Educación, (Bogotá: Universidad Pedagógica Nacional, December, 1970).

The Ford Foundation

The contribution of the Ford Foundation in Colombia to the field of English teaching has been relatively minor, and consists of sending two university professors to the United States. In the summers of 1966 and 1967 the foundation sent the Head of the Department of Modern Languages of the University of the Andes to the University of Indiana to receive a Master's degree in linguistics. Also, a professor of English at the University of Antioquia was sent to the University of Washington in 1965, where he received a Master's in English literature the following year.

At present the foundation commits approximately $150,000 per year for scholarships in the fields of education, population, urban studies, social sciences, agriculture, and ecology.[1] Preference is given those persons who are in or about to occupy positions of leadership, and recipients may study at the university of their choice, anywhere in the world.

Since these scholarships include educators, it is advisable that language inspectors and department chairmen in public schools apply for them as a vehicle for study abroad. The writer feels that they would fare well in the competition, since in accordance with the foundation's objectives preference is shown to people working with lower class groups.[2]

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[1]Robert Arnove, Ford Foundation educational advisor for Venezuela and Colombia, private interview, Bogotá, July 13, 1971.

[2]Robert Arnove, "Los programas de la Fundación Ford en Colombia," Eduquemos, Vol. 1, No. 6 (August-September, 1970), p. 4.

CHAPTER IV

HOW ENGLISH IS TAUGHT IN COLOMBIA

The Descriptive Instrument

The instrument used to describe English teaching in Colombia was the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC) developed by Ned Flanders during the late 1950s. Flanders feels that teacher behavior can best be studied by describing the way the teacher makes contact with pupils. If a teacher does not make contact with pupils, then his method can be described simply as lecture: the method present in most university classrooms today.[1] If a teacher does make contact with his pupils he could be using any of numerous methods and approaches. At this point it becomes necessary to describe the type of contacts that are made with pupils and the sequences in which they occur.

The FIAC system is based on research by Anderson which indicates that it is the teacher's behavior which determines the climate of the classroom, and that this behavior forms a pattern which tends to persist from year to year even with different pupils.[2] Flanders believes that

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[1] W. J. McKeachie, "Research on Teaching at the College and University Level," Handbook of Research on Teaching, ed. by N. L. Gage (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1963), pp. 1125-1126.

[2] Ned A. Flanders, "Teacher Influence in the Classroom," in Interaction Analysis: Theory, Research, and Application, ed. Amidon-Hough (Palo Alto: Addison Wesley Publishing Company, 1967), p. 104.

only the teacher's verbal behavior can be measured with any reliability and accuracy and he makes the assumption that the verbal behavior of an individual is an adequate sample of his total behavior.[1]

Flanders' ten categories are portrayed in Table 9 on the following page. The teacher's verbal behavior comprises the first seven categories. On the other hand the students' verbal behavior composes only two categories with silence or confusion being the last category. Again, the emphasis on teacher behavior is based on Flanders' belief in Anderson's findings (see page 104).

The FIAC system of interaction analysis was adapted to foreign languages by Moskowitz in a self-instructional manual she has published for teacher and student use.[2] This manual answered many questions which had been posed for some time regarding the application of interaction analysis to foreign language teaching. Moskowitz later expanded Flanders' ten categories to twelve basic categories and six subcategories.[3] Her newest instrument, called the Foreign Language Interaction (FLINT) System, was recently expanded to include sub-categorization for non-verbal and native language behaviors.[4] This last adaptation is

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[1]Edmund Amidon and Ned Flanders, "Interaction Analysis as a Feedback System," in Ibid., p. 121.

[2]Gertrude Moskowitz, The Foreign Language Teacher Interacts (Minneapolis: The Association for Productive Teaching, 1968, 1970).

[3]Gertrude Moskowitz, "The Flint System: An Observational Tool for the Foreign Language Class," Mirrors for Behavior: An Anthology of Classroom Observation Instruments, A. Simon, editor (Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, 1967).

[4]Gertrude Moskowitz, "Interaction Analysis: A New Modern Language for Supervisors," Foreign Language Annals, Vol. 5, No. 2 (December, 1971), pp. 211-221.

TABLE 9

FLANDERS' CATEGORIES FOR INTERACTION ANALYSIS

TEACHER TALK	INDIRECT INFLUENCE	1. ACCEPTS FEELING: accepts and clarifies the feeling tone of students in a non-threatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feelings are included. 2. PRAISES OR ENCOURAGES: praises or encourages student action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, not at the expense of another individual, nodding head or say, "um hum?" or "go on" are included. 3. ACCEPTS OR USES IDEAS OF STUDENT: clarifying building, or developing ideas suggested by a student. As a teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to category five. 4. ASKS QUESTIONS: asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student answer.
	DIRECT INFLUENCE	5. LECTURING: giving facts or opinions about content or procedure; expressing his own ideas, asking rhetorical questions. 6. GIVING DIRECTIONS: directions, commands or order to which a student is expected to comply. 7. CRITICIZING OR JUSTIFYING AUTHORITY: statement to change student behavior from non-acceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating what the teacher is doing what he is not doing; extreme self-reference.
STUDENT TALK		8. RESPONSE: a student makes a predictable response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student statement and sets limits to what the student says. 9. INITIATION: talk by students which they initiate. Unpredictable statements in response to teacher. Shift from 8 to 9 as student introduces own ideas.
		10. SILENCE OR CONFUSION: pauses, short periods of silence, and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

probably the most sophisticated observational instrument to be applied to foreign languages, yet it lacks an important design element: it does not show native language-foreign language activities in sequence. Only a percentage of the total behavior for each category is given for each language. Therefore, if a translation drill were used in which the teacher gave the student a word in his native language and the student immediately translated it to the foreign language, such behaviors would not be distinguishable from a simple pattern practice using a substitution drill. The solution to this problem rests in the development of a new 18-20 category matrix with subcategories for each language. Such a matrix would have to be tabulated by computer as it would contain some 1,600 cells.

In order to record foreign language and native language behaviors and the sequences in which they occur, Wragg developed a 20 category system based on Flanders' ten categories.[1] The system simply requires the observer to add a "1" before each of Flanders' categories if the behavior was done in the foreign language. Thus category one would be recorded as an eleven if it occurred in the foreign language, category two as a twelve, etc. Wragg did list twenty categories in his original description, however, it seems that only nineteen are necessary since nothing is gained by subdividing category ten (silence or confusion).

This researcher decided to use Moskowitz's adaptation of the

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[1]E. C. Wragg, "Interaction Analysis in the Foreign Language Classroom," Modern Language Journal, Vol. 54, No. 2 (February, 1970), pp. 116-120.

FIAC system in recording the data for two reasons:

1. In portraying classroom interaction it is much easier for the reader to follow than the more complex matrices described above.
2. A computer program was made available to the researcher for analyzing the data.

Before going to Colombia the writer learned the FIAC system by working through the previously mentioned text, The Foreign Language Teacher Interacts, until he felt confident in its use. He then observed five Spanish classes in the Denver, Colorado, area recording behaviors and referring back to the textbook when doubts arose. At this point the researcher decided that there would be no indecision classifying behaviors. Upon arriving in Colombia, five additional classes were observed at the Centro Colombo-Americano in Bogotá. All of the latter classes were courses in English as a foreign language.

How behaviors are recorded

The observer using the FIAC system begins each observation with category 10. This is because each class is assumed to begin with either silence or confusion. As class begins he will classify behaviors by both the teacher and the students at the rate of one every three seconds. If more than one behavior occurs in three seconds, the observer records the additional behaviors also. Ideally, therefore, the observer will record 20-25 times per minute.

The observer takes with him a notebook for use in recording the data. Generally, he arrives before class and writes the teacher's name, the name of the school, and the level of the class at the top of the

first page of data, as well as any other information he may be interested in collecting. During the observation process, columns of behavior entries are constructed up and down the page so that there are usually 8-10 columns on each page. Usually two pages are filled in each observation. If the observer wishes to stop momentarily to make note of what was done, he may also do so without changing the basic nature of the results. The final category recorded is again a 10, based on the premise that the class will always end in silence or confusion.

During the observation, specific situations will arise where the observer is doubtful as to how to classify a behavior. As a guide to such situations the following ground rules have been devised.

> When in doubt as to which of two or more categories a statement belongs, choose the category farthest from category 5, unless one of the categories is a 10. Always record the interaction when it is discernible rather than recording a 10.
>
> If the teacher has been either consistently direct or indirect, do not shift to the opposite type of influence unless a change of behavior is clearly evidenced.
>
> The observer must not be concerned with his own personal reactions to the behaviors or with the intentions of the teacher. The observer is to record how the students perceive the behaviors in terms of restriction or expansion of their opportunity to participate.[1]

The category farthest from five is chosen in order to maximize the amount of information obtained by recording events which occur infrequently. For most subjects category five is more common than category four, which is more common than category three, which is more common than category two, which is more common than category one. The same can

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[1]Moskowitz, The Foreign Language Teacher Interacts, p. 13.

be said going up the scale. Category five is more common than six, which is more common than seven. Among student talk, category eight is more common than category nine. Category ten, on the other hand, is to be avoided in such situations in deference to another category giving more information.[1]

How behaviors are tallied

Once the class has been observed and the behaviors recorded, the observer must place the tallies in a matrix. The matrix includes eleven rows and eleven columns, ten of which make up the 100 cells in which the data are entered, with the eleventh being used for row and column totals. Tabulation of the following hypothetical 20 tally observation illustrates the process.

10) 1st pair	2
5	3
2nd pair (5) 3rd pair	5
5	5
4th pair (4	9
8	5
2	4
4	9
0	2
9	0

The observer begins by drawing connecting lines between each pair of behaviors so that lines are drawn between the first and second behavior, the second and third, the third and fourth, and so on. Consequently each behavior is recorded twice in the matrix, except for the first and last tallies which are always 0. Therefore, the number of entries in a matrix will always be equivalent to the number of tallies

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[1]Ned A. Flanders, Analyzing Teaching Behavior (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1970), p. 52.

recorded minus one. In this observation twenty tallies were recorded but there are only 19 entries in the sample matrix shown below. Counting each tally twice and entering pairs into the matrix maximizes the information gathering capacity of the instrument by providing not only the percentage of each of the ten categories used, but the percentage of each of the 100 possible behavioral sequences also. With this brief introduction to interaction analysis the collected data will now be discussed.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
1											
2			1	1						1	3
3					1						1
4								1	1	1	3
5				2	3				1		6
6											
7											
8		1									1
9		2			1						3
10					1				1		1
Total		3	1	3	5			1	3	2	19

MATRIX 1

A QUANTITATIVE MODEL OF ENGLISH TEACHING IN COLOMBIA BASED ON A COMPOSITE MILLAGE MATRIX

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
2	0	1	2	5	5	6	0	2	5	3	29
3	0	3	1	7	4	2	0	2	1	1	22
4	0	1	0	6	4	1	0	48	4	7	72
5	0	1	0	13	182	14	1	25	7	17	261
6	0	0	0	3	4	7	1	97	4	14	131
7	0	0	0	1	2	5	4	3	1	4	20
8	0	14	17	26	32	76	8	26	1	10	210
9	0	5	3	2	11	2	1	0	4	4	34
10	0	2	0	10	17	17	4	7	4	158	218
Total	1	29	22	72	261	130	20	211	33	218	

A Quantitative Model of English Teaching in Colombia

Design and development of a computer program

Matrix 1 is a composite millage matrix which was obtained by averaging the figures in each of the thirty millage matrices obtained from the computer program. A millage matrix is derived by converting the figures in each cell of a raw frequency matrix to a base of 1,000 tallies. According to Flanders this type of matrix is advantageous for multiple class interpretations when the observer is trying to describe teaching on a broader scale: for example, in an entire school.[1]

Although many broad scale studies using a millage matrix have been done, the technique is subject to criticism in that the resultant matrix is not an equal reflection of each class. The number of tallies which an observer records will vary from class to class. Variables which will cause this number to change are (a) the number of interactions occurring in a class, and (b) the recording speed of the observer. Therefore when a millage matrix is computed for two observations of different classes, one with 1,200 tallies and one with 600, the first class will have twice the effect on the matrix as the second.

In Colombia the number of tallies which are recorded by an observer will vary considerably from class to class. This is due to the fact that many teachers spend the first five minutes or so calling role, a non-instructional activity. Also, the length of classes will

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[1]Flanders, Analyzing Teaching Behavior, p. 100.

vary as much as fifteen minutes in different parts of the country. Other activities causing variation in the total number of tallies are prayers, assemblies, or the teacher arriving late or leaving early. Occasionally the researcher arrived a few minutes late also, due to unfamiliarity with a school or his inability to politely bow out of a conversation with another teacher.

Given, therefore, that a millage matrix of more than one class produces a model in which each class does not have equal voice, the writer directed Robert Kapelow, a graduate student in the Department of Computer Science of the University of Colorado, in the development of a computer program which would print out a composite 1,000 frequency matrix. This modification of an existing FIAC program was made by having the computer store the 1,000 tally matrices in a three dimensional plane, and then find the mean of each of the 120 cells in the thirty millage matrices computed.[1]

Use of a 1,000 tally matrix makes it simple to ascertain the relative percentages of each category by placing a decimal point one place to the left of the last number in each row and column total. Therefore, by looking at the total for row ten (Matrix 1), it is observed that silence or confusion made up 21.3 per cent of the classes observed in the sample. Such a figure could indicate considerable confusion in Colombian English classes, a large amount of student hesitation before answering questions, or the use of a writing exercise during the

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[1] A printout of the modified Fortran IV program may be secured by writing the author.

period.[1] Since cell #100 (extended category ten) comprises roughly 72 per cent of the category total, we can assume that writing exercises are used in Colombia and that they comprise about 15 per cent of the time spent in class.

Further consideration of the row and column totals indicates that they do not always coincide. This is due to rounding errors on the part of the computer, which did not round up in any matrix when a fraction was over half. Nevertheless, rounding to the nearest whole per cent shows general agreement in all areas.

Teacher acceptance of student feelings

Perhaps the most striking aspect of the model is the nearly total lack of category one. Although Flanders found this category to be the least used by teachers, there is ample opportunity to employ it in the foreign language classroom.[2] Often the foreign language student will become nervous when answering a question and it is here that an excellent opportunity for acknowledgement of feeling is provided the teacher. Let us consider the sequence 9-9 as a case in point. Here the student is creating an original answer that takes longer than three seconds. Most certainly we can anticipate student hesitation during this process, and the resulting fear and nervousness. A statement such as "Go ahead, you're doing fine" would be most appropriate and the absence of such behavior in the model is to be lamented.

The reader may have noticed that although category one is listed

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[1]Hereafter, Matrix 1 will often be referred to as a single, model class.

[2]Moskowitz, The Foreign Language Teacher Interacts, p. 4.

as being one per cent of the total in the row and column totals, the individual cells do not show any tallies. Actually of the 17,183 tallies recorded, ten tallies, coming from only four of the thirty classes, were placed in category one. Of these, three followed category five (thus indicating that the teacher reacted to some student non-verbal conduct such as a frown or expression of confusion), two followed category eight, two followed category ten, one followed category nine, and two followed each other (thus indicating the use of a category one statement lasting longer than three seconds). The computer did not print out this data due to its very low frequency.

Student talk

During the past decade the foreign language teacher has been constantly repeating the need to bring the student to a level where he will possess the ability to communicate in the foreign language. This requires that the student receive practice on every occasion possible. The amount of such practice students in Colombia receive can be calculated by deriving the percentages of student talk and teacher talk. Here we see that teacher talk (categories 1 through 7, Matrix 1) comprised about 53 per cent of the verbal interaction which took place during the class. Students, on the other hand, talk less than half as much, or about 24 per cent of the time. Again, silence comprised about 22 per cent. Thus it can be stated that in the schools observed, student performance plays a minor role in comparison with that of the teacher.

It should be understood that this in no way means that classes are not audio-lingual. Indeed, the total number of individual student

responses as shown on the composite raw frequency matrix (Matrix 2) is 139, a noteworthy figure. It does show however that between stimulus, instruction, lecture, and reinforcement, the teacher is dominating the class by dint of sheer volume of output, and that ways must be found to bring about more extended student responses if the percentage is to be improved. Although cell 8-8 suggests that the average class contains at least 15 instances of such extended responses, most of these are due to cases where a single student read aloud from the textbook at the teacher's direction. Again, it may be unfair at this point to criticize the lack of extended student response present in the matrix. The matrix represents all six levels of English teaching and it seems logical to expect that student responses will be short and mechanical at the beginning levels and involve longer more creative answers at the advanced levels, if the teacher is taking an inductive-deductive approach to grammar.[1] If, on the other hand, the teacher were taking a deductive-only approach to grammar, we could expect to see a large number of nines in the matrix. Many of these would be extended according to the demands of such a method on the encoding process, which tends to be slow on the high school level, since automaticity has not yet been reached. The fact that category nine makes

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[1]Titone posits that grammar is learned in three stages. The first involves "association" and is merely the mechanical learning of certain basic strings. The second, "induction," involves the integration of paradigmatic concepts and the arranging of language sequences. He considers the third stage as the cognitive use of deduction under the prompting of a situation which demands communication. See his chapter, "A Psycholinguistic Model of Grammar Learning," in English as a Second Language: Current Issues, ed. by Robert C. Lugton (Philadelphia: The Center for Curriculum Development), pp. 41-62.

MATRIX 2

A QUANTITATIVE MODEL OF ENGLISH TEACHING IN

COLOMBIA BASED ON A COMPOSITE

RAW FREQUENCY MATRIX

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
2	0	1	1	3	3	3	0	1	3	2	17
3	0	2	1	4	2	1	0	1	1	1	14
4	0	1	0	3	2	1	0	27	2	4	41
5	0	1	0	7	104	8	1	14	4	10	150
6	0	0	0	2	2	4	1	56	2	8	75
7	0	0	0	1	1	3	2	2	1	2	11
8	0	8	10	15	18	44	5	15	1	6	120
9	0	3	2	1	6	1	1	0	2	2	19
10	0	1	0	6	10	10	2	4	2	91	125
Total	1	17	14	41	150	74	11	120	18	125	

up only 3 per cent of the total behaviors and only some 14 per cent of the student behaviors, indicated that on the whole the Colombian teacher is not using a deductive approach to learning when he elicits a student response.

Category nine may mean an elicited non-specific response or student initiation. In such a case the student would not be responding to a question or direction but rather interrupting the teacher with a question or comment. In such a case the teacher would not necessarily be credited with eliciting a creative response. A look at cell 5-9 in column nine shows that this is the most frequent type of category nine use. Additional support of the last finding can be encountered in row nine which shows that the most frequent response to a category nine statement is lecturing (answering a question) rather than praise (category 2) or use (category 3) of student ideas.

Maximizing student talk

It is possible to improve the teacher-student talk ratio by making the teacher aware of the type of questions or directions that precipitate extended student talk. Since most instances of extended student talk will involve original answers, the previously mentioned low incidence of category nine behaviors demonstrates that the Colombian teacher needs training in bringing about this type of response.

Another way of reducing the amount of teacher output, while increasing student input is through student to student interaction. Moskowitz recommends that this be recorded as 8-0-8 or 9-0-9. The 0 is used to distinguish such interaction from extended category 8 or 9 behaviors. In the foreign language class such patterns are developed

through the use of chain drills, role playing, etc. Cells 8-0 and 9-0 show that such techniques are not used in Colombia.

Classroom Climate

Classroom climate refers to general attitudes toward the teacher and toward the class that the students have in common despite their individual differences. Research shows that this climate is established principally by the teacher through the patterns of behavior he uses in teaching.[1] Teacher behaviors can be integrative, in that they involve students in the class by making use of student input or asking questions, or dominative, in that they do not involve students or do so in a direct (direction and ordering) fashion.

In the FIAC system categories one through four are integrative behaviors while categories five through seven are dominative. By dividing the number of direct behaviors into the indirect, we get what is known as the I/D ratio. In a study of elementary school children, Anderson has shown that when a teacher has a high proportion of dominative contacts, the pupils are more easily distracted from school work. On the other hand, a high proportion of integrative contacts is positively correlated with increased voluntary contributions.[2]

Calculation of the I/D ratio (.300) indicates that the Colombian

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[1]Ned A. Flanders, Teacher Influence, Pupil Attitudes, and Achievement, Cooperative Research Monograph No. 12, Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1965), p. 4.

[2]H. H. Anderson and J. E. Brewer, "Studies of Teachers' Classroom Personalities, II: Effects of Teacher's Dominative and Integrative Contacts on Children's Classroom Behavior," Reported in Flanders, Ibid., p. 4.

English teacher uses about 3 1/2 times as much direct influence in teaching as indirect influence. According to Flanders, this low ratio would correlate positively with negative pupil attitudes in both the United States and New Zealand.[1] In addition, the effect of such attitudes may not necessarily be limited to the classroom. In a study of eighth graders in 33 classrooms, Cogan found that students did more assigned homework and even extra work when they perceived the teacher's behavior as integrative.[2]

One obvous way of improving the I/D ratio is by the use of positive reinforcement (categories 2 and 3). An analysis of row eight shows that only 15 per cent of limited student responses are reinforced in Colombia. Most frequently, the teacher ignores the student's answer and gives another direction (cell 8-6). On the other hand, reinforcement of category nine responses observed in the sample was somewhat higher (24 per cent). Thus, it can be said that the Colombian teacher reinforces creative responses more frequently than limited responses.

The use of pattern practice

In analyzing the teaching of a foreign language in a given class, the first question which is usually asked an observer is whether or not the teacher uses audio-lingual techniques. Although the audio-lingual method has an infinite number of individual variations, it can be separated from other methods by the presence of one characteristic,

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[1]Flanders, Analyzing Teaching Behavior, p. 392.

[2]M. L. Cogan, "Theory and Design of a Study of Teacher-Pupil Interaction," Reported in ibid., p. 6.

pattern practice.[1] According to Moskowitz pattern practice is generally recorded as a 6-8 sequence, since each additional teacher cue or stimulus may be regarded as a direction to change the previous sentence. Since a pattern practice must contain more than one teacher cue, each 6-8 would be followed by a nearly equal number of 8-6's. A check of cells 6-8 and 8-6 shows considerable loading in these boxes, with cell 6-8 having slightly greater frequency than cell 8-6. Actually, except for extended silence and extended lecturing, these two cells have the highest frequencies in the matrix. Thus, it can be inferred that the average Colombian English teacher does use pattern practice and consequently an audio-lingual approach.

The use of lecture

If the reader were to draw a diagonal across the matrix from the upper left hand corner to the lower right hand corner, the line would pass through ten steady state cells. Such a diagonal is of value in that it permits us to state what types of verbal behavior tend to be extended. Referring to Matrix 1 we see considerable extended behavior in cells 5-5 and 10-10. Since the latter cell usually indicates writing (as previously explained), the only behavior commonly extended is lecturing. This would usually be a grammatical explanation, a culture presentation, or reading aloud by the teacher from the book. Therefore, the data show that although considerable pattern practice is used in Colombia, so is a considerable amount of lecturing. This,

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[1]Wilga Rivers, Teaching Foreign Language Skills (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1968), p. 39.

however, should not be disturbing, particularly when it is done in the foreign language.

Extended limited responses

The steady state cells also show that the third most frequently extended category is category 8, which is extended 15 times in the average class (Matrix 2). Although some of this indicates a student reading aloud from the book for a long period of time, as previously mentioned, cell 8-4 shows that question-answer drill is also frequently used. It is to the credit of the Colombian teacher that he is able to elicit extended category eight responses in this quantity. This is usually done with the aid of the text book, and is often a question requiring a specific answer of a reading selection. In such cases the student's answer will involve the repeating of one or two entire sentences.

The diagonal of steady state cells shows little use of extended praise or use of student ideas. We can infer that the effect of such behaviors on students would not be positive.[1] Again, the low number of tallies in the 6-6 cell suggests that the large number of sixes represent the single word cues of a pattern practice and not classroom directions.

Teacher criticism of students

When student teacher relations become strained in the foreign

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[1]Flanders' studies of New England and Minnesota school children indicate that the use of indirect influence is positively correlated with favorable student attitudes. He also found that there was not a great deal of difference in the behaviors used by direct and indirect teachers, but that indirect teachers had the ability to incorporate the first three categories into the lesson, while direct teachers generally did not.

language class, the teacher will sometimes criticize or reprimand the students. On the FIAC scale, such behavior is recorded as a 7. In this sample approximately 2 per cent of the behaviors were teacher criticism. It is interesting to consider when such criticism was used and what was its effect. First we notice that in the raw frequency matrix, there are approximately twelve seconds of extended criticism. Cell 7-9 offers some interesting data concerning the students' acceptance of the teacher.

When a teacher criticizes he is putting himself in a position of open authority. This authority can be either accepted or rejected. If the authority is accepted it will often be followed by silence, which in a sense is a continuation of the period of criticism. Such instances can be considered a victory for the teacher. On the other hand, if a student speaks without being called on (category nine) following criticism, this can be considered defiance of authority and a loss for the teacher. Row seven shows that in four times as many cases criticism is followed by silence rather than student initiation. In spite of the fact that the Colombian teacher frequently complains about poor discipline in the schools, the data indicate that the average teacher finds it necessary to criticize someone during each period, but discipline problems play a minor role in the Colombian classroom. It should also be said that the Colombian student does not show himself to be disrespectful, but, on the contrary, is generally accepting of the teacher's authority as is seen by comparing cell (7-9) with the row 7 total in Matrix 1. On the contrary, it is the teacher who seems disrespectful since he frequently criticizes students for their poor

performance in responding (cell 8-7).

The kind of pattern practice employed

When the student of English travels to the English speaking world, a good part of his daily language behavior will consist of forming and answering questions. It therefore behooves the language teacher to use questioning techniques as often as possible. Questions can be used to teach almost any pattern. Let us consider drill of the contraction "it's." The teacher can give the student continual practice using this form by simply asking questions which begin with the form "is it."

Teacher: Is it a red coat?
Student: Yes, it's a red coat.
Teacher: Is it a blue coat?
Student: Yes, it's a blue coat.

This can be compared with the following drill which illustrates a more artificial type of pattern practice, in which the student is told beforehand what change he must make in the sentence.

Teacher: It's a red book.
Student: It's a red book.
Teacher: Blue.
Student: It's a blue book.

According to Moskowitz, the teacher stimulus in the latter type of pattern practice is recorded as a six, with each stimulus being considered a separate command to the student to perform some change on the previous sentence. The first type is better therefore, in that it is more natural, and less direct.

The matrix shows that there are 48 instances of question-answer pattern practice and 97 instances of stimulus-answer pattern practice for every 1,000 tallies recorded. These figures are derived by totaling

the category eight and category nine behaviors following teacher initiation. Therefore, the Colombian teacher is using approximately twice as much direct behavior as indirect behavior in teaching the subject matter.

The three most common teaching patterns

In describing a teacher's methodology, it is necessary to state not only what behaviors a teacher uses, but in what pattern he uses them also. The procedure for discovering patterns as outlined by Flanders is somewhat complicated.[1] First one must locate the cell with the largest number of tallies. The following cell is located by finding the highest number in the row designated by the address of the previous cell. This process continues in like fashion until each cell has both an exit and entrance, or until arrival again at the first cell.

Box Flow Diagram 1 illustrates the most frequent pattern in the matrix. The starting cell is 5-5 since it has the highest number of tallies. From this point the 5-8 cell has been omitted (for reasons which will be explained later) in favor of the 5-0 cell which is the next most frequent cell in the row. From here the behavior sequence goes to cell 0-5 and then back to cell 5-5. This indicates that the most frequent behavior performed by Colombian teachers is extended lecturing. The lecturing is interrupted by a pause about every thirty seconds, after which the teacher returns to his lecture.

The second most frequent interaction pattern is illustrated in Box Flow Diagram 2. Starting again with extended lecture the teacher

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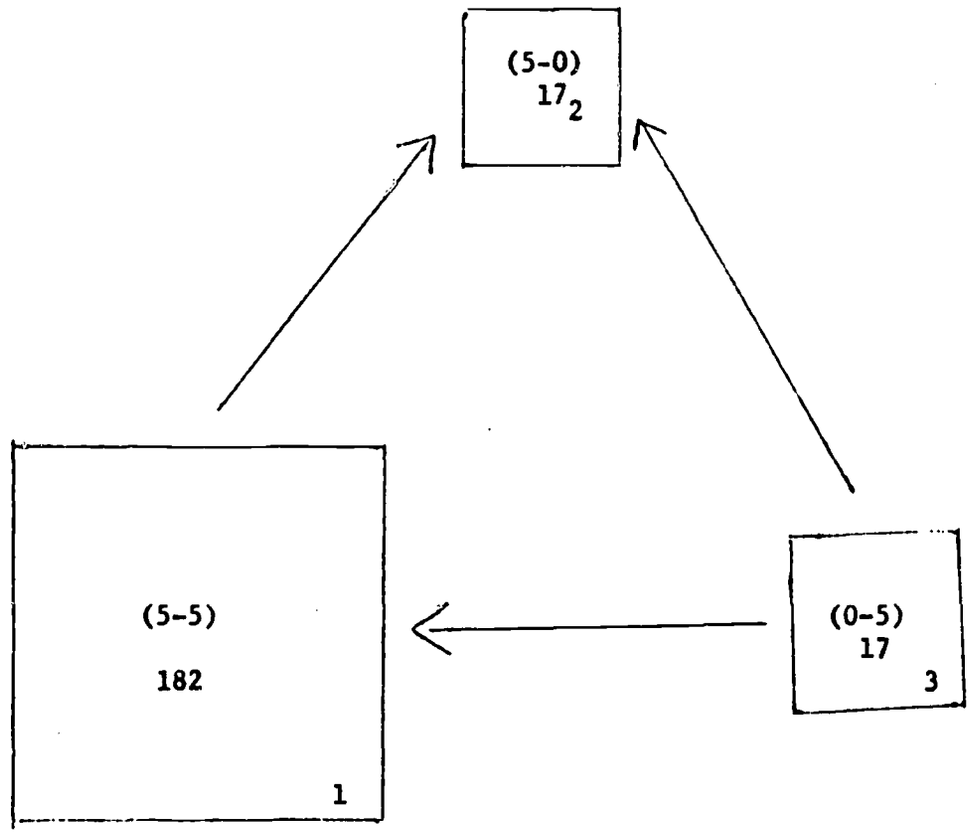
[1]Flanders, Analyzing Teaching Behavior, pp. 115-120.

BOX FLOW DIAGRAM 1

The Primary Teaching Pattern in Colombia-

Lecture



gives a model which the student is to repeat or a stimulus which the student is to use in making a variation on a previously stated model. From here we see the teacher engaging in a pattern practice in the next three boxes, 6-8, 8-6, and 6-8. The high frequency of these activities is depicted by the relative size of the boxes. After having completed the pattern practice, the teacher returns to lecturing (8-5) which he again continues for an extended period of time (5-5).

An aspect of the teacher's methodology which is not covered by this description is the 5-8 cell which stands for a student response preceded by teacher lecturing. This is normally considered an unusable cell since it is impossible for a student to respond if he has not been previously told to do so (5-6-8). If he initiates the response without being called on, it is recorded as a nine. Contrarily, the Moskowitz recording system does permit this sequence since it classifies teacher correction (without rejection) of a student response as lecturing. It is the writer's belief that this procedure is at least partially erroneous, since even Moskowitz admits that the teacher is correcting with the intention that the student repeat his model.[1] Therefore, such behaviors should be recorded as sixes, for they are obviously an example of the teacher giving directions. The teacher in effect is saying, "Repeat the correct answer after me."

This is certainly useful information to record, but it should only be recorded by subscripting (subdividing) category six. The present system merely places a teacher direction in the lecturing category

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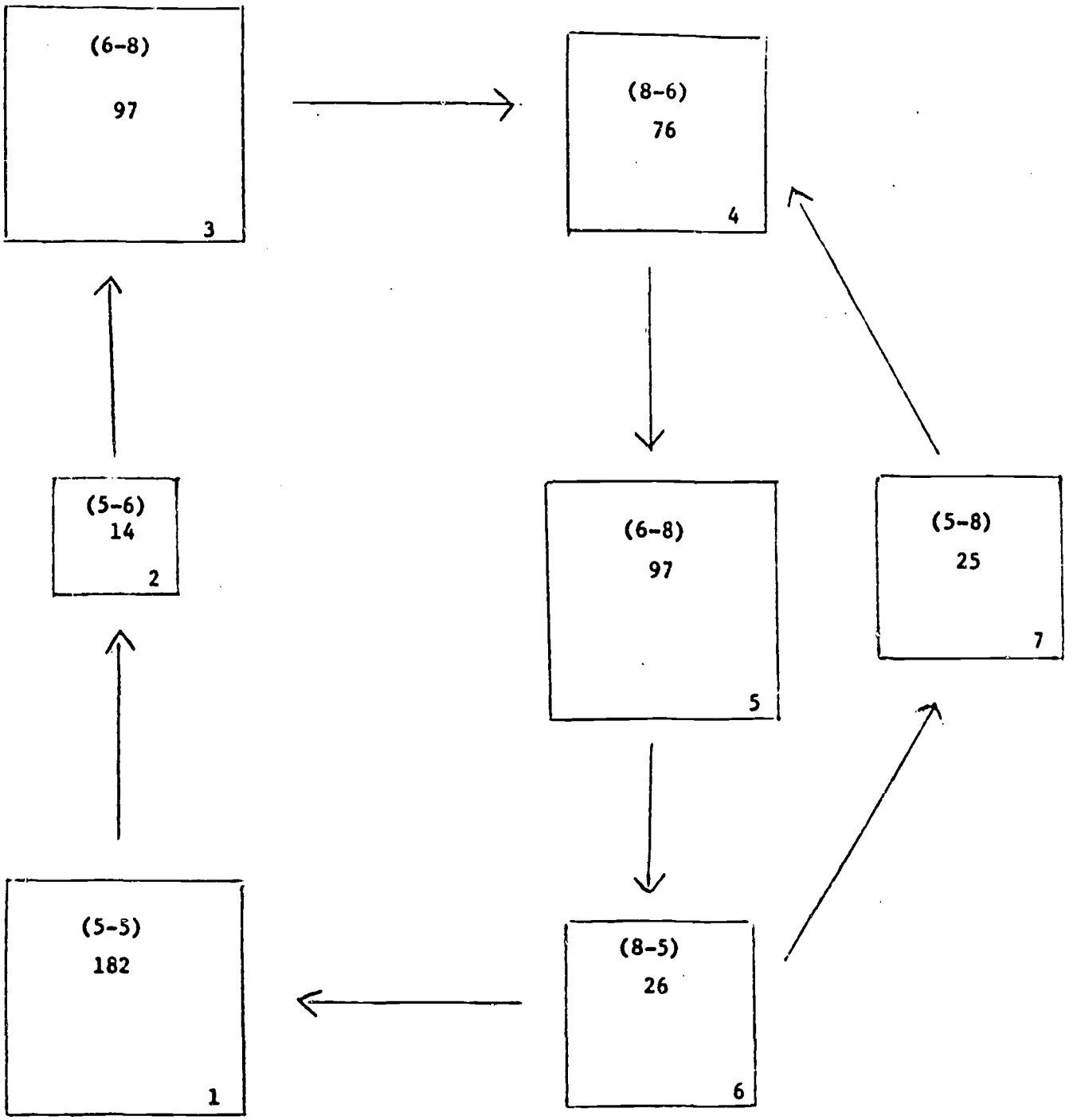
[1]Moskowitz, The Foreign Language Teacher Interacts, p. 12.

BOX FLOW DIAGRAM 2

Teacher Student Interaction Based on
the Secondary Pattern of
Pattern Drills



thereby creating an impossible sequence as previously demonstrated.[1]

At the time the researcher made the observations, he was unaware of this potential problem and therefore recorded such behaviors exactly as Moskowitz prescribed. Consequently, in order to avoid juggling the data, it was necessary to pose a loop in Box Flow Chart 2 which accounts for teacher correction and the student's posterior response. This loop is depicted in box number 7, and, as can be seen, the student's response can be followed by a new stimulus and continuation of the pattern drill.

Just how valid is the box flow diagram as a predictor of what the reader would see were he to enter the room of a Colombian teacher? This is an important consideration and the answer can be found by adding the number of tallies in each box while not repeating any box twice. Since the matrix has been adjusted so as to contain 1,000 tallies, a percentage of the whole for any part of that matrix can be ascertained by simply dividing the total number of tallies in the part by ten. Since the six cells portrayed contain a total of 420 tallies, they represent 42 per cent of the whole. Thus, the observer would have a 42 per cent chance of encountering this type of activity in progress upon arriving in class.

Box Flow Diagram 2 has shown that the primary student teacher interaction flow is based on pattern drill. There is another type of drill which took place, however, which will be referred to as question-

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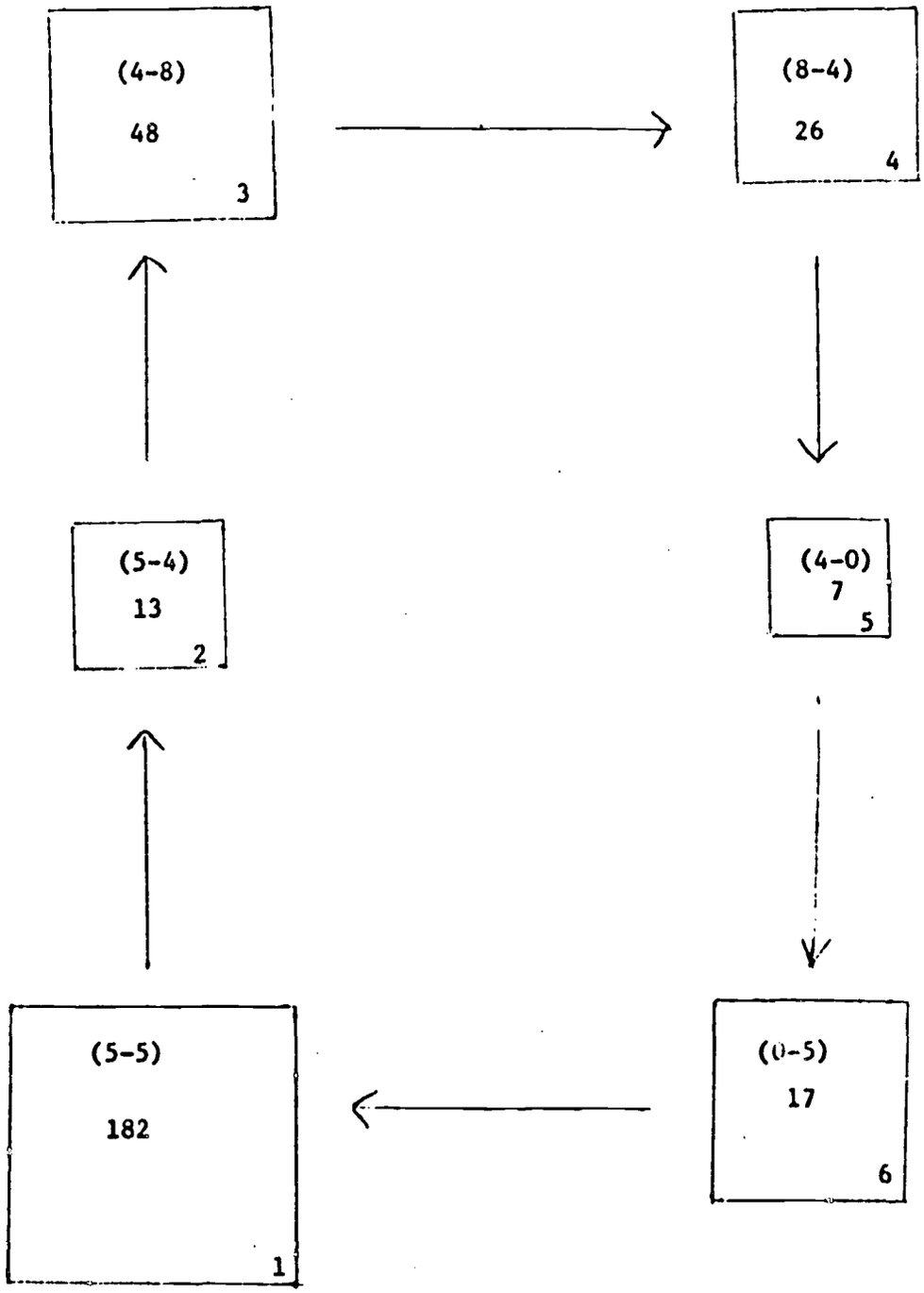
[1]On the other hand it should be stated that this procedure is useful in that it distinguishes correction from providing a new cue, and showed in this study that the Colombian teacher does use frequent correction of incorrect responses in his pattern practices.

BOX FLOW DIAGRAM 3

Teacher Student Interaction Based on the Tertiary Pattern of Question-Answer Drills



answer drill (see page 125). Box Flow Diagram 2 shows 97 instances of pattern drill and Box Flow Diagram 3 shows 48 instances of question-answer drill. Therefore it can be said that student responses in pattern drills outnumber student responses in question-answer drills by about a two to one ratio.

The following is a verbal description of Box Flow Diagram 3.

From the high frequency activity of extended lecturing, the teacher switches to a question requiring a simple answer (5-4-8). The teacher continues to ask additional questions (8-4) until someone does not answer (4-0). Faced with hesitation, the teacher returns to lecturing in an attempt to provide the student with additional information so that he may answer the question correctly on the following attempt (0-5-5).

Some Additional Quantitative Measures

Indirect behaviors not relating to course content

The revised I/D ratio refers to the manner in which the teacher motivates and controls as he teaches the lesson. This ratio is generally found by removing the content categories (4-5) from teacher talk and then dividing categories 1, 2, and 3, by 6 and 7. In the case of the foreign language class, however, this study has shown that category 6 is used considerably to teach the content. Consequently, by deleting category six from the above formula, we get a revised I/D ratio of 2.6. Recently, Flanders developed a Teacher Response Ratio (TRR) which measures the same quality but via the use of a percentage. Accordingly this formula is much more accurate when the denominator is

small.[1] The percentage is derived by totaling the tallies in rows 1, 2, and 3, then multiplying by 100 and dividing by the total of rows 1, 2, 3, and 7. In Colombia, we find a TRR of 72 per cent, meaning that the teacher used indirect speech 72 per cent of the time when not referring to the content. This percentage can be considered a measure of favorable to unfavorable reactions to students.

Frequency of questions in teaching course content

The Teacher Question Ratio analyzes the percentage of questioning the teacher uses in teaching the content as compared with the other two content categories of lecturing and directing. It is derived by dividing the sum of categories 4, 5, and 6 into category 4 and multiplying the result by 100. The data indicates that in Colombia the Teacher Question Ratio is 16 per cent.

Frequency of pattern practice in teaching course content

The Teacher Pattern Ratio (TPR) generates the percentage of pattern drill the teacher uses in teaching the content. It is derived by dividing the sum of categories 4, 5, and 6, into category 6, and multiplying the result by 100. Matrix 1 suggests that in Colombia the TPR is 28 per cent.

Frequency of lecture in teaching course content

The Teacher Lecture Ratio (TLR) shows the percentage of lecture

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[1]Flanders, Analyzing Teaching Behavior, p. 102.

the teacher uses in teaching the content. It is derived by dividing category 5 by the sum of categories 4, 5, and 6 and multiplying the dividend by 100. The sample shows the TLR to be 56 per cent in Colombia. This finding indicates that the majority of the content talk heard by the Colombian student is explanation oriented rather than practice oriented. On the other hand the findings do not indicate that more time is spent on lecture than on practice. Actually practice is 1.48 times more frequent than lecture. This is shown by dividing the amount of lecture into the total of categories 4, 5, 6, 8, and 9, minus cell 5-9 which is a question asked by the student.

Frequency of structured response in student talk

The Pupil Initiation Ratio (PIR) refers to the percentage of unstructured talk by students as compared with all student talk. The index is found by dividing the sum of categories 8 and 9 into category 9. The sample indicates that only 14 per cent of all student talk in Colombia is unstructured.

Teacher use of integrative behavior following student response

The Instantaneous Teacher Response Ratio (TRR89) is defined as the tendency of the teacher to integrate pupil responses into class discussion once the pupil stops talking. Although this is often simply verbal acceptance or repetition of a student's response, Moskowitz points out that the EFL teacher can truly integrate student ideas into the class.[1] Witness the following example which might occur in Colombia.

[1]Moskowitz, The Foreign Language Teacher Interacts, p. 74.

Teacher: What's your favorite dessert, Juan?
Juan: I like bocadillo.
Teacher: Juan's favorite dessert is bocadillo.
What's your favorite dessert, Maria?
Maria: I like marmalade.
Teacher: Maria prefers marmalade.
What's your favorite dessert, Jaime?

According to Flanders the TRR89 ratio is derived by dividing the sum of rows 8 and 9 into the sum of cells 8-1, 8-2, 8-3, 9-1, 9-2, and 9-3, and multiplying the dividend by 100.[1] This procedure however is incorrect since it gives us a figure which would never reach 100 per cent even if the teacher always used integrative behavior following student responses. The reason is that the cells signifying extended student response (8-8, 8-9, 9-8, 9-9) are included in the row totals. Consequently, only in matrices showing no extended student talk could an index of 100 per cent be obtained, and it is doubtful whether such a situation would be desirable. Therefore, it seems useful to posit a new TRR89 formula with a divisor equal to the sum of rows 8 and 9 minus the four previously mentioned extended student response cells. This new formula does not simply list integrative behavior as a percentage of total teacher responses, since the teacher has the option of not responding instantaneously, and thus cells 8-0 and 9-0 are included. Using this formula one finds that after only 18 per cent of all student responses does the teacher use integrative verbal behavior. This is a very low ratio giving the appearance that the teacher is aloof to the manner in which the student responds.

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[1]Flanders, Analyzing Teaching Behavior, pp. 104-105.

Teacher reaction to student response

Since it is now known that the teacher does not use integrative behavior after student responses it might be profitable to consider, category by category, how the teacher does react to student responses. Such information is of definite concern since it is probably the primary factor setting the climate of the classroom.

Category 1, as previously mentioned, was most often used after category 5. In such cases the teacher was reacting to a student behavior he observed visually. Therefore the percentage of category one responses to student talk was 0.

Other indices are as follows.

Category 2	9%
Category 3	9%
Category 4	13%
Category 5	20%
Category 6	36%
Category 7	4%
Category 10	6%

The final index shows that the teacher did not respond at all after 6 per cent of the student responses. Again, these figures support Box Flow Diagrams 2 and 3, indicating that the Colombian teacher generally ignores his students if they respond correctly. Additional calculations show that after a pattern practice initiation (6-8), the sequence continues uninterrupted (8-6) 79 per cent of the time. Nearly the same can be said regarding question-answer drill (4-8) which continues uninterrupted (8-4) 54 per cent of the time.

Correction, on the other hand, seems to be quite frequent. By summing cells 5-8 and 8-7 and dividing by row 8, we find that category

8 responses are corrected at least 16 per cent of the time. It should be noted, however, that correction is probably slightly more frequent in Colombia since some correction behaviors would be coded as sixes and consequently cannot be distinguished from pattern practice. For example, if a student pronounced the word "his" as [his], and the teacher then replied "Say [hiz]," followed by an appropriate student response, a 6-8-6 sequence would be recorded. The writer recalls, however, that such sequences were infrequent, and could they be distinguished, they would not raise the correction index more than one or two per cent.

Student hesitation before response

It is interesting to consider how often students have to hesitate before answering a question. Such an action would indicate an instance where the teacher progressed too fast and posed a question before the student was readily capable of answering it. This information can be obtained by dividing cell 4-0 by row four and cell 6-0 by row six. The formula demonstrates that in Colombia 10 per cent of teacher questions are followed by silence while 11 per cent of teacher cues during pattern practice are followed by silence.[1]

By dividing the sum of cells 4-0 and 6-0 into cell 0-8, and multiplying by 100, one can ascertain how often the student was able to respond to the question after hesitation. The figures in Matrix 1 indicate

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[1]Freda M. Holley and Janet K. King offer some evidence that the low amount of hesitation following elicitation in Colombian classrooms may be detrimental to the language acquisition process in "Imitation and Correction in Foreign Language Learning," Modern Language Journal, Vol. 55, No. 8 (December, 1971), pp. 494-498.

that in Colombia the student is able to respond after hesitation 48 per cent of the time. This means that only one in twenty responses (5 per cent) were not responded to at all. Although there are no established statistics on which to base a comparison, it is the writer's belief that this index is lower than normal for secondary schools in this country where students are frequently caught inattentive and consequently do not answer. Thus it seems that the Colombian student generally pays close attention to the teacher as he conducts the class.

How English Teaching Varies According to Level

Due to the fact that only five classes were observed at each level it is not possible to generalize by level since no attempt was made to apply the variables used in selection by level. On the other hand one would expect that clear differences in methodology do exist by level as the student increases in linguistic ability. For this reason it was decided to place the ten first- and second-year classes into a group designated "beginning," and the ten fifth- and sixth-year classes into a group designated "advanced." The data for these two groups were again analyzed by computer and composite millage matrices were returned. The composite millage matrix was used anew, so that each class would have equal voice in the resulting model.

A model for analysis

Smith has elaborated a strategy of speaking and writing skill development generally accepted by foreign language educators based on three levels of instruction. These are: (1) a controlled, mechanical

MATRIX 3

COMPOSITE MILLAGE MATRIX OF TEN
FIRST AND SECOND LEVEL
CLASSES

Beginning Classes

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
2	0	0	2	11	4	7	0	1	15	3	44
3	0	4	0	3	4	2	0	3	0	0	16
4	0	1	0	5	5	1	0	58	3	3	78
5	0	0	0	13	145	15	1	24	8	20	226
6	0	1	0	3	4	11	1	112	2	27	160
7	0	0	0	1	4	7	8	3	0	2	25
8	1	23	9	32	30	88	10	12	0	16	221
9	0	10	4	1	10	2	1	0	4	5	37
10	0	4	0	9	23	25	4	7	3	116	191
Total	1	44	16	79	227	158	25	221	35	192	

MATRIX 4

COMPOSITE MILEAGE MATRIX OF TEN
FIFTH AND SIXTH LEVEL
CLASSES

Advanced Classes

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	0	1	1	1	2	3	0	2	0	2	12
3	0	2	1	12	5	2	0	3	3	1	29
4	0	1	0	5	2	0	0	52	4	10	73
5	0	1	0	10	212	10	1	24	6	11	275
6	0	0	0	0	3	5	1	124	1	4	139
7	0	0	0	1	1	5	3	3	1	3	18
8	0	5	23	33	31	104	8	35	2	5	247
9	0	2	4	2	8	1	3	0	4	2	26
10	0	1	0	9	11	7	2	4	3	144	181
Total	0	12	29	73	275	136	18	248	26	182	

level; (2) a semicontrolled level; and (3) a level of free expression.[1] Such a strategy implies a distinct difference in instructional techniques between the beginning and advanced levels. Since it has already been established that the Colombian teacher uses an audio-lingual approach to instruction, a comparison between these levels in an effort to discover gross differences seems appropriate.

Variation in writing

Consideration of cell 0-0 in Matrices 3 and 4 shows no great variation in the amount of writing done at each level. Consequently, this one factor which could conceivably have affected the percentage of other behaviors in the matrix poses no problem. Writing represents about 12 per cent of a beginning level class and about 14 per cent of an advanced class.

Variation in student talk

Translating Smith's model into a matrix, one would expect to find considerably more student talk at the advanced level. That is, the teacher would no longer have to model responses for the student nor fashion student responses in such a highly structured manner. Yet consideration of the two matrices shows that student talk composed 25.8 per cent of the beginning level classes and 27.3 per cent of the advanced classes: a difference of 1.5 per cent. The differences in the quantity of teacher talk are even smaller. At the beginning levels

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[1]Alfred N. Smith, "Strategies of Instruction for Speaking and Writing," in The Britannica Review of Foreign Language Education, ed. by Dale Lange (Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc. 1970), p. 113.

the teacher is talking 55 per cent of the class and at the advanced levels he talks 54.6 per cent. Thus, no real differences in student talk are apparent.

Variation in pattern practice

Again applying Smith's proposal, one would expect that at the mechanical level of teaching, more 6-8, and 8-6 sequences would be used than at the advanced level of free expression. The matrices show 112 6-8's and 88 8-6's at the beginning level, and 124 6-8's and 104 8-6's at the advanced level. Thus it appears that the Colombian teacher never really proceeds beyond the mechanical level of instruction.

Interaction analysis is an excellent tool for distinguishing between the mechanical and the free expression levels of Smith's theory. Mechanical responses are recorded as category 8 while unstructured responses having more than one possible answer are recorded as category 9. If, after five years of exposure, the teacher believes the students are capable of performing without having to structure their responses, we would expect to see more category 9 entries on an advanced matrix than on a beginning one. However, this was not true of the sample. Row nine of Matrix 3 contains 37 entries while row 9 of Matrix 4 contains only 26. Again, one encounters no difference in methodology across levels.

Variation in criticism

One favorable aspect of the comparison is the finding that the teacher does not feel it necessary to use as much criticism at the advanced level. On the other hand, the teacher continues to criticize

the student most often for his answer to a question rather than for his behavior (cell 8-7).

Variation in lecture

Cell 5-5 shows that the teacher is using more extended lecture at the advanced level. This may be favorable, however, if it is done in the foreign language.

Variation in integrative behavior

The sums of rows one, two, and three, indicate that the teacher is using about 1/3 less integrative behavior at the advanced level than at the beginning. Cells 8-2 and 9-2 show the primary drop to be in the use of praise after student responses in Matrix 4. On the other hand, the use of student ideas (cells 8-3 and 9-3) seems to increase with level. Moskowitz has stated that the same trend exists in this country since advanced students are more capable of expressing their own ideas.[1]

Continued teacher directness is also evident in cells 4-8 and 4-9 which contain similar frequencies at both levels. This again shows that the teacher is not moving from directing to questioning as the student's increased ability would permit.

Variation in extended student talk

Conversely, an improvement is seen in extended student talk (cells 8-8, 8-9, 9-8, and 9-9), which seems to be at least twice as common at the advanced level. Particularly loaded is the 8-8 cell which represents a fixed response of longer than three seconds. As

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[1]Moskowitz, The Foreign Language Teacher Interacts, pp. 74-75.

stated earlier, reference to the tally sheets shows that this is caused by the students reading out loud or by the teacher asking a question which involves restatement or repetition of material just read. Undoubtedly, however, a few of these extended category eight sequences could refer to the more advanced type of pattern drills done at this level such as transformation and multiple correlation.[1]

Variation in hesitation

A significant difference to appear in the matrices can be found in cell 6-0. Here hesitation after a teacher direction is shown to be considerably less frequent at the advanced level than at the beginning. Thus it seems that advanced students are having no trouble with manipulative type exercises and could therefore handle more challenging material.

On the other hand, hesitation after questions (4-0) is much more common at the advanced level, thus indicating that the difficulty of questions increases with level while the difficulty of pattern practice decreases.

Conclusions

In summarizing the treatment of methodological differences by level, it must be said that on the whole no real differences exist.

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[1]Some examples of these may be found in "The Continuum: Listening and Speaking," Simon Belasco, chairman of the working committee, in Language Learning: The Intermediate Phase (Philadelphia: The Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Inc., 1963), pp. 6-9.

The advanced level teacher seems to be talking just as much, using just as much pattern practice, just as much direct behavior, just as many question answer drills, and receiving just as few original responses as his counterpart at the beginning level. Apparently, the students are not attaining the level of free expression posited by Smith. The advanced teacher may be encouraging free expression by reacting more frequently to student ideas, but his questions are just as specific. If the Colombian student is to gain the ability to speak English in exchange for his six years of effort, he must be allowed to speak the language in communicative situations. At present it appears that new-key methodology has had only a superficial effect on the student. He is getting plenty of oral practice in pronunciation and grammar through the artificial context of contrived drills, but little opportunity to use authentic linguistic behavior, which is both meaningful and communicative. The initial reaction to audio-lingualism in Colombia resembles that which occurred in the United States. The teacher has substituted productive for receptive skills in his objectives, but he lacks the training necessary to cultivate them fully. Unless a massive program of inservice training is initiated, students and teachers alike will soon find the audio-lingual approach just as stultifying as its ancestor, the traditional approach.

CHAPTER V

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL

The English Teacher in Colombia

Number

It has already been established that an estimated 25,787 secondary teachers are presently teaching in Colombia (see Chapter II, p. 24). Among them some 11,000 teach in public schools and the remainder in private. The National Planning Office of the Ministry of Education has estimated that in 1970 there were 733,257 students enrolled in the secondary schools.[1] If this figure is correct, and if it is assumed that the previous estimate of 350 students per teacher is also fairly accurate, then some 2,000 teachers are employed teaching English. This figure is derived by dividing the average number of pupils per teacher (350) into 700,000, which is the corrected estimated total number of secondary students taking English.[2]

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[1] Secretaría de Educación y Cultura, II asamblea nacional de capacitación del magisterio, p. 20.

[2] It must be remembered that 700,000 is less than the total number of students because advanced students in INEM's and those in the advanced cycle of normal school do not take English. Also, the estimate of 2,000 English teachers indicates that there are over 3,000 full time English positions in the country, since it was previously shown that 63 per cent of the nation's presently employed teachers also hold part time jobs at other schools. This was taken into consideration in deriving the average number of pupils per teacher.

It is interesting to note that if Colombia attains the projected 1974 secondary enrollment of 1,138,537, an additional 1,200 English teachers will be needed by that date.[1]

Educational background

The educational background of the Colombian teacher varies considerably according to the urban-rural setting and the administrative structure of the school (national, departmental, or municipal). Nationally, the following figures are available. Eight and one-half per cent of the secondary teachers in public schools do not have a high school degree. Thirteen and one-half per cent have a university degree or licenciatura. The remainder (68 per cent) have high school degrees only, with the most frequent degree being the normalista (normal school), which is held by 33 per cent of the work force.[2] It is assumed that the English teacher conforms to this description, thus indicating the need for programs of in-service training throughout the country.

Upon considering the fact that the average English teacher has only a high school education, one wonders where he acquires his language skills and methodology. It must be remembered, of course, that this person has studied English for six years in high school and probably has done very well in it. In addition, he may also take courses at one of the binational centers, where he sometimes receives

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[1]Secretaría de Educación y Cultura, II asamblea nacional de capacitación del magisterio, p. 20.

[2]Computed from statistics in ibid., p. 18.

a discount in tuition (depending on the financial capabilities of the center), or at a private language institute. There is also the cinema, which is probably the preferred national pastime. Concerning culture, the international wire services carry daily information on events in the United States which the English teacher probably follows with greater interest than the average citizen. It must be stated, however, that all of these facilities portray a passive exposure to English rather than an active one. Few Colombian English teachers take advantage of the opportunity to converse with foreigners as evidenced by the fact that only four of the thirty interviewed attempted to speak in English.

Social status

The social status of the Colombian high school teacher is another problem plaguing efforts to bring university graduates into the profession. Salary is probably the chief cause of this problem since few secondary teachers can maintain a middle class life style without taking an extra job in their spare time. The low prestige accorded teachers in Colombia has been mentioned by many authors, including Renner and Gale, and is evidenced by the fact that whenever there is a decline in government revenues, teachers are the first public employees not to receive their pay. Nonetheless, this situation is more acute for primary teachers who are often regarded with little more esteem than a street laborer.[1] Early in 1966 the writer witnessed a

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[1]Gale, Education and Development in Latin America, pp. 45, 61, and 107.

protest of this policy by 10,000 Colombian teachers in downtown Bogotá. They marched through the streets in orderly columns which extended over five miles. Although the public was impressed and politicians made eloquent speeches about the merit of their demands, the practice continues.

The lack of political power held by teachers perpetuates the situation. As public employees, teachers are not permitted to serve in leadership positions in political parties, nor may they speak or publish on political themes. As a result, the national teacher's organization, FEDECOR, has been largely unable to achieve its objectives.[1] The prospective English teacher is faced with these unfavorable professional conditions.

Salary

The salary of a Colombian high school teacher depends on several factors. Teachers who work in national schools generally earn more than those in departmental schools. Likewise, those in departmental schools earn more than those in municipal schools, with the exception of the municipal schools of the special district of Bogotá. Table 10 depicts the salaries of teachers in national secondary schools.[2]

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[1] Renner, Education in Colombia, pp. 282-284.

[2] Olivenio Acevedo, Chief of Supervision of the Department of Personnel, private interview, Ministry of Education, Bogotá, Colombia, July 27, 1971.

TABLE 10

MONTHLY EARNINGS OF TEACHERS IN NATIONAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY CATEGORY

Category 1.	3,000 pesos
Category 2.	2,320 pesos
Category 3.	2,090 pesos
Category 4.	1,860 pesos
Without Category	1,690 pesos

Note: One dollar equals approximately 20 pesos.

The salaries of departmental teachers varies according to the wealth of the department. In 1969, the department offering the greatest remuneration was Cundinamarca, while Caldas offered the least among those reporting such data to the ministry. (About half did not report any data.) These regional differences are portrayed in Table 11.[1]

TABLE 11

MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM EARNINGS OF TEACHERS IN DEPARTMENTAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY DEPARTMENT AND CATEGORY

	Cundinamarca	Caldas
Category 1.	2,850 pesos	1,897 pesos
Category 2.	2,350 pesos	1,713 pesos
Category 3.	2,000 pesos	1,518 pesos
Category 4.	1,800 pesos	1,391 pesos
Without Category	1,600 pesos	1,219 pesos

[1]Data based on figures provided by the departmental secretariats of education and copied from the files of the Office of Planning, Ministry of Education, Bogotá, Colombia, July 27, 1971.

In judging the difference in salary between national and departmental schools, one must consider the factor of vacation pay. Only national teachers are paid for 12 months. Departmental teachers are usually paid for ten months and receive no vacation salary.[1] Consequently, they must look for other sources of income during their "vacation."

Teachers earning less than 1,500 pesos monthly are entitled to reimbursement for half their transportation fares, to and from work, if they live in a city having a population of 75,000 or more. This is minor, however, as intra-city bus fares in Colombia average less than U.S. $0.03 per ride. Hospital and medical services are covered under the national social security program. Pregnant women are entitled to eight weeks paid leave by national law. Christmas bonuses are also generous and vary between 1,000 and 1,300 pesos.[2]

Throughout discussions with teachers, shortages of funds have recurred as a source of discontent. One of the teachers visited at a rural school, was receiving an elementary teacher's salary. When the Secretariat of Education of the Department of Santander ran short of funds, it was decided to pay all rural teachers according to the elementary escalafón. This meant an income of about 1,000 pesos per month (U.S. $50.00), or nearly a 40 per cent reduction in anticipated salary.

By comparison, INEM teachers earn considerably higher salaries.

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[1] Renner, Education in Colombia, p. 279.

[2] Varner, Secondary Education in Colombia, p. 12.

Since these teachers must have a licenciatura, they all are in either the first or second category of the escalafón. In 1971, second category teachers earned 4,220 pesos per month while first category teachers earned 4,900. Department chairmen received 5,100 pesos per month, or about U.S. $255.00. In spite of these excellent salaries, some INEM teachers complain that they do not make enough. They feel that the Ministry should either pay them more or let them hold second jobs like other teachers.

The high salaries offered by INEM's have permitted them to attract the best teachers available, often obtaining them from other schools. This, of course, has caused some jealousy among other principals, who feel that such behavior is nothing short of piracy.[1]

Work load

Article 11 of Decree No. 486 of 1962 defines a full load as being a minimum of 21 hours weekly. Article 12 of the same decree defines the hour as a 50 minute class.[2] Thus, at first glance it would seem that the Colombian teacher has a lighter work load than his North American counterpart. However, further investigation reveals that this is not so.

Question 7 of the questionnaire "The English Classroom" (Appendix II) is designed to gather data on the Colombian English teacher.

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[1]Referred to at a seminar for national INEM programmers, Ministry of Education, Bogotá, Colombia, July 2, 1971.

[2]Colombia, President, Decree "Horas semanales de trabajo," No. 486 of 1962, Articles 11 and 12, Régimen de educación media, by Rosillo Jacomé, pp. 65-66.

It is divided into four parts, the first of which asks "Do you currently hold another job, either full or part time?" The answers received portray the typical English teacher as a very hard-working and ambitious individual.

Twenty of the thirty teachers (67 per cent) interviewed held another job. Three of the teachers had two jobs, and one had three. The number of extra hours taught ranged from 4 to 22 with a mean overtime load of 11.05 classes per week. One-sixth (5) of the teachers were also taking courses, four of them for the licenciatura. Two of these four were among those having a second job in addition.

Although Article 11, mentioned above, defines the minimum full-time work load, it does not define the maximum. As a result, tradition permits the director of each school to decide how many hours his teachers will work. The full time load of the teachers interviewed ranged from 19 to 28 hours per week, with a mean load of 23.5 hours. Since a mean overtime of 11.05 hours was also found, it can be concluded that two-thirds of the sample teach an average of 35 hours per week. This is about ten hours more than the American teacher. Thus the sample portrays the average Colombian English teacher as teaching 35 classes per week with a mean of 38.5 students per class (see Chapter II, p. 49).

Teaching experience

Item 7b of the questionnaire asks the question "How many years experience do you have teaching English?" As could be expected, there was considerable variation in the responses. The mean years of experience was 6.4. However, this figure was somewhat skewed by one

teacher with 38 years experience. The next highest response was 16 years. Therefore, if 38 is deleted from the distribution, a mean of 5.3 years is derived. This may be a more nearly correct estimate since the mode was 4 years and included five teachers. Six of the teachers had 10 or more years experience. Therefore, it is seen that there is a fairly large turnover in the field and that for many teaching is not considered a life-time profession. (Incidentally, this is one of the basic problems with foreign language teaching in the United States.)

Foreign Residence

In reviewing teacher training in the United States, Altman and Weiss state, "Study abroad as part of preservice training has become almost a sine qua non." A required junior year abroad has even been advocated for certification.[1]

Although it is generally considered extraordinary for the Colombian teacher to have resident experience in an English speaking country, 30 per cent (9) of the teachers interviewed did. This would indicate that perhaps a larger percentage of teachers than most people think have had this experience. The length of each stay varied from 4 1/2 months to six years. Five of the teachers had been in the United States, two had been in the Canal Zone, one was born on the English speaking island of Providence and had spent 15 summers there with

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[1]Howard B. Altman and Louis Weiss, "Recent Developments in the Training and Certification of the Foreign Language Teacher," in The Britannica Review of Foreign Language Education, ed. by Dale Lange (Chicago: The Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc., 1970), p. 241.

relatives, and one had spent six years with her parents in England.

The median foreign experience was one year and it was found that teachers remaining this long abroad as adults usually worked. One teacher had spent a year as a laborer in the Panama Canal Zone and two others had taught Spanish in American high schools as exchange teachers. Short trips to the United States were spent visiting relatives in Miami or New York.

In summary, it can be stated that foreign travel is not within the means of the average Colombian English teacher. Nonetheless, a minority of the teachers have acquired this background either through childhood travel, short visits with relatives, or work abroad.

Professional Competencies of the Colombian English Teacher

Methodology

In order to gather information on the competencies of the Colombian English teacher, the researcher translated the set of standards developed by the Modern Language Association of America for classifying foreign language teachers.[1] Before using the evaluation sheet in the field, it was tested for clarity with two members of the staff of the Colombian-American Linguistic Institute. The standards include ratings of "minimal," "good," and "superior" in seven areas which are considered basic to the preparation of a foreign language

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[1]The translation was certified correct and accurate by Gustavo Azuero, former chief translator for the U.S. Embassy in Bogotá. (See Appendix III)

teacher. The areas include aural understanding of the foreign language, speaking, reading, writing, language analysis, culture, and professional preparation.[1] In order to allow for those teachers who did not meet the minimal rating, a fourth category, "sub-minimal," was created.

During the interview with each teacher following the observation, the researcher asked the teacher to read the questionnaire and rate himself accordingly with a pencil. This was done in the presence of the researcher. In order to ascertain the accuracy of the self evaluations, a committee of experts was formulated. This committee consisted of ten people and included supervisors, administrators, teacher trainers, and other individuals who had particular reason to be knowledgeable about the competencies of Colombian English teachers. Each member of the committee of experts was asked to pretend he was rating the average Colombian English teacher, and not those directly under his supervision. The name and position of committee members are presented in Appendix IV.

In order to quantify the responses a scale was devised by assigning one point for a rating of "superior," two for "good," three for "minimal," and four points for "sub-minimal." In this way it was possible to ascertain (a) which skills teachers consider to be their strongest, (b) which skills they consider to be their weakest, (c) if the teachers rated themselves accurately.

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[1] Modern Language Association of America, "Appendix B, Guidelines for Teacher Education Programs in Modern Foreign Languages: An Exposition," The Modern Language Journal, Vol. 50, No. 6 (October, 1966), pp. 50-52.

Findings

Table 12 represents the rating of the teachers in descending rank order, and the ratings of the committee of experts. As might be expected, there was not a great deal of agreement between the two groups, although a slight positive correlation was found. For this reason, it is not possible to devise a rank ordering of these skills even for the sample selected. One can only speculate as to whether there would be a higher correlation between the committee and the teachers if the number of subjects in each group were doubled. The writer does feel, however, that the committee of experts included the five most knowledgeable people on the subject in the country.

In analyzing the results, similarities in the ratings of the two groups will be described. It should be remembered however that teachers rated themselves higher on all skills than the committee of experts.

Both the teachers and the committee agreed that the English teacher's weakest skill is speaking. This is probably due to the lack of access to foreign travel. Teachers rated themselves as fluent enough to satisfy their classroom needs and defend themselves in a foreign country, but not good enough to carry on a lengthy conversation with a native speaker. On the other hand, the committee of experts classified the teachers as having slightly less than the minimal ability described above, which includes prepared classroom talks and survival abroad.

TABLE 12

RESPONSES OF TEACHERS AND THE COMMITTEE OF EXPERTS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE ON PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCIES OF ENGLISH TEACHERS BY MEAN RATING AND RANK

	Teacher Rating		Committee Rating	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
Professional Preparation	3.0	1	2.5	3
Writing	2.8	2	2.3	4.5
Language Analysis	2.76	3	2.3	4.5
Reading	2.73	4	2.7	1.5
Aural Comprehension	2.70	5	2.1	6
Culture	2.66	6	2.7	1.5
Speaking	2.63	7	1.9	7

Notable agreement was expressed by the two groups in the field of professional preparation, which was ranked first by the teachers and third by the committee. This corroborates the hypothesis developed in Chapter 3 that the Colombian English teacher is at least basically familiar with recent developments in methodology. The principal difference in the opinion of the two groups lies in the application of pedagogical knowledge. Whereas the teachers feel they can apply such information to the classroom, as well as relate languages to other areas of the curriculum and utilize audio-visual aids, the experts only concede that they have information on these techniques.

A third subject on which there was general agreement is aural

comprehension, which was rated fifth by the teachers and sixth by the committee. This closely parallels achievement in the speaking skill as would be expected, since all learners must hear a language before beginning to speak it. English films must be a definite assist here even though only four of the teachers stated they could understand them. Thus it is concluded that the Colombian English teacher performs better with language in its artificial representation (reading and writing) than in its natural state (listening and speaking).

Problems Confronting Colombian English Teachers

The myriad problems facing the Colombian English teacher today are considered in this section. Most of the information herein was obtained from the responses to Question 7d of the questionnaire "The English Classroom." The question is: "What do you consider to be the chief problems of the teacher of English in Colombian public colegios?" Although it is difficult to quantify such an open ended question, the writer felt such a question was necessary, since preliminary data required for structuring questions on these problems was not available. One of the purposes of the question was to find out what were the problems of the individual teacher. It was believed, however, that some teachers might be reluctant to identify these problems due to the fear of retaliation from an embarrassed superior. Accordingly, the nature of the question served to put the teacher at ease, allowing him to speak from personal experience.

Many of the problems facing teachers are alluded to in other sections of the study. They are also mentioned here in order to depict

some of the attitudes and the situation of this group. Also represented are many of the solutions which were voluntarily suggested. A description will be made of problems not previously outlined in the text.

The teachers' responses were recorded by the interviewer on the questionnaire. Often the interview took place between classes, and sometimes lasted no more than five minutes. The average interview lasted between five and fifteen minutes, with part of this time being spent on the self evaluation. The average number of problems listed per teacher was four. The following account is a description of the problems mentioned by the teachers interviewed.

Large classes

Ten of the thirty teachers interviewed named large classes a major problem facing the Colombian English teacher today. One of the teachers reported having 340 students while teaching only 24 hours at a single school. As previously mentioned, this again indicates that the pupil-teacher ratio is much higher than prior treatments of the subject have indicated.[1] Varner, for instance, states the secondary pupil-teacher ratio is only 13 to 1, while this writer selected a sample with a ratio of 38 to 1.[2] Apparently, either the previous studies were incorrect, or the situation has changed enormously in the past six years.

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[1]Colombia, Ministerio de Educación Nacional, Proyecto institutos de educación media: plan nacional, p. 7.

[2]Varner, Secondary Education in Colombia, pp. 34 and 39-42.

Articulation

Five teachers mentioned the lack of coordination from one level to the next. This is due to the fact that each teacher within a school is totally independent and may choose his own text or teach via his own methods. Generally, departmentalization does not exist in Colombia except in the larger schools, and as a result the concept of a curriculum development committee is largely unknown. Even where departmentalization does exist, it is difficult to get teachers together to discuss articulation since most are teaching at other schools also. Even less coordination exists between schools and the concept of local or citywide meetings for language teachers is completely unknown. In spite of the frequent blasts condemning the Ministry of Education's curriculum guide for English, there would be virtually no articulation in Colombia without it.

Lack of materials

The most frequent complaint dealt with the lack of audio-visual aids and other supplemental teaching materials. Twenty (2/3) of the teachers mentioned this problem. One teacher stated that in small towns there is not money to buy even cardboard for posters. This impression is generally corroborated by the director of ILCA, who, by the very nature of his position, has had more exposure to English teachers than anyone in the country. Acosta states that the audio-visual aids are lacking in all except the largest schools.[1]

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[1]Hugo Acosta Cadena, director of the Colombian-American Linguistic Institute, private tape recorded interview, Bogotá, August 17, 1971.

In spite of the constancy of these complaints, there is reason to believe that teachers would not use these aids were they available. Only two of the teachers observed were employing them and both of these were at INEM's. In Bogota, one of the INEM teachers stated that only 4 out of 18 teachers had requested the A-V specialist to produce special materials, and as was previously mentioned, 9 of the 22 teachers having access to A-V equipment admitted never using it.

Inspection

Two teachers complained about inspection. One complaint was that inspectors knew nothing about language teaching and consequently could not be of help. The other teacher criticized the department head for not allowing any difference of opinion. One former high school teacher has charged that teachers often are expected to give parties for visiting inspectors, although no evidence was found that the practice still continues.[1]

Poor pay

Four teachers complained of poor pay. Among the comments made in elaboration was the fact that a teacher with two jobs does not have the time to prepare interesting lessons. Another impression was that such teachers never get to know their students or help them after class. It was also mentioned that current salaries destroy any hope of traveling abroad to develop language skills. Finally, it was stated that the salary schedule causes teachers to feel like second class

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[1]Antonio Navarrete, "La enseñanza de idiomas extranjeros en Colombia" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Texas, 1970), p. 41.

citizens and the rest of the public to consider them as such.

Books

There were six complaints voiced about books. Four of the teachers said that books were too expensive for the students to buy, one said they were too difficult, and another said those available were no good. One teacher believed that the U.S. government was interested in English teaching so that it could make money off the sale of textbooks. At least one member of the committee of experts suspected this, also.[1]

The curriculum guide

Three teachers complained about the Ministry of Education's curriculum guide for English. One stated that by telling the teacher what to cover each year, the guide ignores the existence of differences in student ability from one class to the next or between schools. Another criticism was that the guide forces the teacher to give the students more work than they can learn. It should be considered that the teacher making this comment taught at a school where classes are only 35 minutes long. A third complaint was that the guide places too much emphasis on the teaching of grammar. As a result a large portion of the class is taught in Spanish resulting in little time left for pronunciation and conversation.

Discipline

Three teachers complained of discipline problems with students.

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[1]Acosta Cadena, private interview, op. cit.

Another said that students tend to rate teachers on the grades they give. A teacher who fails few students is considered good, while one who fails many is considered bad. The writer found no evidence which could corroborate this assertion.

The INEM philosophy regarding discipline parallels the democratic policy of mixing social classes. If a teacher in an ordinary colegio dislikes a student's conduct, he may order him out of the class for good. If the student is disrespectful to the teacher, he faces possible expulsion from school. In the American style INEM's, however, the situation is reversed. Students are only expelled for committing a crime such as vandalism or robbery. Cheating, disruption, and insubordination are matters which must be settled within the building, generally by the teacher. As a result, one of the INEM teachers observed complained that the administration does not support the teacher, causing discipline to deteriorate. A subsequent casual conversation with a group of teachers in the cafeteria revealed that other subject areas at INEM's are facing this problem also. Nevertheless, Bogota teachers admit that the situation improved somewhat during the school's second year of operation.

In an effort to improve student discipline, the Ministry of Education included as part of the recently passed Decree 1085, of June 8, 1971, a regulation requiring INEM students who fail three or more subjects to repeat the entire year. Most teachers felt that this measure would help rectify the discipline situation.

Professionalization

Sixteen of the thirty teachers complained about teacher training

programs. Six of the complaints dealt with the lack of in-service training. Generally the blame is placed on the Colombian government. Several of the teachers interviewed and many other spoken to during the study regretted the decline in support of ILCA and the closing of all its branches outside of the capital.

Five teachers mentioned university teacher training programs. One of these said they were of poor quality, while another stated that they did not provide training in oral-aural skills. A third said that since they did not employ audio-lingual techniques in teaching or use visual aids, the student has no good models on which to base his teaching. A fourth teacher mentioned the lack of specialized degree programs in English teaching. The only favorable remark heard dealt with the efforts of the Universidad Industrial de Santander to assist the English teachers of Bucaramanga. Perhaps it is significant that two of the five teachers studying at universities were attending the Industrial University of Santander. A fifth teacher complained that the cost of university classes was too high, in spite of the fact that federal regulations permit a limited number (two per school) of teachers to receive tuition waivers and reimbursement of travel expenses for courses taken.[1] Apparently, this teacher was either unaware of these scholarships or they are not accessible at all schools.

Four teachers complained of the lack of opportunity for educational travel. One teacher said that the government should help language

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[1]Ministerio de Educación Nacional, División de Capacitación del Magisterio, Capacitación del magisterio (Bogotá: Imprenta Nacional, 1970), pp. 63-66.

teachers by providing grants and loans, instead of discouraging such travel by requiring the posting of a bond as is presently done. It should be pointed out, however, that the government does provide loans and partial grants through ICETEX (see Chapter 2).

Three people stated that teachers generally were not well prepared, either in language or methodology. This opinion, particularly its first premise, was frequently supported by other educational personnel encountered throughout the country.

Miscellaneous comments

In spite of the fact that Colombian teachers rated their professional competencies higher than the committee of experts, they made several miscellaneous comments indicating they are also critical of their colleagues. Two teachers included laziness as a major national problem, and two others said teachers are traditional. One said that English pronunciation was hard to master while two made reference to the general lack of speaking ability. Another complained that teachers do not try to befriend students.

One teacher complained about the regularity of English classes saying they should be offered five times per week instead of three. He felt that students forget a lot between classes and that intensification would assist in rectifying the problem.

Two teachers complained about the number of classes it is necessary to teach in order to be considered full time. Since the number is normally less than that required in the United States as previously shown, the writer believes this should not be a matter of concern. Nonetheless, the number of classes required of a full-time Colombian

teacher is not below that of most other Latin-American countries.

Prestige was mentioned by one teacher who was also studying at the university. She stated that schools of education are held in low esteem by students, and the majority of their graduates are students who have transferred after realizing they could not succeed in their first faculty.

The final miscellaneous complaint made by a teacher deals with the policy of putting the best and most highly qualified teachers in the advanced courses while the beginning level teacher often lacks a high school degree. Acosta also includes this among major national problems.[1] The result of such a policy is that the 11 year old student is given the teacher with the least command of the English language in spite of the fact that he is more capable of imitating the pronunciation of a fluent teacher than his older comrades.

Students

Twenty-one teachers mentioned students when describing the problems of the English teacher. Nine of them (30 per cent) said that they are not motivated to learn English. Several explications were enumerated for their lack of motivation, including: "They don't like languages," "They don't consider English to be important," "They prefer math and science," and "They don't like pronunciation." However, the most frequently stated reason for this phenomenon was anti-Americanism, which was mentioned by four teachers and nearly everyone on the committee of experts.

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[1] Acosta Cadena, private interview, op. cit.

This attitude seems to cause considerable problems to English teachers both inside the classroom and out. They mention that many students feel English teaching is just another example of American cultural imperialism toward Latin America. As a result, the teacher is faced with negative attitudes toward the course before the year even begins. In the writer's experience, this assertion is not without foundation, for he was insulted for his nationality by male students at more than one colegio.

On the other hand, this resistance to the language can be overcome. Vanegas says that students soon begin to like English if they like their teacher. She recommends that teachers explain to their students the role of English as an international language.[1] This same approach is being taken by Editorial Voluntad, the company which is publishing the Alexander series, New Concept English for Colombia. All pictures which are indicative of a particular country have been deleted from the book. In one case, an English policeman's uniform was changed so that he would not be recognized as a guard of Buckingham Palace. The goal of the publisher is to create conversational situations useful to the traveler desirous of using English as a means of communication or lingua franca in any country of the western world.[2]

A private school English teacher interviewed by the writer stated that anti-Americanism is also existent among teachers of other subjects.

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[1]Gladys Vanegas, head of the English department of the Instituto Nacional de Educación Media Diversificada, private interview, Bogotá, July 9, 1971.

[2]Gastón de Bedout, Deputy Director for Planning of Editorial Voluntad, private interview, Bogotá, August 7, 1971.

These people also relate English teaching with an attempt by foreigners to influence Colombian culture. Thus it can be seen that the Colombian foreign language teacher, like his American counterpart, sometimes feels that his subject is viewed with a certain disdain within the educational system and that he frequently must justify his discipline's place in the curriculum.

Five teachers mentioned the difficulties involved in teaching pronunciation in Colombia. Of these, one said that students accustomed to translation and writing tend to resist oral work upon encountering a teacher who emphasizes it. Another teacher said pronunciation is especially difficult for costeños, whose Spanish is considerably different from that of the interior. A third teacher complained that students laugh at strange English sounds. It was also mentioned that students often learn bad pronunciation at the beginning from a teacher who can only read the language. It then becomes very difficult to erase these bad habits. In the same context another teacher stated that students should start English earlier so they can capture its pronunciation while most able to do so.

Three other teachers mentioned that English in general was difficult for Colombians and that some students feel that it is impossible to learn. As a result, they do not even try. Another stated that students demand that questions be translated to Spanish before answering.

Two teachers said that students need a stimulus. One suggested that the embassy give college scholarships to outstanding students and another suggested the binational centers award tuition waivers.

There were two additional comments about students. One pertained to their heavy academic load, which is fourteen subjects per week.

Under such conditions, the teacher remarked, students simply do not have the time necessary to study English outside of class. In class, one teacher said that students were hungry by the end of the day and could not concentrate on the lesson. The same situation with the same effect was found to exist during the sixties in the United States, bringing about the initiation of free school lunch programs.

In retrospect, it was found that teachers perceived every problem mentioned by the committee of experts, and many more. These problems are of such a diverse nature that the blame does not lie with a single entity. Although some of the problems can be corrected, the majority seem to be the product of intellectual and technological underdevelopment, the very thing educators are trying to overcome. Until significant progress is realized in this battle, such problems will continue to influence and shape the English teacher's environment.

Supervision

Supervision in Colombia is thorough in some schools and sporadic in others. Probably the best supervision, or inspection as it is called in Colombia, occurs in the INEM's, where the department head is given extensive released time for coordination and supervision. The amount of time varies considerably however. For example, in 1970, the department chairman at the INEM in Cali taught only twelve hours per week, while his counterpart in Bogotá was teaching twenty-one hours. That was an exceptional case, due to the lack of a teacher, and the same department head was informed that beginning with the July, 1971 semester, she would have to teach only three hours per week. In comparison with

other countries, this is a favorable supervisory situation.

Generally in the INEM's, the department head's teaching load is reduced by one hour for each teacher under his direction. Since the INEM in Bogotá has 22 English teachers, it is understandable that the chairman needs so much released time. Department chairmen are obliged to observe each teacher once every 15 days. However, in reality such visits occur about once each month.[1]

In addition to released time for the department chairmen, the ten INEM's presently in operation benefit by having two national programmers for modern languages; one for English and one for French. These programmers have offices in the Ministry of Education in Bogotá, and travel around the country making observations. They also serve as a liaison to the national INEM curriculum coordinator, and discuss progress and developments in language instruction with him. The English programmer speaks frequently to university education classes in an effort to spread the INEM philosophy. On her trips to the various buildings, she is obligated to meet with the department head and discuss supervisory procedures with him. She then meets with various teachers for a discussion of classroom methods and techniques, and reviews and discusses the weekly units developed by the local staff. If she feels that the units are exceptionally good, she may have them mimeographed in Bogotá, and sent to other INEM's for consideration. After discussing the units, the programmer observes several classes, following each observation by a discussion with the teacher. She also fills out an

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[1]María Auxiliadora Consuegra, national INEM English programmer, private interview, Ministry of Education, Bogotá, July 23, 1971.

evaluation form and files copies with the department head, the vice-rector for academic affairs, and the national curriculum coordinator, as well as keeping one for herself. The evaluation form varies from building to building, due to the fact that local department heads and vice-rectors have been unable to agree on a standard. During the first semester of 1971, the programmer was able to visit only four of the ten INEM's in operation. She planned, however, to visit the other six during the second semester.[1] Obviously more observations of this type are needed if the INEM's are to maintain communication with one another. Such communication would avoid duplication of efforts and serve as a means of disseminating innovative ideas and techniques.

The salary of INEM programmers varies between 5,500 and 5,900 pesos per month, a significant sum in Colombia. This is about 600 pesos a month more than is received by department heads and about 800 pesos more than is received by teachers. It appears that careful organizational planning has insured communication within and among the INEM's.

In addition to the supervisory activities described, the English programmer also serves as a generalist, giving two week seminars to the staff of selected INEM's at the beginning of each year. These seminars deal with general curriculum, INEM philosophy, educational psychology, and TEFL for English teachers. Obviously, the English programmer cannot participate in these seminars at all schools each year. Nonetheless,

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[1] Ibid.

she does reach teachers from four schools by joining teachers from two at each seminar. Since the INEM's in Cali and Pasto are on a different calendar, all programmers attend this seminar. Therefore, she teaches in three two-week seminars per year.[1]

National inspectors

On the national level, inspection is not as thorough. The ministry has 26 inspectors for the national schools, all of whom have offices in Bogotá. These inspectors are not responsible for covering a particular area of the country, but rather travel at will as their schedule permits throughout the country. When an inspector visits a school, he judges whether or not the school is fulfilling all the functions required of it by federal law. In addition, he usually visits one or two classes at random to check on the suitability of its teachers. In each case he leaves a report with the rector of the school and takes a copy back with him to the ministry. The report is placed in the teacher's file, and the teacher has access to it at both his local school and the ministry. Acevedo estimates that each teacher in a national school is observed on the average of once a year.[2]

Each inspector is responsible for making judgments about the quality of teaching in all fields of the curriculum, regardless of his specialization. If, however, a rector receives frequent complaints

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[1] María Auxiliadora Consuegra, op. cit., Bogotá, August 16, 1971.

[2] Olivenio Acevedo, Chief of Supervision of the Department of Personnel, private interview, Ministry of Education, Bogotá, July 27, 1971.

from students or parents about the suitability of a teacher, he has the right to request the ministry to send an inspector whose academic and professional background corresponds with the teacher's particular subject. Under such circumstances, the inspector's report usually determines whether or not the teacher will be retained.

National inspectors are selected by the ministry's Department of Personnel in accordance with the qualifications presented on the aspirant's curriculum vitae. No test (oppositiones) is used in selection. Several of the people interviewed complained that politics and friendship enter into the selection. An investigation by the writer revealed that although this may be a factor in some cases, generally it is not. The Department of Personnel has developed a numerical rating scale for evaluation of curriculum vitaes. This form permits the aspirant to receive a possible score of 100, and is divided into three sections; education, rank on the escalafón, and experience.

Table 13 gives a pictorial representation of the scale. As the reader will notice, seven points are given for a high school degree. A university degree receives eight points and any fraction thereof is pro-rated. The candidate receives eight points for a Master's degree and one point for each workshop or seminar attended up to a maximum of seven.

A maximum of 40 points are given for rank on the secondary escalafón, while only 25 are allowed for the highest rating on the primary escalafón. Naturally the escalafón takes into account both experience and education. Therefore, it can be said that the purpose of the rating sheet is to create a scale with more than five categories,

TABLE 13

RATING SHEET FOR THE EVALUATION OF NATIONAL INSPECTORS

EDUCATION---------- 30

a) High School.....7

b) University.....8

c) Post-Graduate.....8

d) Workshops and Seminars.....7

ESCALAFON---------- 40

1st Secondary Category...40	1st Primary Category...25
2nd Secondary Category...35	2nd Primary Category...20
3rd Secondary Category...30	3rd Primary Category...15
4th Secondary Category...25	4th Primary Category....5
No Secondary Category...15	No Primary Category....0

EXPERIENCE---------- 30

With the Ministry as an inspector (8 years).....30

With the Ministry in other related positions (8 years).....30

With departmental or municipal schools as an inspector (8 years).....30

With departmental or municipal schools in other related positions (10 years)....30

With private schools as an inspector (10 years).....30

With private schools in other related positions (10 years)..15

thus facilitating an objective decision.

Experience, which is subdivided into six types, is worth a maximum of thirty points. "Related positions" include both teaching and other administrative positions besides that of inspector. For example, this would include those with experience as a rector or a curriculum advisor at the building, municipal, departmental, or national level.

A review of the ratings of the 26 secondary inspectors, shows scores varying between 94 and 62, with a mean score of 84.2. Two inspectors have licenciaturas in modern languages and philology, and two have licenciaturas in philosophy and letters.[1] All of these are considered as specialists in language teaching. Secondary inspectors receive a salary of 4,090 pesos per month (approximately 205 dollars). This is about 20 per cent less than the salary of INEM teachers, who are usually less qualified. Consequently, if superior inspectors are to be obtained, salaries must be raised. At present, one can only suppose that national inspectors feel very dissatisfied with their jobs, since there are many teachers with fewer qualifications earning more at INEM's.

Technicians

Also with the ministry in Bogotá are a group of 12 people called técnicos en educación. These technicians are responsible for planning in-service training in the form of seminars and workshops. They receive

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[1]Olivenio Acevedo, "Inspectores de educación media y normalista," Internal report of the Department of Personnel, Ministry of Education, Bogotá, March, 1971.

a salary of 3,380 pesos per month (approximately U.S. $168.00), and one of them, Carlos Enrique Cajamarca Rey is a specialist in language teaching.

Departmental inspection

At the departmental level inspection is similar to that at the national level. Many departments have several inspectors and one of them is a specialist in languages. Each inspector must inspect all subjects during his visits to schools as well as discuss new laws with the rector. He also discusses the plans of the local secretariat of education for the coming months and on the whole tries to exchange information with the rector of the school. At the departmental level, inspectors are also required to visit private schools to insure they are following all national dictums.

Inspection at the departmental level works on three systems. In one system, the inspector travels at random to all schools in the department. The itinerary is worked out with other inspectors periodically so that all schools will be covered. Under the second system, each inspector is assigned a district usually covering 15 to 20 schools. He is required to visit each of these schools during a certain period of time, usually varying between 30 and 60 days. He must also observe classes. In Tolima, inspectors are required to visit two classes in each school. In the third system, each inspector covers the whole department, but only in his field of specialization.

Inspection at the municipal level is not of the same quality as at the departmental and national levels. This is because there are usually fewer inspectors, and often not any. Inspection here is largely

the responsibility of the rector.

A review of the salaries of departmental inspectors again reveals problems like those occurring nationally. In Tolima for instance, the English inspector receives a salary of 2,350 pesos per month, while a teacher in the first category of the escalafón receives 2,810 pesos per month.[1] For this reason, interviews revealed that inspectors often try to arrange to teach in a private school in addition to their supervisory duties.

Manner of inspection

Inspection in Colombia seems to lean slightly towards autocracy. Two of the teachers interviewed claimed that inspectors feel there is only one right way to teach--their way. One teacher stated that an inspector had complained that the students laughed too much. The writer noticed that in this teacher's class students were asked to tell about their family, and to express their feelings about their favorite TV programs. They were also asked if they had a boyfriend and who he was. All of this was done in English to the obvious delight of the students, whose attention was totally absorbed by the questions and answers.

Another teacher complained that an inspector asked if it was necessary that the class be so noisy. Three teachers complained that inspectors were not language teachers, and consequently could be of no help in improving teaching.

It should be pointed out that some inspectors are conscious of

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[1] Carlos Alberto Rada, English inspector for the Department of Tolima, private interview, Ibagué, August 3, 1971.

their image, and aware of the values of democratic supervision. One of the English inspectors interviewed included inspectors as one of the major problems facing teachers, and furthermore stated, "Inspectors in this department are not policemen."

After conversing with five inspectors, the writer is convinced that, although there is room for improvement, the Colombian inspector is generally more open-minded than the teachers he serves.[1]

Teacher Training in Colombia

Introduction

Colombia has some 40 universities both public and private, 25 of which are members of the Colombian Association of Universities. The size of these varies between 400 and 11,000 students. There are three administrative structures governing Colombian higher education: national universities, financed entirely by the federal government; departmental universities, financed jointly by the federal government and a department; and private universities, two of which are owned by the Catholic Church. By far the majority of Colombia's major institutions are departmental, with only three being national. Two of the latter are pedagogical universities which concentrate exclusively on secondary teacher training.[2]

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[1] I wish to express my appreciation to María Auxiliadora Consuegra, national INEM English programmer, for having proofread this section.

[2] Arnold E. Joyal and Joaquín Paez, "Formación de profesores en las universidades colombianas," in La educación superior en Colombia (Bogotá: Imprenta Nacional, 1970), p. 133.

Problems

There are many problems confronting higher education in Colombia, the best known of which is the large number of interruptions of the academic process by politically oriented students. This report will briefly mention a few other problems: i.e., those which provide information on the quality of graduates.

An extremely large number of Colombian professors are employed on a part-time basis. For example, in 1966, of the 56 professors in the Department of Modern Languages at the National University, only four were employed full-time.[1] As a result, many professors teach at several universities or dedicate themselves principally to another profession. This has given rise to the term "taxi-professor," or one who travels by taxi from one school to another in order to give his classes. Such circumstances make it difficult for a department to coordinate objectives in a degree program.

On the other hand, the universities of Antioquia and Valle employ only full-time professors.

Nearly everyone who studies or visits Colombian universities notes the sterility of the classroom climate almost immediately. The professor gives the lecture, the students copy the information, and learning is evaluated on examinations on which the student is expected to demonstrate mastery of the facts covered. The entire process is

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[1]Carlos Patiño Rosselli, "La lingüística y la enseñanza de los idiomas modernos en Colombia y Venezuela," in El simposio de Cartagena, First yearbook of the Inter-American Program of Linguistics and Language Teaching, Cartagena, August, 1963 (Bogotá: Instituto Caro y Cuervo, 1965), p. 66.

carried out in what seems to be a sterile environment for inquiry.

The blame for perpetuation of this ambient does not lie entirely with the faculty. Students often demand an absolute answer to unsettled questions. They seem more interested in the facts necessary to pass examinations than comprehension of concepts and circumstances.[1]

A contributing factor to the lecture dominated classroom is the lack of textbooks in Spanish, particularly in the field of education. Although some may be available, they are often dated and therefore disregarded by the instructor. The writer visited seven universities and did not find a single one using Spanish texts in their foreign language methods courses. Although it is not suggested that English majors should not read texts in English, the clarity of reading in one's native language seems valuable also. Recently, two books were published in Spanish which should be suitable for a foreign language methodology course.[2]

It haa been estimated that more than half the students enrolled in schools of education are already full-time teachers.[3] Many of these people take a full load of courses at the university after teaching a full day of classes. It is likely that under such circumstances very little time can be spent studying or preparing classes. In spite of

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[1]Joyal and Paez, "Formación de profesores en las universidades colombianas," pp. 148-149.

[2]See Juan Estarellas, La psicolingüística y la enseñanza de los idiomas extranjeros (Salamanca: Ediciones Anaya, S.A., 1971); and Marcel De Greve and Frans Van Passel, Lingüística y enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras (Madrid: Editorial Fragua, 1971).

[3]Joyal and Paez, op. cit., p. 150.

this, such students generally finish their degree in four years, which suggests the low standards of performance demanded by existing programs.

The autonomy enjoyed by each faculty and each university in Colombia is such that at present there is no prescribed program for teacher certification. As a result, a person with any degree, whether from a school of education or not, is placed equally on the escalafón. Among programs of teacher education the curriculum varies greatly also. This matter will be treated thoroughly in the description of existing programs.

University programs

These can be characterized by their diversity more than any other single factor. Generally, a language major obtains a degree in "Languages" rather than a specific language. This must be considered a major weakness of present programs although the situation has improved considerably in the past eight years. In 1963, for example, the Universidad Pedagógica y Tecnológica de Colombia in Tunja required its language majors to take four years of Latin, Greek, French, English, and Spanish literature.[1] Today, the same university requires two languages only.

Some licenciaturas include a thorough training in one language. At Los Andes and the National University a major includes 50 semester hours of study. At other universities such as Antioquia, the major

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[1]Patiño Rosselli, "La lingüística y la enseñanza de los idiomas modernos en Colombia y Venezuela," p. 62.

includes only 41 hours of English including beginning courses.

Two to four semesters of French is also a common second language requirement, although at some universities a choice of languages is provided. At the National University the student may substitute a minor in Classical Languages and present 31 hours of Latin and Greek instead.[1]

Often Spanish literature and a modern language (English or French) are offered as an alternate track. In this case a Colombian literature course is a sine qua non. Also common in such programs is a one or two semester requirement in Latin. In this case, the primary benefit intended through such minimal study of this language is as a preparation for the required courses in History of the Spanish Language and Spanish Historical Grammar.

Nearly every institution visited outlined the student's course of study during each semester. Unfortunately this schedule was sometimes not the optimal one. At the University of Antioquia students take Elementary Latin during the third semester since this has a low number prefix. Historical Grammar, however, has a high number prefix and is offered during the seventh semester. In the interim, students have two years to forget their one semester of Latin.[2]

Foreign language teacher education programs reflect the presence of audio-lingual theory in Colombia. Linguistics is generally studied

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[1]Universidad Nacional, Facultad de Ciencias Humanas, Departamento de Filología e Idiomas, Licenciatura en idiomas (Bogotá: 1971), pp. 15-19.

[2]Universidad de Antioquia, Facultad de Educación, Boletín académico (Medellín: Editorial Universidad de Antioquia, 1971), p. 10.

in greater depth than in the United States. Most programs require courses in syntax, phonetics, and general linguistics. Often a course in semantics is required also. Contrastive courses like those taught at ILCA are becoming increasingly popular. The Javeriana University requires a course in structural linguistics in addition to general linguistics. This program also differs from others in that the student of English need not take another foreign language. Instead, he is required to take four semesters of religion.

The English student at a Colombian university must study English on both sides of the Atlantic much like the Spanish student in this country. No attention is given however to the dialectology or literature of other English speaking countries outside of the U.S. and England. All programs studied devoted at least one course to the Literature of the United States and another to the Literature of England. Often two courses are devoted to each country. These are generally of a survey nature. Courses concentrating on a particular epoch or genre are not as common, and those treating a specific author, such as the Los Andes course on Shakespeare are rare indeed. Thus, the literary preparation of a university graduate in Colombia seems scanty, and probably students are more acquainted with the authors than their works.

At least one course in History of the United States is required of English majors. Often a course in History of England is required also. Some schools are substituting courses in civilization for those in history. The program at Los Andes places an especial emphasis in this field by requiring English majors to take both U.S. and British

Civilization and two other culture courses offered by the Humanities Department. Courses fulfilling this requirement are Greek Culture, Roman Culture, Oriental Culture, and Medieval Culture. The same university also requires a course on English Dialectology, placing special emphasis on the differences between British and American English. Generally the linguistics and culture section of a student's subject matter preparation appear strong when compared to similar programs in the United States. Courses in conversation and composition are also frequent.

If subject matter preparation is fairly strong in Colombia, professional preparation varies considerably. This is because until just a decade ago there were only four universities with a Faculty of Education. These were Antioquia, The Pedagogical Universities of Bogotá and Tunja, and the National University. As a result many universities are newcomers to the teacher training field and offer only a minimal number of courses in almost stop-gap fashion. At the University of Los Andes, for example, those planning to enter the teaching profession take only three professional courses; one in educational psychology, one in the use of the language laboratory, and one course in general foreign language methods. The typical teacher training program includes two or three courses in psychology, including Child Growth and Development, Educational Psychology, and General Psychology. The course in Educational Psychology seems to be basic to all programs. General Methods and Special Methods are other common courses along with audio visual aids. The Javeriana University has a special course in use of the language laboratory as

has Los Andes for some time.[1] Some universities also require general courses on Testing and School Law.

In summary, course requirements in education vary from 8 to 20 semester hours excluding practice teaching.

Student teaching

This experience also forms part of teacher training in Colombia. It differs most noticeably from programs in the United States in that the student teacher is generally paid for his services and is given total control of the classroom. This situation is primarily due to the fact that most advanced university students are already experienced teachers. Therefore, during their final year of studies they simply earn 5 to 10 hours credit for what they have been doing all along. At this point they are visited by a member of the university faculty in their classroom from one to five times, with the latter number being more representative. At some universities a methods seminar accompanies student teaching and at others a practicum precedes it. In this case, microteaching is employed extensively.

If the student teacher does not have a job the university will assist him in finding one. Under such circumstances he teaches one class all year, since the directors of colegios do not like to change teachers at the end of a semester.

At the University of Los Andes student teachers who do not have a job, teach a first year college class without pay. In such cases

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[1] Myrta González, Report on the Modern Language Department of the University of Los Andes, presented to the Fulbright Binational Commission in Colombia, April 15, 1967, Appendix II. (Xeroxed.)

they receive close supervision from a coordinator with whom they meet twice a week.

Student teaching appears to be the weakest aspect of professional education in Colombian Universities. Nowhere does the student get to work with a cooperating or master teacher under daily supervision. This is indeed unfortunate since such teachers do have a long range influence on the student teacher's behavior.[1] In addition, the cooperating teacher can perform the function of counselor and friend while the student is adapting to his class and school. The need to improve on this situation cannot be overemphasized, since student teaching experiences influence the student teacher more than methods courses do.[2] Besides, offering the cooperating teacher a nominal remuneration for his work would establish a liaison between the universities and the schools.

Number of graduates

It is difficult to determine the number of university graduates in languages each year. A study done in 1965 showed the number to be 43.[3] Dr. W. R. Lee of the British Council spent two weeks studying foreign language teacher education in Colombia early in 1971, and estimated the number to be about 60 per year in an internal report to

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[1]Robert D. Price, "The Influence of Supervising Teachers," Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. 12, No. 4 (December, 1961), pp. 474-475.

[2]Don Davies, "Student Teaching," in Encyclopedia of Educational Research, ed. by Robert L. Ebel (4th ed.; Toronto: Collier Mcmillan, 1969), p. 1382.

[3]Richard Renner, Education in Colombia, p. 268.

the local director.[1] Since the National University alone has graduated an average of 15 English teachers each year for the past two years, it would seem likely that the total number is over 100.[2] Some of these people, however, do not go into teaching; others take jobs at universities. It appears from this writer's investigations that Lee's estimation is conservative considering the number of universities presently involved in this activity.

In-service training

Resolution No. 3416 of 1970 permits two teachers from every public colegio to attend a vacation course at a university or other institution approved by the Ministry of Education for professional advancement. Each teacher attending receives a scholarship which includes tuition and transportation expenses to the respective locale.[3] Although no such information is available, it is assumed that English teachers are participating in this program.

If a teacher has a high school degree he may take a course at a university. Although these courses cannot always be considered in-service training, they do provide additional education to the teacher.

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[1]Paul Gotch, director of the British Council in Colombia, private tape recorded interview, Bogotá, Colombia, July 8, 1971.

[2]Bertha Raquel de Maurice, student teacher supervisor for foreign languages, private interview, National University, Bogotá, Colombia, July 22, 1971.

[3]Colombia, Minister of Justice, Resolution, "Por medio de la cual se crean becas para cursos de Capacitación y Perfeccionamiento de Profesores de Enseñanza Media," in Ministerio de Educación Nacional, Capacitación del magisterio, pp. 63-64.

The demand for late afternoon and evening courses for teachers has caused many universities to schedule a large number of classes at that time. The universities of Pamplona at Pamplona, Bolivariana at Medellín, Quindío at Ibagué, and Santiago de Cali at Cali are all small institutions which offer courses almost exclusively at these hours for in-service teachers. The University of Quindio even offers courses in two nearby pueblos on Saturdays. The Universidad La Gran Colombia and the Universidad Libre of Bogotá also offer all of their education courses during after-work hours.[1]

As described in Chapter II, Ministry Resolution No. 3452 counts ILCA courses as sufficient professional advancement for placement in the fourth category of the escalafón. Subsequent courses count as one year's experience as does any course taken by a teacher already ranked on the escalafón. Since over 2,000 teachers have completed the first year course, ILCA must be considered a major force in teacher training in the country, in spite of the fact that the institution has reduced its operations and many of those previously trained are no longer teaching. Therefore, the structure of these courses will be examined.

ILCA offers four courses, each of which centers on one of the four teacher's guides. The combined length of these courses is 600 hours.

The first course which includes 330 hours of instruction is by far the longest and is intended as an introduction to the audio-lingual

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[1] Joyal and Paez, "Formación de profesores en las universidades colombianas," p. 143.

approach and the ILCA series. The organization of the course can be broken down into five parts.

1. Practice with the guide (90 hours)

   The professor gives frequent teaching demonstrations followed by questions and discussion by the class.

2. Student demonstration (90 hours)

   Each member of the class has the opportunity to teach several lessons from the guide while others in the class serve as students.

3. Phonetic transcription (60 hours)

   The student is introduced to the vowel and consonant sounds of English and is taught their phonetic representation. This is necessary to give them the skill to pronounce correctly the material they are to teach which is represented via phonetic transcription in the guide. The objective of this part of the course is to train the non-native teacher to enunciate a correct model for imitation by his students.

4. Articulatory phonetics (45 hours)

   Students study the sounds of English and Spanish and learn to give a correct phonetic explanation of how they are produced. Also, the professor takes great care to improve student pronunciation through oral drill of English sounds in isolation, in minimal pairs, and in context.

5. Contrastive phonology (45 hours)

   In this segment the student is taught the allophonic differences between Spanish and English phonemes and clusters which occur

in the two languages. Special emphasis is placed on the development of the ability to anticipate phonological problems of the Spanish speaking student of English, and on the construction of exercises to correct them. Students are given frequent homework assignments with the latter.

The second course is 120 hours long and consists of two parts. During the first half the teacher demonstrates the use of the second year guide while the students practice pronouncing the words and structures contained in it. The second part consists of student demonstrations followed by a critique from the professor and the class. These activities are supplemented by readings and discussions of the anthology Teaching English, by Wilson and O'Hare.

The third ILCA course is 100 hours long and is also divided into two parts; a contrastive study of the structures introduced in the third year guide with pronunciation practice, and 50 hours of student demonstration of the lessons contained therein. The fourth course is 50 hours long and is composed of study of the same type of material in the fourth year guide.

As an in-service program, the ILCA courses seem to be highly practical. A considerable amount of linguistic theory is introduced, and it is always combined with practical applications, teaching demonstrations, and microteaching. The only limitation seems to be that the courses deal exclusively with a single textbook series rather than all of those commonly used.

The English Student in Colombia

Every Colombian high school student is required to study English

six years of his program except those in the INEM's and normal schools (see Chapter II). Therefore the total number of students studying English is almost equivalent to the total number receiving secondary training, some 730,000. Approximately 45 per cent of these are enrolled in public schools. Consequently, between high schools, universities, and private institutes, about 750,000 students were taught English in 1970. (Actually, several hundred thousand more were taught English in private primary schools but no data could be located as to what percentage of these offer the language and in which grades.)

Each year all seniors in Colombian high schools are given a series of standardized tests. These tests cover the areas of mathematics, biology, chemistry, physics, social studies, English and various types of aptitude. The tests were first administered in 1968, the only year for which results have been published. These statistics provide a wealth of information on the Colombian student and therefore will be discussed extensively.

As can be observed in Table 14, boys showed a higher mean score than girls on every test. This consistency has not been explained for Colombia as yet, although it is suggested here that it is due to the often cited absence of restrictive supervision enjoyed by males.[1] This creates a more stimulating environment with the end result being greater mental growth. It has been noted that the extension of this superiority into verbal aptitude is contrary to the situation in most

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[1]Renner, Education in Colombia.

other countries of the world.[1]

TABLE 14

SUPERIORITY OF BOYS OVER GIRLS IN MEAN PERCENTILE RANKING ON NINE STANDARDIZED TESTS

Verbal Aptitude	0.9
Mathematics Aptitude	4.8
Abstract Reasoning	2.8
Spacial Relations	5.2
Social Studies	5.5
Chemistry	2.9
Physics	6.1
Biology	3.6
English	1.2

Source: ICFES, Algunos aspectos del bachiller colombiano, pp. 90-143. Calculations made by the author.

In spite of this anomaly, the reader will notice that the smallest aptitudinal difference by sex occurs on the test of verbal aptitude. Likewise, the smallest differences by sex in achievement occur on the English exam. Thus, in spite of the fact that boys score higher than girls on this exam, girls show a better comparative performance on it than on any other.

Another factor related to the quality of learning is the student's place of residence. Urban students tend to perform better in school than rural students as is indicated in Table 15. The only exceptions to this trend are in the fields of biology and chemistry, where it is

[1] ICFES, Algunos aspectos del bachiller colombiano, p. 90.

assumed that the nearness to nature makes these courses especially relevant. It is observed that the greatest difference according to residence in subject matter achievement occurs with English students. Thus it can be concluded that the urban environment has a markedly favorab effect on the Colombian English student.

TABLE 15

SUPERIORITY OF URBAN OVER RURAL STUDENTS IN MEAN PERCENTILE RANKING ON NINE STANDARDIZED TESTS

Verbal Aptitude	1.9
Mathematics Aptitude	1.0
Abstract Reasoning	2.1
Spacial Relations	2.6
Social Studies	1.7
Chemistry	-0.3 (inferior)
Physics	1.0
Biology	-0.4 (inferior)
English	2.5

Source: ICFES, Algunos aspectos del bachiller colombiano, pp. 90-143. Calculations made by the author.

In spite of this conclusion, the writer was very much impressed with the potential of the rural student. Perhaps, due to the sterility of their environment, these students showed an enthusiasm for new things (including the observer) which was not observed among students in the city. Therefore, it is posited that the relatively poor achievement of rural youngsters is due to the qualifications of their teachers rather than a lack of motivation.

Returning again to student differences by sex, it has already

been stated (see Chapter II) that girls tend to have textbooks in their possession more often than boys. The analysis of teacher problems indicates that teachers in masculine schools complain of anti-Americanism among students more often than those in feminine schools. This sexual difference is probably related to the non-involvement in politics which is characteristic of women in Latin America.

The writer also noticed greater interest in English among female students and has sought a supporting explanation for it. The national examination for seniors begins with an attitude measure. On it, students are required to select the areas of study they find most interesting, and the occupation fields they prefer. The 1968 results show that the study of pedagogy and humanities ranked third and fifth among women, while ranking seventh and tenth respectively among men. This indicates that Colombian girls have a more favorable attitude concerning the humanities, including foreign languages, than do boys.

Teaching was listed as the most popular vocation among women. Since all other occupations listed, such as medicine, law, psychology, or economics, come under the realm of social or natural sciences, it can be concluded that many of these same girls plan to teach in the humanities. On the other hand, teaching was not included in the ten occupations most preferred by men.

An additional factor which may influence the Colombian male's less favorable attitude toward the humanities is his utilitarian view of the purposes of education. Females, on the other hand, have a much greater tendency to list an interest in study and academic in-

vestigation as the reason for continuing their education.[1]

Since the study of English is rarely vocational in itself, but rather a means of acquiring additional information in one's chosen field, it is possible that boys view it as less utilitarian than other, non-humanistic, subjects.

As far as outside interests are concerned, females prefer reading to sports whereas the order of preference is the reverse among males.[2]

Table 16 depicts a student ranking of the most preferred and best graded subjects taken in high school. Foreign languages were ranked as the least preferred of all areas of study.[3] Students also reported they received their worst grades in foreign languages. In this case, a cause-effect relationship between grades and preference cannot be assumed since social studies was the best graded subject yet one of the least preferred. The poor showing of foreign languages in both of these categories should be a cause of grave concern among English teachers. Most particularly, there is no reason why students should receive lower grades in English than in other subjects. It could be posited that the boys' attitude was a significant factor in this case. (Reduced motivation produces reduced achievement.) However, the fact that boys scored higher than girls on the achievement

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[1] Ibid., pp. 30-32.

[2] Ibid., pp. 87-89.

[3] It should be pointed out that the sample contained 969 boys and 531 girls, which is proportionate to enrollment differences by sex in the sixth year of secondary school. Therefore, it must be remembered that boys' attitudes had a greater voice in the sample than girls'.

test seems to invalidate this hypothesis.

TABLE 16

STUDENT RANKING OF SUBJECT BY PREFERENCE AND GRADES RECEIVED

	Most Preferred	Best Graded
1.	Biology	Social Studies
2.	Mathematics	Biology
3.	Chemistry	Spanish and Literature
4.	Physics	Mathematics
5.	Spanish and Literature	Chemistry
6.	Social Studies	Physics
7.	Foreign Languages	Foreign Languages

A closer look at the results of the national English test shows a difference of 7.8 points in the mean percentile ranking of those students who most prefer English and those who least prefer it. Therefore, preference of English, as demonstrated by including it among one's favorite subjects, can be considered a significant variable in the student's achievement as reflected on the national English test.[1]

Table 17 represents the mean percentile rankings of the industrial, normal, and commercial degree students on the national English test. Their inferiority in English achievement as compared with the academic degree student can be readily observed. Also, among vocational degree students, the commercial aspirant seems to be superior in knowledge of English.

[1] Ibid., pp. 136-137.

TABLE 17

COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES ON THE NATIONAL ENGLISH TEST OF THE INDUSTRIAL, NORMALIST, AND COMMERCIAL STUDENTS WITH THE NATIONAL MEAN

	National Mean	Industrial	Normalist	Commercial
Mean	50.00	44.69	43.83	48.10

Source: ICFES, Algunos aspectos del bachiller colombiano, p. 140.

CHAPTER VI

THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM

The National English Curriculum Guide

Decree 45 of 1962 provided for coordination of all courses throughout Colombia. As a result, the Minister of Education commissioned a group from each subject area to develop objectives for each level, to suggest classroom activities, and list additional bibliographic citations which might be of interest to teachers.[1] These are published by Editorial Bedout of Medellin and sold to teachers for fifteen pesos. The guides for English, Spanish, and French are included under the same cover, although the English section is by far the most elaborate and specific.

General objectives

The long range objectives outlined by the guide are quite ambitious. They include teaching the four basic communicative skills, as well as vocabulary and understanding of syntactic patterns. Important long range objectives in the affective domain include the realization of the necessity for knowledge of a foreign language as a means of communication among different peoples. Mention is also made

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[1] Ministerio de Educación Nacional, Programas analíticos de español y literatura, inglés y francés (Medellín: Editorial Bedout, n.d.), p. 3.

of increased self-confidence when visiting abroad as a product of foreign language study.

Methodology

The methods recommended in the curriculum guide can best be considered "modern." The direct method is named as the basis of instruction but further investigation shows the approach to be eclectic.

According to Rivers, the direct method made no provision for the systematic introduction and practice of structure.[1] On the other hand, the guide prescribes exactly which structures will be introduced each year. It also advocates teaching translation, a skill generally ignored by direct methodologists.

The methodology prescribed in the curriculum guide most resembles the direct method in its use of a phonetic alphabet. The preamble to the guide typifies the enthusiasm for the phonetic alphabet which was characteristic of proponents of this method in the early part of the twentieth century.

> Dado que en inglés no existe una correspondencia exacta entre la pronunciación y la forma escrita de la palabra, y como la ciencia fonética ha alcanzado positivas metas en el campo de la lingüística moderna, se hace indispensable el estudio de los principales sistemas de ortografía fonética, a fin de que el alumno recurra, por su propio iniciativa, a los textos y diccionarios fonéticos y compruebe en ellos la pronunciación de cualquier vocablo, para que pueda usarlo con seguridad en el lenguaje hablado.[2]

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[1] Rivers, Teaching Foreign Language Skills, p. 21.

[2] Ministerio de Educación Nacional, Programas analíticos de español y literatura, inglés y francés, p. 25.

The guide also elaborates that a phonetic alphabet is easy to learn, and can be used to represent vowels as well as the phonetic variants of consonants according to their position and environment.

In addition to being used as an aid to the development of good pronunciation, the phonetic alphabet also represents a significant portion of the subject matter taught in the first four years. A preliminary unit dealing exclusively with this topic initiates each year. The first such unit merely introduces the students to the vowel and consonant sounds of English, using the alphabet to help the student distinguish between phonemes. Basic information is also given on how sounds are produced.

At the beginning of the second year, the preliminary unit includes differentiating between voiced and voiceless consonants and general information on articulatory phonetics. The student is also introduced to phonetic transcription.

In the third year, the preliminary unit includes a review of previous information and additional practice in phonetic transcription. It also suggests that the teacher increase the student's knowledge of the organs of the vocal tract, and their points of contact in each sound, by the use of saggital drawings and student experimentation.

The initial unit of the fourth year course consists of a thorough review of all previous information on English phonology, and additional practice in phonetic transcription. It suggests that the review include such content as the vowel triangle, vowel reduction in casual style, diphthongation, terminal junctures, intonation patterns, and stress. The specific objective is to give the student such a

familiarity with the English phonological system that upon encountering new words, he will be able to pronounce them correctly and transcribe them by analogy.[1]

Although instruction in English phonology is a recurring part of the program, it is noteworthy that English sounds are not contrasted with Spanish. This would often provide a good point of departure for learning foreign language sounds and would reinforce and build upon much of the suggested content of the student's Spanish class.[2]

Audio-visual aids

The use of audio-visual aids is recommended several times in the curriculum guide. The aids suggested include magazines, tapes and tape recorders, records and record players, posters, realia, pictures, and films. Although this is a lengthy list, only when the teaching of time is covered are the materials to be used (clocks and calendars) suggested. For the rest of the content, the guide only encourages the teacher to take advantage of whatever is available. An exception to this lack of specification is the already mentioned use of saggital drawings when teaching pronunciation.

The list of suggested aids generally ignores the equipment available. Slide projectors, opaque projectors, language laboratories, filmstrip projectors, and other hardware are not mentioned. These should be included in such a guide for two reasons: (1) because as previously shown teachers are not using these materials, and

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[1] Ibid., pp. 25, 40, 50, 60, and 61.

[2] Ibid., pp. 4-22.

(2) inclusion of this machinery in the curriculum would cause many inspectors to check for its use. Under such circumstances, the use of audio-visual equipment would become part of the inspector's report, thereby causing interest in it among a larger number of those teachers having access to this equipment.

In treating the teaching of culture, the guide suggests teachers use the free films available from the United States Information Service.[1] It does not state that they may be requested through the local binational center, however. Again, a more explicit description of this and other audio-visual resources should be included in the guide.

Culture

The detailed and systematic teaching of the foreign culture is not a part of the English curriculum guide. No civilization is included in the course, whereas in the guide for French a general understanding of French history and customs is a long range goal. This lack of attention to culture in the guide is inconsistent since the guide itself speaks of the utility of a foreign language as a means of communication.[2] Certainly it is necessary to understand another's background and world view if one is to communicate effectively. Perhaps the lack of attention given to this topic is the result of the anti-Americanism mentioned previously. Students and teachers alike might interpret a required and systematic study of American culture as cultural imperialism.

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[1] Ibid., p. 52.

[2] Ibid., p. 24.

Although many cultural patterns of English speaking countries are ignored (including family structure, dating customs, government, holidays, traffic, meals, and food), some others are listed by the guide. These are often used as a basis for expanded vocabulary study. The guide suggests that teachers familiarize students with such words so that they may take advantage of such activities when traveling abroad. The situations to be employed for vocabulary practice are football, basketball, baseball, and other sports, transportation, movies, the theater, and other social activities. Necessary vocabulary for foreign study is another topic. The only social institution treated is the educational system. Money, major cities, tourist and cultural attractions are the remaining situations suggested in preparation for foreign travel. Again, no mention is made in this regard about hotels, meals, customs, shopping, buying tickets, and other similar topics.

Even though there may be inherent political disadvantages to presenting cultural material in Colombia, failure to present it is disadvantageous also. Customs such as rodeos, camping, hiking, hobbies, cars, and others, seem certain to interest the minds of young Colombians. Their study would take some of the emphasis from grammar, which currently seems to be the basis for language study. By combining the study of culture with language, teachers would be introducing additional vocabulary, as well as reinforcing grammatical constructions previously introduced. This would be a welcome addition to currently employed methods of teacher lecture, rule memorization, pattern practice, and writing exercises.

Testing

Although the curriculum guide emphasizes the use of oral skills in the classroom, it makes no mention of oral tests. This points out a lack of consistency in the program, since if oral skills are important enough to teach, then they are also important enough to test when evaluating the students' performance. Also, oral testing would stimulate students to try harder in class, because they would then know that daily oral activities would also be the basis for tests.[1]

Although the guide does not provide guidance in the use of oral tests, it does offer sample questions for written tests. These are all in English and include such formats as answer in the negative, supply the missing word, use a word in a sentence, question-answer, transformation, sentence completion, and scrambled sentences. The use of multiple choice options for designated slots in a composition is also demonstrated. In addition, teachers are encouraged to give free compositions and dictations.

The sample tests included in the guide give all directions in English, a practice which is criticized by Valette since it raises the possibility of students knowing the content, but not being able to show it because of a misunderstanding of the instructions.[2] Although the writer was able to look at only twenty tests, many of which came

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[1]Theodore B. Kalivoda, "Oral Testing in Secondary Schools," Modern Language Journal, Vol. 59, No. 6 (May, 1970), p. 329.

[2]Rebecca Valette, Modern Language Testing (New York: Harcourt Brace and World, 1967), p. 6.

from the same schools, there appears to be no set language for directions, except that the same language is used throughout an exam. Perhaps many teachers are aware of the disadvantage of giving directions in the foreign language due to prior experiences.

The sixth year English test administered by the National Test Service also gives all directions in Spanish. This test measures the reading skill exclusively. It employs a four option multiple-choice format using four types of questions: choose the correct synonym, choose the correct missing word, choose the correct sentence completion, and choose the correct answer to questions on a reading passage. The items test knowledge of structure, vocabulary, and reading comprehension.[1] Although a standardized achievement test can provide useful information about the individual student as well as the overall program, this test does not achieve such results. By requiring only a single skill (reading) to pass the test, the National Test Service is limiting the content of courses. All students must take this test and the results are forwarded to the university to which the student intends to apply. Although speaking and writing tests require trained scorers, a listening test could be given with only a tape recorder. Inclusion of a listening section in the test would support those teachers who are criticized by administrators for not concentrating on the reading skill, and by students who object to having the class conducted in English.

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[1]Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educación Superior, "Instrucciones de las pruebas de aptitud y conocimientos para los examenes nacionales," Bogotá: ICFES, 1970, pp. 14-16.

Composition

From the beginning it is recommended that the student be asked to write only that which he has read and spoken. This pattern of controlled composition is reinforced throughout the curriculum guide.

Perhaps the influence of direct method ideas have caused the teaching of composition to be postponed until late in the third year of the basic cycle. Dictations are encouraged from the second year on, and one gets the impression that these should be given frequently.[1] Additional writing practice would be obtained throughout the study of English from the many written grammatical exercises which are described in detail.

Throughout the fourth year students write compositions based on topics that have been read and discussed in class. The suggested topics are all cultural and include trips abroad, principal cities of the English speaking world, economic resources, and cultural centers. The guide also suggests that the student be given written reports at the fourth level in order to develop his research ability.[2]

Reading

Although the guide suggests the teaching of a phonetic alphabet, it does not specifically mention a prereading stage of instruction. The activities for each year include the use of readings that make use of the syntactical structures studied. It is also suggested that students

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[1]Ministerio de Educación Nacional, Programas analíticos de español y literatura, inglés y francés, p. 64.

[2]Ibid., p. 67.

read selections on the cultural topics previously mentioned and other subjects relevant to students. During the fourth course the guide states that reading is to be used as a tool for research. Following investigation, the student writes a report (presumably in Spanish) on the topic studied. It is also suggested that classes read frequently from foreign newspapers and magazines at this level.[1]

Literature is introduced in the third year with the text, Reader's Digest Readings: Part One. The first work mentioned is "The School That Travels." The methods prescribed for teaching this and the other stories in the book are very much oriented toward non-functional usage. Students are told to translate the entire passage, looking up unknown words in a dictionary. It is also advised that they pronounce and write the three principal parts of all regular and irregular verbs. Oral exercises are also recommended as well as dictation and composition. From then on the teacher is told to:

> Ejercitar al alumnado en este tipo de traducciones e interpretaciones del inglés tratando lecturas históricas y literarias de temas que presten actualidad al estudiantado para sus estudios posteriores.[2]

He is also requested to "awaken a love for modern English authors."[3]

It is pointed out that too much new vocabulary can cause the student to become frustrated and disgusted. Therefore, care must be taken that the works selected are not excessively difficult. Stories related to student life are again recommended.

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid., p. 59.

[3] Ibid., p. 60.

Grammar

The basic function of the curriculum guide is to outline the grammatical structures to be covered each year. This information is set down in exhaustive fashion throughout the guide, and therefore will not be reproduced in this dissertation. Nevertheless, the following synthesis of the content of each course may be useful to the reader in conceptualizing the program of studies.

I. First course

- A. Declarative, negative, and interrogative sentences
- B. Prepositions in, at, over, under, and on
- C. Verb "to be"
- D. Definite and indefinite articles
- E. Pluralization of nouns
- F. Demonstrative adjectives and pronouns
- G. Existential "there"
- H. Present participles
- I. Present vs. present progressive
- J. Imperatives
- K. Auxiliaries
- L. Position of adjectives
- M. Genetive forms of nouns
- N. Common contractions

II. Second course

- A. "To be going to"
- B. Nouns without articles
- C. Negative imperatives

D. Prepositions about, near, far, from, before, and like

E. Past tense of "to be"

F. Past tense of regular verbs

G. Past auxiliaries

H. Common past irregulars

I. Indefinite pronouns

J. Quantifiers accompanying count and mass nouns; some, a little, any, much, etc.

K. Passive voice

L. Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives

M. Relative pronouns

N. Placement of adverbs of frequency

III. Third course

A. Present perfect tense

B. Tag questions

C. If clauses

D. Imperfect "used to" and "would"

E. Gerunds

F. Order of adverbial phrases

G. Passive voice with "can" and "will"

H. Reflexive pronouns

IV. Fourth course

A. "It" as subject

B. Past progressive tense

C. Irregular past participles

D. Expressions of time and duration with still, any, more, already, etc.

E. Main and subordinate clauses

F. Indirect questions

G. Concatenation of tense in conditional sentences

H. Sentence final prepositions

I. Subjunctive in English

Unlike most curriculum guides which only identify the structure, the national guide in Colombia presents each occurrence of the structure to be taught. Therefore, many features introduced in the first year course, are reintroduced later with different vocabulary. For example, although the present tense is introduced during the first year, the guide also lists many other verbs whose present tense forms are to be taught during the second year. Moreover, the first three weeks of each succeeding year is dedicated to a review of the grammar presented in the preceding year. The last course seems to be primarily review and expansion of previous content.

As the student advances in the sequence, the study of grammar seems to become more abstract. During the third and fourth courses, rules are presented to clarify examples.

> Tratar en forma concreta el comparativo de igualdad: a.) cuando el término de la comparación es un sustantivo; b.) cuando el término de la comparación es un adjetivo en frase afirmativa; c.) cuando el término de la comparación es un adjetivo en frase negativa.
> Peter goes to the same school as Mary.
> Peter is as attentive as Mary.
> Peter is not so attentive as Mary.[1]

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[1] Ibid., p. 58.

In summary, it seems that the curriculum guide for English is quite thorough in stating the content that should be presented but lacks such thoroughness in suggesting how it can be taught.

Levels five and six

For reasons unknown, the committee charged with the elaboration of the English guide did not write objectives for the fifth and sixth years of study. Teachers are not bothered by this since most claim to have trouble covering the material in six years anyway. This permits a greater amount of freedom at the advanced levels as well.

In July, 1965, the Minister of Education, through Resolution No. 2312, commissioned a team of national inspectors to write instructional objectives for each discipline offered as part of the commercial degree (Bachillerato Técnico Comercial). This affected only the fifth and sixth years, since the first four compose the basic cycle which is the same for all degrees. The Spanish guide remained the same and only minor changes were made in the French guide, which quite naturally offered less flexibility due to the two year sequence. In the case of English, however, the committee had to develop a complete program of studies, since the content of these years had not been defined previously. Given this freedom, the authors elaborated a thorough program of studies based on the needs of the students and the problems of the teacher.

Early in the fifth year students are to be instructed on the reasons for studying foreign languages in general and English in particular. They should especially comprehend the importance of foreign language study to the economic and educational development of the

country.[1]

The fifth course is composed of a review of previous material, additional study of culture, and more practice in reading and writing, especially letter writing. In the area of culture, the learner studies the governmental organization of the United States and England, and the Constitution. Teachers are also advised to make use of the services of the embassies, binational centers, and Peace Corps volunteers in securing information and materials for their classes.

Suggested readings for this level are diverse, including some biography, poetry and short story, and a noticeable emphasis on commercial and political topics such as international trade and the United States and world affairs. Teachers are requested to emphasize commercial terminology in the passages.

A greater number of activities for teaching and evaluating the content is also apparent in the guide.

During the sixth year, English becomes a basic part of a student's professional education. Essentially, this is a course in office skills where the student learns business expression and letter writing. The topics covered include the following:

I. The business office

   A. The proprietor

   B. Employees

   C. Different kinds of customers

II. A letter of application for employment

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[1]Ministerio de Educación Nacional, Programas analíticos de español y literatura, inglés y francés para el primero y segundo ciclos de enseñanza media comercial (Medellín: Editorial Bedout, n.d.), p. 34.

III. Merchandise and transportation

A. Types of merchandise

B. Sending and receiving merchandise

C. Air and land transportation

D. River and sea transport

E. Embarkation, and consular clearance

IV. The business letter

A. The reaction of the reader

B. Sincerity

C. Enthusiasm

D. Courtesy

E. Clarity

V. Fliers

A. Change of address

B. Announcement of opening

C. Establishment of a branch office

D. Dissolution of a corporation

E. Offering services to a potential customer

VI. Information on prices and orders

A. Letter requesting price information on a particular piece of merchandise

B. Letter indicating prices

C. Letter placing an order

D. Letter rejecting a proposal

VII. Letters of complaint

A. Delayed delivery of merchandise

B. Reply to the above

C. Reply to a complaint about the quality of an article

D. Letter requesting payment

E. Reply to the above[1]

Although the content of the course is very much oriented toward development of the writing skill, it is still suggested that the class be audio-lingual. It is also recommended that students participate in role playing, and that frequent oral evaluations be made. Again, this guide shows itself to be more thorough than its counterpart for the basic cycle by suggesting possible formats for listening and speaking tests.[2]

Native language training: oral correction

Perhaps one of the reasons Colombian teachers encounter such strong resistance to teaching oral language is due to hypercorrection in the Spanish class. It has previously been pointed out that such correction may be counterproductive.[3] The curriculum guide for Spanish and Literature studies repeatedly emphasizes correction of the student's

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[1] Ibid., pp. 87-100.

[2] Although the commercial degree guide is much more specific in establishing objectives and describing how they should be attained, these objectives are too ambitious for the average sixth year class. Also, it should be pointed out that sixth year commercial classes were included in the sample, and in no case did the course content appear different from that of a colegio offering the academic degree.

[3] Freda M. Holley and Janet K. King, "Imitation and Correction in Foreign Language Learning," Modern Language Journal, Vol. 55, No. 8 (December, 1971), pp. 494-498.

native language speech. Typical of such admonitions is the following recommendation from the Third Congress of Academies of the Language reproduced at the beginning of the guide for the teacher's information.

> Que en todo el mundo hispánico la enseñanza y la palabra radiada se atengan a un tipo de dicción que no solo elimine los vulgarismos rechazados por los hablantes cultos, sino que tienda a atenuar los particularismos admitidos en cada país o región.[1]

A similar approach to native language correction was found to cause considerable anxiety to many students when tried in the United States.[2]

Another indication of hypercorrection in the Spanish class is the following:

> Durante todo el curso el profesor debe dar mucha importancia a la corrección del lenguage oral del alumno.[3]

The extent of this correction is evident in the following, which are just a few of the words and phrases the teacher is told to pay special attention to:

> cónyugue, diabétis, es muy comelon, sopa fantástica, vuelta ciclista, habladorísimo, invitación a una fiesta la cual tendrá lugar mañana, cuando vas a ir, así es que no me gusta, cerca a la iglesia, problemas a resolver[4]

With such interruptions a part of the Spanish class, it is not surprising that students develop a dislike for oral work. In view of this

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[1]Ministerio de Educación Nacional, Programas analíticos de español y literatura, inglés y francés, p. 5.

[2]San-Su C. Lin, A Developmental English Program for the Culturally Disadvantaged (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 029 910).

[3]Ministerio de Educación Nacional, Programas analíticos de español y literatura, inglés y francés, p. 9.

[4]Ibid., p. 22

anxiety, perhaps it behooves the English teacher to use as little oral correction as possible, and to tell students that as long as one can communicate Americans are generally tolerant of a foreign accent.

Native language training: grammar

The writer has observed that many Colombian English teachers use the terminology of traditional grammar in discussing the lesson of the day. It also commonly appears in instructions on written tests. The use of traditional terminology, as opposed to the terminology of structural or transformational grammar seems appropriate in Colombia since it is the basis of language analysis in the Spanish class. Nevertheless, problems can develop when a knowledge of certain terms is assumed by the English teacher before they are treated in the Spanish class.

Inspection and comparison of each guide indicates that this is frequently a problem. For example, the English guide suggests teaching of demonstrative pronouns during the first year while students do not become aware of them in their native language until the second year. An even more extreme case is that of the present participle,which as part of the present progressive tense, is a high frequency structure in English and consequently introduced during the first year. The structure in Spanish (gerundio) is less frequent and therefore not introduced until the fourth year.

Considering that such functions are difficult enough to comprehend in one's native language, teachers should avoid explaining them, and instead teach them inductively until the students are capable of making such analyses. Careful attention to these matters would surely

reduce grief for both student and teacher. So as to not overstate the problem, however, it must be said that there seems to be a general correlation between the presentation of syntax and morphology in the two languages.

Textbooks

This section treats the most commonly used textbooks in Colombia, and is included because of the important role textbooks play in the educational enterprise. They not only determine the material that is learned, but through their suggested activities they contribute to a description of what goes on in the classroom as well.

Let's Learn English

The most commonly used textbook in Colombia is Let's Learn English by Wright and McGillivray.[1] Among the schools visited, 11 of the 25 classes using books had adopted it.

The book consists of 24 lessons and is normally covered in two to three years. Vocabulary is limited to 1,000 words with all cultural settings in the United States. A preliminary unit devoted to pronunciation presents the International Phonetic Alphabet. Common patterns of intonation and word stress are also identified. Students refer to this unit throughout the course.

Each chapter begins with a section called Oral Practice. This is the core of each lesson, providing the general theme as well as new

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[1]Audrey L. Wright and James H. McGillivray, Let's Learn English: Beginning Course--Complete (New York: American Book Company, 1966).

vocabulary and structure. Oral Practice consists of three to five groups of basic sentences, each group generally dealing with a different subject. The sentences are not dialogues nor monologues, but usually consist of questions and answers. Frequently only a single question is asked such as "What time is it?" and several possible answers will follow. At other times each section of Oral Practice is simply a group of questions and answers representing a certain structure. For instance, "Are your parents tall?" and "Is your sister pretty?" make up part of one section on the family while "Do you have a brother?" and "Do you have any cousins?" compose part of another.

Units 13-24 of Oral Practice include a special feature called Tom's Impressions. Tom represents a typical foreign student in the United States, who writes his impressions of the country in a letter. Each letter deals with a different aspect of American culture such as sports, transportation, schools, eating habits, work habits, etc. The topic of the letter is related to the vocabulary of Oral Practice. For example, the letter describing eating habits corresponds with the presentation of names of foods and table conversations.

The teacher's guide suggests that each Oral Practice be modeled by the teacher while the students have their books closed. Choral, small-group, and individual repetition should also be conducted with the teacher listening for gross errors. Meaning is to be established via use of visual aids, restatement, or Spanish translation.[1]

Following this oral presentation students open their books and

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[1] Audrey L. Wright and James H. McGillivray, Teacher's Guide for Let's Learn English (New York: American Book Company, 1966), p. 21.

read the basic sentences, paying particular attention to the graphic portrayal of the intonation patterns. Later, it is suggested that students read the sentences aloud, and participate in role playing activities.

Immediately following Oral Practice is a section entitled Structure. Here, the student's attention is focused on some aspect of structure which was introduced in the basic sentences of Oral Practice. Several grammatical points are usually treated, each beginning with sentences which are read aloud after a model by the teacher and followed by a rule or explanation for using the structure. In addition, written exercises are presented for classwork or homework.

Picture Practice is an interesting exercise included in the first twelve lessons. One or more pictures are portrayed in the text and questions are asked about each. The student formulates answers based on the vocabulary and structure introduced in the unit.

Another component of each chapter is a section entitled Vocabulary. This is simply a listing of the new words introduced in the unit in both the Roman and International Phonetic Alphabets. There is also a space in which the student can write an equivalent of the word in Spanish.

Pronunciation is another section simple in format. In each unit four or five phonemes are focused on and several words containing them are listed. This is a type of review exercise since the words are usually from previous lessons. Care is taken to show all possible graphemic representations of each phoneme.

Each unit of Let's Learn English includes extensive dictation

practice. The dictations, however, are different from those normally used in the United States. While not concentrating on a specific problem of sound-letter correlation, they consist of unrelated sentences rather than one or more paragraphs dealing with a unified topic. These sentences again are the same or similar to those introduced in Oral Practice.

The method of administering dictations also differs from that generally seen in the United States as described by Valette.[1] The instructions in each chapter tell the teacher to read a sentence and have the students repeat it aloud.[2] The teacher says the sentence again and this time the student transcribes it onto his paper. The teacher repeats the line once more, so the student may check his response before continuing to the next sentence.

The last exercise in each chapter is called Conversation. This is done in two stages. First, the teacher asks a question from the book, and students form an answer based on the information given in the instructions. For example, students may be told to answer the following question in the negative and then add an affirmative sentence. "Is Mr. Scott an engineer?" In the second stage of Conversation students ask such questions to each other in the form of a chain drill.

Lessons 13 through 24 contain compositions in addition to the exercises previously described. These compositions are either summaries

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[1]Valette, Modern Language Testing, pp. 140-141.

[2]Although the writer's experience indicates it is not widely used, a similar procedure is described by Politzer and Bartley in Practice-Centered Teacher Training: Spanish (Philadelphia: The Center for Curriculum Development, 1967), p. 96.

of the theme of Oral Practice and therefore highly controlled, or an adaptation of this theme as it relates to the student. In each case the teacher is advised to discuss the topic orally in class before having the students write on it.

Let's Learn English contains six review lessons, one for every four units. These review all the material of the previous lessons in similar formats and suggest additional topics for classroom conversation. The teacher is encouraged to use them as a basis for testing.[1]

It was previously stated that the book is designed to be covered in two to three years. After a class finishes this beginning course there is also an intermediate and advanced-intermediate text which can be used.[2] These books follow the same format except for the substitution of dialogues instead of basic sentences, and inclusion of extensive reading practice. The narratives are usually recombinations and expansions of the structure and vocabulary used in the dialogue. Although the beginning course was revised as recently as 1966, it was originally published in 1955. Perhaps this is the reason for its use of basic sentences. The two intermediate texts were published in 1966 and 1967 respectively, again indicating the influence of audio-lingualism, which discarded the basic sentences of the Army Specialized

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[1]Wright and McGillivray, Let's Learn English: Beginning Course--Complete, p. x.

[2]Audrey L. Wright and Ralph P. Barrett, Let's Learn English, Book 3 (New York: American Book Company, 1966); Audrey L. Wright and W. Bryce Van Syoc, Let's Learn English, Book 4 (New York: American Book Company, 1967).

Training Program in deference to a situational dialog which is more adaptable to conversation.[1]

Practice Your English

This was the second most popular text in the sample and was also authored by Audrey L. Wright. The book was developed while Mrs. Wright was the Assistant Director of the Centro Colombo-Americano in Bogotá, and was field tested on the adult students of that institution two years before its publication in 1949.[2]

Practice Your English seems to be representative of many textbooks written in the late forties.[3] The preface to the book states that it is a conversational text for the student who has completed only one or two years of English study. The format is essentially grammar-translation, with no indication of influence by the methodology employed in the Army Specialized Training Program, except perhaps for the deletion of literary vocabulary and expression mentioned in the preface. The first 12 of its 24 chapters begin with a narrative about Virginia Lopez, a foreign student living with the Miller family. Some

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[1]The reader is referred to the following reviews: Edward M. Anthony, review of Let's Learn English, Beginning Course: Book 1 and Book 2, by Audrey L. Wright and James H. McGillivray and Let's Learn English, Advanced Course: Book 5 and Book 6, by W. Bruce Van Syoc and Florence S. Van Syoc, in the Modern Language Journal, Vol. 57, No. 1-2 (January-February, 1973), p. 76. The same books are reviewed more extensively by Eugene V. Mohr in TESOL Quarterly, Vol. 6, No. 3 (September, 1972), pp. 282-285.

[2]Audrey L. Wright, Practice Your English (New York: American Book Company, 1949).

[3]Somewhat similar in format was a best-selling book used in the United States at that time. See Edith Moore Jarrett and Beryl J.M. Macmanus, El Camino Real (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942).

of these narratives are interspersed with dialogue and most attempt to portray American culture. Following the narrative, there is a lengthy English-Spanish vocabulary list which includes all the new words introduced in the narrative. Already in the second chapter it presents 36 new words and 11 new idioms. A total of 2,700 words is used in the entire text.

After the vocabulary list the author begins the treatment of grammar. This appears to be the substance of each unit. Latinate terminology and traditional grammatical analysis are continually used as evidenced by the discussion of the gender of English nouns in the first chapter. In this lesson the text also demonstrates a certain prescriptivism, pointing out that "blond" is spelled with a final "e" when referring to a feminine noun. Such phenomena occur throughout the text demonstrating that the learning process is viewed as essentially deductive. Each point of grammar treated begins with a rule, and is usually followed by one or more examples. Exceptions to the rule are also listed.

At the end of each chapter is an exercise which gives the student practice in applying the rules he has studied. Usually the directions specify some change which is to be made in the sentence, such as a change in tense, or inserting a verb in a particular tense. In the first half of the book the student is often told only to read the sentences to himself and perform the stated changes. In the second half he is normally told to write his answers. Spanish to English translation is also given, frequently for practice in using idioms.

In the second half of the text, the narratives no longer deal with Virginia Lopez's observations about the American people but rather are a travelogue type of exposition about American cities. Consequently, they do not include any dialogue. In Chapter 13, the student is told he will take an imaginary trip across the United States in the coming chapters, beginning with the East, then crossing through the Middle West to the Pacific. Although these expositions are highly informative they are often quite dated in their descriptions due to the age of the text. Miami, for instance, is said to have a population of 200,000 people.

As can be readily inferred from the description, Practice Your English is a highly traditional text. At least one person has called it the most traditional English book used in Colombia, while suggesting that it should not be used at all.[1] Although the author may have intended it to be a conversational text, the activities selected are hardly consistent with this aim. Nonetheless, it continues to enjoy wide usage, especially at the intermediate and advanced levels where five schools in the sample were using it.[2]

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[1]Leland Northam, "The Present Status of English Teaching in Colombia," Bulletin (Second Seminar for English Teachers, University of Los Andes, Bogotá, Colombia, May 19-21, 1966), p. 53.

[2]It is interesting to follow the change in the format of Wright's books which have cornered the Colombian market for a generation. This book, published in 1949, typifies the grammar-translation method and introduces language in a narrative. In Let's Learn English, published in 1955, language is introduced in basic sentences. Books Three and Four of this series were published a decade later and introduce language in dialogs.

English 900

This was the third most popular series in the sample and was used at three schools. It was developed by English Language Services Inc. which is part of the editorial office of Collier-MacMillan International.[1]

The series is composed of six courses, each of which includes a textbook, reader, workbook, and 30 tapes. The workbook is perhaps the most original part of the series since it is completely self-instructional and employs branched (Crowderian) programming. However, since neither the reader, workbooks, or tapes are used in Colombia due to the increased cost they represent to the student, only the basic textbook will be described here.

The series derives its name from the 900 basic sentences presented in the six textbooks.[2] Each textbook contains ten units, each of which includes 15 basic sentences focused on a single speaking situation. The authors have tried to organize the presentation of these situations so that they start with immediately necessary language and progress to less immediate situations. For example, the language of the first situation in each book is as follows: greetings, talking about objects and people, describing objects, making plans, telling about past experiences, foreign countries and nationalities.

Following the list of basic sentences initiating each chapter

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[1]English Language Services Inc., English 900 (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1965).

[2]English Language Services Inc., Teachers Manual for English 900 (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1965), p. iii.

is a section called Intonation which graphically portrays the correct intonation pattern for each sentence. Students are expected to memorize these sentences which form the basis for substitution and expression drills introduced later. The third page of each unit is called Questions and Answers. These are short two-sentence conversational exchanges illustrating the use of each new sentence. Each chapter also contains a section called Substitution Drills. This is simply the identification of slots and additional fillers for the basic sentences. The instructor is told to teach this section orally by conducting a pattern practice employing each new filler as a cue. The authors make use of the slot and filler diagrams to introduce different levels of speech. One frame includes the phrases "experience some difficulty," "have difficulty," and "have a hard time," while another uses the adjectives "exhausted," "tired," and "worn-out." After drilling the class on this material, it is suggested that the teacher have students make their own rapid oral substitutions of vocabulary in the basic sentences.[1]

A series of brief dialogues called Conversation follows Substitution Drills. Books 1 and 2 offer as many as eight of these in a single chapter while the others normally include only two. These do include new vocabulary in the advanced courses however. Students first read the conversations aloud to each other and then "dramatize" them in front of the class. There are a total of 161 dialogues in the series and teachers are encouraged to review them continually as an aid to developing and maintaining conversational fluency.

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[1] Ibid., p. 19.

Books 2 through 6 contain a reading passage some 250 words in length. These are intended for classroom and home study and are recombinations of the vocabulary and structures introduced in the basic sentences and substitution drills. After reading the passage the student answers simple questions on it. These are highly controlled and require only slight manipulations of the original wording. The students may write the answers as well.

All six books in the series contain vocabulary and structural exercises for each lesson. Usually they involve additional substitution drills but with the words to be substituted placed to the right of the sentence rather than under the appropriate slot. Multiple choice insertions are also used to reinforce vocabulary and structure. It is suggested that these be done orally in class before assigning them for homework.

At the end of each unit is a list of all new words introduced in that unit. In addition, Book 6 contains a word study exercise which introduces and reinforces synonyms, antonyms, and the derivational morphemes used to form word families. The answers to these and all other exercises are in the back of each text so that students can easily confirm their responses.

Following the answer key is an alphabetized word index listing all words presented in the text, and the basic sentence in which they occur. This assists the students in seeing and remembering how the word is used.

English 900 is designed to be covered in two years by adult students meeting three times a week. Each book can be completed in

three months of class time. In Colombia, however, the series is covered in six years and each book in one, indicating the low level of achievement in Colombian classrooms.

The series contains almost no grammatical explanations and is based on the assumption that the student learns a language like the native speaker--by induction.[1] The teacher is advised to keep the presentation of grammatical rules to a minimum and let the student gradually form them himself. There is considerable emphasis on the memorization of material and even the grammatical and vocabulary exercises involve only recognition rather than recall. In spite of this weakness, however,[2] it is a highly integrated series which concentrates on oral skills rather than reading, writing, and grammar.

The ILCA materials

These are a highly integrated set of materials produced in and for Colombian secondary schools. The program consists of four teacher's guides, four student workbooks, four student sets of pictures, four sets of classroom posters, and two records of the basic sentences for the first year.[3] Perhaps the most agreed upon advantage of these materials is their low cost to the student. The only things he must purchase are the workbooks, which range in price from 25 to 50 cents and the dialogue pictures which range in price from 2 1/2 to 5 cents.

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[1] Ibid., p. 2.

[2] Rivers, Teaching Foreign Language Skills, pp. 183, 184, 195, and 196.

[3] Instituto Lingüístico Colombo-Americano, Guías para la enseñanza del inglés en las escuelas de nivel medio (Bogotá: Imprenta Nacional).

Therefore, the average student spends only 35¢ per year on these materials while he would normally need six times that amount per year for any other series. In spite of their reasonable price, the materials are not widely used (only two teachers in the sample were using them). This is because, in order to adopt them, a teacher must first take an ILCA course at its office in Bogotá. Not only is this an ILCA regulation (established by John W. Martin to prevent misuse of the materials), but a practical measure as well, since the books do not follow any traditional format.

The teacher's guides contain all the material that is to be taught as well as directions on how to teach it. They are based on a linguistic method, again somewhat similar to that of the ASTP. The authors, headed by John W. Martin of the University of California at Los Angeles, have used a contrastive analysis of English and Spanish as a basis for the presentation of material. That is, they have identified the points of contrast between the languages and used this information to introduce first that which most diverges from the native pattern.[1]

Each guide contains from six to twelve units which are used to teach varied grammatical concepts. These are taught inductively,

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[1]This technique is based on the assumption that in learning a second language, the habits acquired while learning the first language are transferred to the second, and consequently aid or interfere, according to where the structure of the two languages is the same or different. Therefore, divergent structures are introduced first, since they will demand more practice due to interference from previously established habits.

For a more explicit explication of this rationale, see pp. 4-5 of the first year guide.

in the foreign language and with very little explanation. The concepts are learned almost exclusively via pattern practice, repetition and memorization. Each unit begins with a set of basic sentences, related only in pattern. These are also written in the International Phonetic Alphabet to assist the teacher in remembering exactly how they are pronounced. The authors refer to this as "respelling" and guides 2, 3, and 4 use this script exclusively so that the teacher must be able to decipher it in order to use these materials. After the students can pronounce the basic sentences correctly, the teacher conducts the substitution drills in the guides to teach structural and morphological concepts. Extensive directions are given on oral classroom techniques, with the guide using the symbols C, R, and I, (class, row, and individual drill) to describe how and when the teacher is to drill each pattern. The unit ends with an assignment in the student workbook which involves establishing a bond between pictures and the sounds they represent. Often, pictures are used as a stimulus for recall of a basic sentence, and then additional pictures suggest the cues for a substitution drill.

Being so limited in the kinds of activities included, and depending so heavily on inductive learning, the ILCA materials have achieved only limited success in Colombia. However, the present Colombian staff of the institute is aware of the problem and has written an addendum to the first year guide which proposes a more eclectic technique.[1] It may be necessary, however, to rewrite the

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[1]Instituto Lingüístico Colombo-Americano, "Guías para la enseñanza del inglés en las escuelas de nivel medio, Primer año, Revisión," Bogotá, 1970. (Mimeographed.)

entire series in order to remove the mechanical stigma it presently has among some teachers.

English This Way

Only two teachers observed were using this series. It was also written by English Languages Services Inc. but takes a slightly less inductive approach to learning than English 900.[1] The series is composed of 12 texts, each of which is designed to be covered in a semester, but the writer's observations indicate that only the first six are used in Colombia.

New vocabulary and structure are presented in Sentences and Conversation. These are several groups of sentences, some of which form a dialogue, others of which are unconnected in setting but employ the same grammatical patterns. The series also contains reading selections of about 500 words each. The questions on the passage are less structured, also. Grammatical exercises are also used and again are a little more demanding of cognition. Instead of students choosing the correct answer for a fill-in-the-blank question from a series of multiple choice options, they are directed to rewrite the sentence in a different way using patterns recently studied; substituting subject pronouns, converting statements to questions, etc. Also, instead of having the answers available at the end of each text, they are in the teacher's manual.[2]

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[1]English Language Services Inc., English This Way: Books 1 - 6 (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1964).

[2]English Language Services Inc., English This Way: Teacher's Manual and Key to Books 1 - 6 (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1964).

Overview

There seems to be a wide choice of texts available to the Colombian teacher, ranging in approach from highly deductive to highly inductive. In view of this, it is not surprising that an eclectic series, Let's Learn English, has the widest appeal. Two other texts (First Things First and Essential English) appeared in the sample, but both were used at only a single school.

Regardless of the text chosen, only one series should be used in the school. At present, with a large number of part-time teachers, schools with several instructors are sometimes using several different series. This lack of articulation contributes to the fact that so many teachers feel they must either slow down or start over because the students do not know the material.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Purpose

This study described and analyzed the teaching of English in Colombian public secondary schools. The purpose of the study, as stated in the first chapter, were: (1) to establish an initial reference on the subject, (2) to gather a corpus of information which would portray the present status of English teaching in Colombian public secondary schools, and (3) to develop from this information a set of recommendations for the improvement of English teaching in said schools.

Research Design and Procedures Employed

Thirty classes in different parts of the country were selected to be observed according to a stratified sample. Three variables were taken into account in the selection. These were: (1) the presence of a rural or urban setting, (2) the type of degree offered by the school, and (3) the salaries of classroom personnel.

All 30 observations were recorded using the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories adapted to foreign languages by Moskowitz. Over 17,000 behaviors were analyzed by computer in order to ascertain

quantitatively the teaching methods most commonly employed.

A questionnaire, entitled "The English Classroom," was developed by the investigator and used to record additional information during observations. This information included quantitative evaluation of the lighting, furniture, appearance, ventilation, temperature, and size of the typical English classroom. It was also used to ascertain the type and amount of hardware and software available.

A section of the questionnaire was used to record information obtained through private interviews with the teachers observed. This included years of teaching experience, foreign residence, number of classes taught, and the problems confronting English teachers at present. These data were analyzed and the mean figures for foreign residence, teaching experience, and number of classes were derived. Frequently cited problems were discussed also.

In order to measure teachers' competencies, a translation was made of a scale developed by the Modern Language Association entitled "Qualifications of Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages." Ratings of sub-minimal, minimal, good, and superior were quantified so that mean ratings for each competency could be derived. The translated questionnaire was then given to the 30 teachers interviewed in order to ascertain each one's perception of his abilities. In addition, a jury of experts was chosen to complete the questionnaire based their perception of the professional competencies of the average English teacher in Colombia. The means for both groups (teachers and jury) were calculated and the differences in these means were interpreted.

In addition to the above design components, the study depended

on the following sources of information: syllabi, lesson plans, textbooks, books, periodicals, bulletins, proceedings, newspapers, personal correspondence, the national curriculum guide, masters' and doctoral theses, and reports by professional associations, the Colombian Ministry of Education, its affiliates, and the National Institute of Statistics. These published and unpublished sources were used to describe the development of English teaching in Colombia, legal regulations and dictums, the contributions of professional associations, and interested parties, supervision, students, and teacher training programs. The national curriculum guide for English was also analyzed as were the textbooks most frequently used, and implications for classroom methodology were drawn.

Summary of Findings, and Conclusions

The Setting for Learning

Background

Although Latin dominated foreign language study in Colombia from independence to the outbreak of World War II, English has since replaced it. At present, the importance given to English in the curriculum (six years are required for most secondary degrees) is greater than at any time in the past.

The English classroom

A semicircular arrangement of the classroom furniture is unheard of in Colombia. This furniture is generally quite crude and manufactured locally. Most classrooms use unshaded incandescent lighting

while many have none at all. This may be a contributing factor in student boredom. Hardly anyone decorates his classroom with cultural artifacts, although the study showed that inexpensive posters would not be stolen. Class size is much larger than previous estimates have shown, and noise emanating from various sources is a frequent problem to both teachers and students.

Equipment and supplies available

There is a critical shortage of audio-visual aids in Colombian public schools. Language laboratories are found only in the select INEM schools, and even there teachers generally do not take advantage of available materials. Outside the INEM's perhaps half the nation's English teachers never use any audio-visual equipment.

Contributors to English Teaching in Colombia

Through their influence on Colombian culture, the English speaking countries of the world, especially the United States, stimulate English teaching. Learning English seems particularly relevant to the average educated urban dweller, since he is aware of events of moment in the United States, hears American music on the radio, and sees American movies at the cinema. Colombia has English speaking radio stations, bi-lingual schools, an English language newspaper, and 18,000 American residents. Although these factors reinforce the study of English, many Colombians are resentful of their influence on the country.

In addition to these forces, the teaching of English has been assisted by many institutes, organizations, associations, and enterprises.

Among these are the Colombian-American Linguistic Institute, the binational centers, professional organizations for English teachers (ASOCOPI, ACPI, and CATE), the Fulbright Commission, the British Council, textbook companies, UNESCO, the Cordell Hull Foundation, and the Ford Foundation. The retraining of over 2,000 English teachers by the Colombian-American Linguistic Institute has probably been the most important contribution. Although these groups have been working for some time to improve the quality of English teaching, their efforts have been largely uncoordinated.

How English is Taught in Colombia

While most Colombian laymen believe that all English teaching is based on translation, the study showed this to be untrue. A large amount of pattern practice is used in the country, although lecturing still remains the most frequent teacher activity. This study indicates that English classes are conducted in about the same way at each of the six levels. Consequently, advanced students never attain the ability to use English for free expression of information, but continue to depend on the teacher to conjure a structured situation in which they can respond mechanically.

Characteristics of Educational Personnel

The English teacher

Among the 2,000 English teachers currently employed in public schools, the average one has no more than a high school degree. His salary ranges from 60 to 150 dollars per month, and because of this, two-thirds are forced to seek second jobs, making 35 class hours per

week a normal teaching load. Apparently, these conditions effect the retention of personnel since the average number of years experience is less than five.

Professional competencies of English teachers

The questionnaire on teacher competencies provided some added insights into the problems confronting English teaching in Colombia. Both teachers and experts agreed that the teacher's weakest language skill is speaking. Listening is also weak, for a majority of the teachers interviewed stated they could not even comprehend an English movie. On the other hand, both groups agreed that teachers have at least a basic familiarity with recent developments in methodology. Therefore, it appears that the primary cause of the low level of student attainment may not be poor teaching technique, but rather a lack of minimum language skills on the part of teachers. Stated simply, a teacher who cannot speak the language cannot teach someone else to speak it, no matter how modern his techniques may be.

Problems confronting teachers

Colombian teachers appear to be very much aware of the problems confronting them and their discipline. They named every problem mentioned by the committee of experts, and a few others as well. Those most frequently mentioned were large classes, poor pay, a lack of didactic aids, a nearly total absence of articulation, and the paucity of methods courses for which they blame the federal government. Teachers also perceive that anti-Americanism is having a deleterious effect on student motivation, and that students dislike oral work, especially

pronunciation training. The latter problem may be the result of hypercorrection of oral usage in the Spanish class.

Teacher training

Since there is no prescribed course of studies for certification, all completed university programs place teachers equally on the escalafón. Normally a prospective English teacher will major in "Languages" and fulfill his department's requirements for a degree. These requirements include the study of two, three, or four languages, thereby sacrificing a thorough background in one. Professional preparation varies considerably between institutions, and in no case do courses appear to be as practical as those offered by the Colombian-American Linguistic Institute. Student teachers do not work with a cooperating teacher, but are observed at least once by a university supervisor. Many universities offer a large number of evening courses for practicing teachers, although the academic quality of these courses is suspect. The combined efforts of the estimated fifteen institutions significantly involved in teacher training today is producing about 100 language majors per year, a majority of which will enter into the teaching profession.

The English student

Colombian students show more negative attitudes toward languages than any other subject in the curriculum. They also report their worst grades in foreign languages. Among students, girls tend to have more favorable attitudes toward English than do boys, who view it as less useful than other, non-humanistic subjects. Boys are also more likely

to be anti-American. Both boys and girls pursuing the academic bachillerato show higher English proficiency at graduation than students pursuing other secondary degrees.

The English Curriculum

The national curriculum guide for English

A national guide outlines what is to be taught at each level throughout the country. Although the guide prescribes the use of the direct method, translation is also advocated. It suggest that careful attention be paid to pronunciation during the beginning levels, and that a phonetic alphabet be taught. Nevertheless, Spanish and English sounds are not contrasted. The teaching of culture is generally ignored and no mention is made of oral testing. On the whole, it was found that the guide is quite thorough in describing what should be taught, but provides little information on how to teach it.

The national English test

A national English test given at the end of the sixth year evaluates only the reading skill, thereby increasing the pressure on teachers from students and administrators to concentrate on this ability at the expense of listening and speaking.

Textbooks

The format of Colombian textbooks varies from highly inductive to highly deductive. The most commonly used text, Let's Learn English, is eclectic in nature. Practice Your English is the second most often used despite its label as the most traditional. Generally, textbooks

are quite expensive, except for the highly deductive ILCA materials which are inexpensive. These are not often adopted, since prior training is required in order to use them, and problems with their delivery are common. Finally, the articulation of courses is exacerbated by the use of different series within the same school.

Recommendations

Although an appropriate course of action for a specific problem frequently becomes apparent and is therefore mentioned in the corpus of the study, the more significant recommendations are enumerated here also. Other suggestions emanating from consideration of the work as a whole are stated as well.

INEM curriculum

The INEM curriculum presently makes no allowance for preparation and certification of secretaries within the commercial bachillerato degree. A similar error was made with the proclamation of Decree No. 2117 of 1962, and it was later corrected due to the large demand for this type of program. It should also be noted that girls pursuing degrees at regular public schools take an intensive course in English (five hours per week) during their final two years of study. Contrarily, commercial students at INEM schools cease studying English after the third year. Since bilingual secretaries in Colombia earn two to three times the salary of a normal secretary, it is recommended that the secretarial degree be reinstated at the INEM's, and that English continue to be required of its aspirants during all six years.

INEM English department chairmen should meet with the schools'

guidance counselors to discuss the needs of students pursuing academic and commercial degrees. Since these are college preparatory degrees, all graduates should at least have a good English reading knowledge so that they will be able to read their college textbooks. If guidance counselors are made aware of this situation, they will be able to advise students to continue after their two or three years of required study are completed.

A word of caution

All English teachers in Colombia should be aware of the decline of language study at the new INEM schools. Since these schools were proposed by an American advisor and are based on the American educational system, language study, and humanities in general, have been sacrificed to the benefit of the natural and social sciences. The national INEM programmer, who was present at the original curricular discussions for the proposed INEM's, says that the American advisors wanted language requirements eliminated altogether, although ICCE officials later decided against it.[1]

This attitude is also prevalent in American assistance to higher education. It was pointed out that the Fulbright Commission has ceased support of English teaching at the university level, and is now giving priority to the stimulation of science and mathematics. Dr. George Felix of the Berkeley mission made the following recommendation after an Agency for International Development study of higher education

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[1]María Auxiliadora Consuegra, private interview with the national INEM English programmer, Bogotá, July 23, 1971.

in Colombia:

> The government of Colombia should foment and stimulate learning and research in Colombian universities by means of two national foundations: one in natural sciences, the other in social sciences and education.[1]

He fails to make any provision for learning and research in the humanities. Obviously, Colombian educators are going to have to decide whether or not they want to produce highly educated graduates who are almost totally lacking in humanistic formation. It is recommended that teachers at all levels and in all fields of the humanities take cognizance of what is taking place, and voice opposition to it.

Audio-visual aids

Since the study showed that nearly half the teachers having access to audio-visual aids never use them, the Ministry of Education should begin a series of in-service courses around the country in A-V techniques. These courses could be taught by local inspectors, which in itself will encourage many teachers to attend. Inspectors not qualified to teach such a course could be trained at the Ministry in Bogotá. Also, the curriculum guide should state explicitly that teachers will use A-V equipment at every opportunity and offer examples of when and how this is done. As a result, supervisors would then check to make certain this regulation is being carried out.

A national coordinator

After considering the large number of potential contributors to

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[1]George C. Felix, "Recomendaciones para el desarrollo de la educación superior en Colombia," in La educación superior en Colombia, p. 301.

English teaching in Colombia, the writer suggests that the position of national coordinator of English (or foreign language) teaching be established in the Ministry of Education. It would be the duty of such an official to approach various philanthropic and assistance agencies with proposals for positive action to improve English teaching in Colombia. Mr. Paul Gotch of the British Council has demonstrated both the need and the potential of this position in the following statement:

> There is a lot I would like to see done to promote English teaching in Colombia but I can't request funds for projects from London unless Colombians initiate the proposal.[1]

Such a national official could make continual requests for funds and more than compensate for the cost of his salary in the support he would generate. He could also keep teachers informed of scholarships and grants available for travel and study to the English speaking world. The writer found most teachers to be unaware of these opportunities; and many were unaware of the activities of ICETEX, not to mention the Fulbright Commission and other similar agencies.[2]

ILCA

It is proposed that the Colombian-American Linguistic Institute

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[1]Paul Gotch, Director of the British Council in Colombia, private interview, Bogotá, July 8, 1971.

[2]There is some cause to believe that the present non-existence of such a position is a matter of unstated policy rather than an oversight. Juaquín Paez Gómez, a well known Colombian educator, raises the possibility that Colombians who are aware that foreign agencies are a source of assistance are unable to take advantage of it due to philosophical and nationalistic objections. See Juaquín Paez Gómez, Education and National Development in Colombia (Palo Alto: Stanford International Development Education Center, 1969), p. 122.

write an entirely new series of texts in order to solve a number of problems. The series should be simple in format so that it would no longer be necessary for teachers to take a course in order to use it. Since the materials would be published by the national press, they would be quite inexpensive, thus alleviating the present situation in which many students do not have texts because of the cost involved. Also, the widespread sale of such textbooks would constitute a boon for ILCA finances, because it keeps all income from the sale of its texts. This would permit ILCA to continue its teacher training activities, since through use of its text, many teachers would again become interested in taking its courses. It might even be possible to reopen closed branches throughout the country. This seems quite feasible since the Cali branch was selling nearly enough texts when it closed to offset the cost of maintaining the office open, as previously cited. It appears to the writer that above all, ILCA must not be closed.

Although this may mean rewriting the present materials, these are nearly ten years old and are due for revision now. In the case of such action, the preparation of another select series requiring a 330 hour in-service course would be imprudent.

Teacher training

At present, English teachers are structuring their questions so that students may mechanically respond, without having to give thought to what they are saying. As a result, Colombian students are unable to carry on a conversation using even everyday pleasantries after six years of English study. This may lead to the conclusion by students and

educators alike that English study constitutes a waste of time which might profitably be used to study some other discipline. Teacher training institutions in Colombia should be especially concerned about this finding regarding teacher behavior, and should design (or conduct) their methods courses so that the importance of meaningfulness and personalization in an aural-oral class is emphasized.

Certification

Since many teacher training programs of Colombian universities have shown themselves to be of poor quality, it is recommended that the Ministry of Education develop a set of required components for such programs. In this way university graduates lacking even modest pedagogical preparation could be denied admittance into the second category of the escalafón until at least a minimum number of professional preparation courses had been completed. As the situation improved, standards for teacher training programs could be increased until eventually a period of practice teaching under the supervision and guidance of a cooperating teacher could be required.

Curriculum guide

Due to the many shortcomings pointed out, the curriculum guide for English should be rewritten. The next edition should make more specific references to methodology, and include concepts such as the use of audio-visual aids, oral testing, and the teaching of culture, all of which are generally overlooked in the first edition.

Salary

If one considers that a full-time equivalency is 25 hours or

less per week, the teaching load in Colombia appears to be relatively good. This leaves the teacher with sufficient time to prepare lessons, work sheets and visuals. The problem which arises however is that many teachers use their free time to work at another school. The solution to this problem rests in a pay scale that would permit the teacher to be financially solvent without seeking additional employment. Although it is much easier to recommend that all teachers receive salaries equivalent to those paid at INEM's, than to actually allocate the necessary funds, Colombia must continue to view this as the primary means by which teaching can be improved. This investigation found that INEM teachers prepare tapes regularly, develop lesson plans weeks ahead of time, and hold regular departmental meetings after school. No matter what advancements teacher training may realize in the future, such activities will not be carried on while the average public school teacher must work at two or more jobs in order to subsist.

Suggestions for Future Research

This study has attempted to provide an initial reference portraying the current status of English teaching in Colombia. Because of the lack of previous research on the subject, the writer has strived for breadth rather than depth. Future research on English teaching should include larger samples of subjects in an effort to verify or deny the findings on each topic covered herein. While this provides future researchers with a large number of topics to be investigated, there are two other areas in which studies are needed as well.

The first of these deals with the influence of American and British values, as expressed by famous writers, on Colombia. The French program suggests the INEM's take advantage of this by having French teachers point out French influence on the formation of Colombian ideals, especially in literature and the arts.[1] If this were done for English also, it would be viewed more favorably by Colombians, who have a growing sense of nationalism.

For example, histories of literature mention frequently the influence of Edgar Allen Poe on the Colombian lyric poet, José Asunción Silva.[2] Similarities between Faulkner and García Márquez are also pointed out. These questions could become the topic of studies which would examine these and other writers in depth. The same could also be applied to the fields of art and music.

On the other hand, political and economic influence on Colombia should be avoided as topics of research, as well as technological influences which are changing the Colombian life style and causing the breakdown of traditional values. It is interesting to consider that "Big C" cultural influences are viewed positively, while "Little C" cultural influences are viewed negatively.[3] Evidence of the former

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[1]Instituto Colombiano de Construcciones Escolares, Institutos nacionales de educación media "INEM": Planes y programas de estudio, lenguas modernas, segunda parte (Bogotá: ICCE, 1969), p. 59.

[2]E. Herman Hespelt, ed., An Outline History of Spanish American Literature (2nd ed.: New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1942), pp. 94-95.

[3]These are differences mentioned by Nelson Brooks in the humanist's and the scientist's concept of the meaning of "culture." Culture (spelled with a capital C) refers to artistic endeavor, while culture (spelled with a lower case c) refers to way of life. For a more detailed description of this distinction frequently made in language teaching, see his Language and Language Learning, pp. 82-96.

can be found in the suggestion that the French teach such material, while signs of the latter can be found in the frequently heard complaints of cultural imperialism, which are lodged against the developed countries of the world, and especially the United States. It would be advantageous for the United States Information Agency and the British Council to support two philosophy or literature students in describing the artistic influences originating from both nations. Hopefully, they would also publish 1,000 copies and distribute them to English teachers around the country. As far as the two mentioned agencies are concerned, the favorable impact of such information would become a financial bargain.

A second piece of needed research is a study of the effect of ILCA training on the performance of teachers. At present there is no evidence to indicate that new-key methodology is having a favorable effect on the educational process. Since several teachers mentioned student dislike for oral work, it is possible that an aural-oral approach is not the most propitious for Colombia. Therefore, it is suggested that an experimental study be conducted comparing, in attitude and achievement, the students of a group of teachers who have received ILCA training with the students of a group of teachers who have not received this training. The study would not only ascertain the value of new-key methodology for Colombia, but it might have far reaching implications for ILCA specifically and teacher training in general.

The coming years will see the development of an interest in educational research in Colombia. There are already signs of this in the emphasis placed on research in the Master's degree programs which

have begun at the University of Antioquia and the National Pedagogical University. If English teaching is to prosper in Colombia, or even retain its present status, it will need support from the Ministry of Education. With so many other fields of study competing for the educational dollar, funding will go only to those subjects in which objective research has established definite needs, or solutions to problems. English teachers, teacher trainers, and supervisors must begin to actively support and carry out research, or face seeing their discipline occupy an increasingly tenuous position in the curriculum.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LIST OF INTERVIEWEES

Acevedo, Olivenio, Chief of Supervision, Department of Personnel, Ministry of Education, Bogotá
Acosta Cadena, Hugo, Director, ILCA, Bogotá
Albis-Gonzales, Víctor, Professor of Mathematics, Universidad Nacional, Bogotá
Aranjález, Carlos, Social Studies Inspector, Department of Magdelena, Santa Marta
Arboleda Ortiz, Alirio, Dean, Faculty of Education, University of Antioquia, Medellín
Arboleda Palacio, Gonzalo, Acting Director of ICETEX, Bogotá
Ardila Estrada, Carlos, English Teacher, Colegio Nacional Marco Fidel Suárez, Medellín
Arias, Leonor de, English Teacher, Instituto Técnico Distrital de Comercio, Bogotá
Arnove, Robert, Director, Ford Foundation in Colombia, Bogotá
Assa, Alberto, Director, Institute of Modern Languages, Barranquilla

Barrosa, Luis, English Teacher, Colegio Barranquilla de Senoritas, Barranquilla
Bedout, Gaston de, Director for Planning, Editorial Bedout, Librería Voluntad, Bogotá
Benson, Lawerence L., Secretary to the Florida-Colombia Alliance, Tallahassee
Bohórquez, Vilma, Methods Instructor, ILCA, Bogotá
Boltero, William, President, Colombian Association of Teachers of English, Medellín
Burgos, Elizabet, English Teacher, Colegio Barranquilla para Senoritas, Barranquilla
Buriticá, María Ligia, English Teacher, Centro Educacional Feminino de Antioquia, Medellín
Burns, Malcolm, Director, Centro Colombo-Americano, Pereira
Bustillos, Elsa, Secretary, Commission for Educational Exchange, Bogotá

Cado, Bill, Professor of English, University of Antioquia, Medellín
Caidedo, Hernando, Director, English Speaking Center, Medellín
Carrera, Juan Ignacio, English Teacher, Colegio Departamental Cuidad de Pasto, Pasto
Carter, Faye, Secretary to the Florida-Colombia Alliance, Tallahassee
Castana, Luz Angela, English Teacher, Colegio Santa Teresa de Jesus, Ibagué

Castillo, Arturo, English Teacher, Colegio San Francisco Jovier, Yumbo, Valle
Castro, Margarita, Head of Curriculum Development, ICOLPE, Bogotá
Castro Gómez, Jaime English Teacher, Escuela Nacional de Comercio, Cúcuta
Consuegra, María Auxiliadora, National INEM English Programmer, Bogotá
Cuervo, Leonor, Director, ILCA, Cali

Delolme, Mariette, English Teacher, Instituto Técnico Distrital de Comercio, Bogotá
Donald, Isabel de, Former secretary for the Commission for Educational Exchange, Bogotá
Drumgold de Torres, Pegi Lee, Editor, How, University of Los Andes, Bogotá

Fajardo Penalosa, Alfonso, Operador Proyeccionista, Centro Colombo-Americano, Barranquilla

García Restrepo, Germán, Director, Colombian Commission for Educational Exchange, Bogotá
Garrido, Angel, English Teacher, INEM, Bogotá
Godoy, José, English Teacher, Instituto Técnico Salesiano, Cúcuta
Gómez, Doneli, English Teacher, Centro Educacional Feminino de Antioquia, Medellín
Gómez, Gabriel A., Professor of English, Universidad Nacional, Bogotá
Gotch, Paul, Director, British Council, Bogotá
Gutiérrez, Alicia, Methods Instructor, ILCA, Bogotá

Hayward, Robert T., Director of Courses, Centro Colombo-Americano, Bogotá
Herrera, María Eugenia de, English Teacher, Normal Matilde Tono de Elemaitre, Cartagena
Holmes, Gordon, Former representative of the American Book Company in Colombia, Bogotá
Hurtado Flores, Germán, English Teacher, Colegio Rufino J. Cuervo, Armenia

Ibarguen, Alberto, Assistant Director of the Peace Corps in Colombia, Bogotá
Iceland, Harry B., Director, Centro Colombo-Americano, Cartagena

Jaramillo, Ganzalo, Language Inspector for Antioquia, Medellín
Jiménez, Hector, Methods Instructor, ILCA, Bogotá

Kennedy, Christian, Academic Director, Meyer Language Center, Bucaramanga

Little, Jean, Director of Courses, Centro Cultural Colombo-Americano Medellín
Londoño, Jairo, Supervisor of Student Teachers of English, University of Antioquia, Medellín
Lopera, César, English Teacher, Colegio Nacional Marco Fidel Suárez, Medellín

Maffla Bilbao, Alonso, English Teacher, Pasto
Manjarez, Jaime, English Teacher, Colegio de Santander, Bucaramanga
Marchetti, Katherine, English Teaching Specialist, Centro Colombo-Americano, Bogotá
Maurice, Bertha Raquel de, Student Teaching Supervisor for Foreign Languages, Universidad Nacional, Bogotá
Márquez Ochoa, Pedro, English Teacher, Colegio Barranquilla de Varones, Barranquilla
McElhiney, Gary, Methods Instructor, ILCA, Cali
Mock, Ann, Director of Courses, Centro Colombo-Americano, Cartagena
Munoz, Hector G. Head of the Department of Modern Languages, Universidad de Nariño, Pasto
Munoz de Miranda, Marina, Head, Bureau of International Relations, ICETEX, Bogotá
Murillo, José, English Inspector, Bogotá

Navarrete, Antonio, Professor of English, Department of Modern Languages, Universidad del Valle, Cali
Niño, Mercedes, English Teacher, Colegio Santa Teresa de Jesús, Ibagué
Northam, Leland, Ex-President of ASOCOPI, and representative of the American Book Company in Colombia, Bogotá

Olgín, Eduardo, English Teacher, INEM, Cali
Ortega Moreno, José, English Teacher, Colegio de Santander, Bucaramanga

Paez, Socorro de, English Methods Instructor, Universidad Javeriana, Bogotá
Patiño Rosselli, Carlos, Chairman, Department of Philology and Languages, Universidad Nacional, Bogotá
Paz Rendón, Jorge, Head, English Department, Colegio Departamental Ciudad de Pasto, Pasto
Perdomo, Miguel Antonio, English Teacher, Colegio Nacional Santa Librada, Neiva
Perdomo Cerquera, Esperanza, English Teacher, Colegio Departamental Feminino, Neiva
Pinto, Jesus María, President, Alianza Florida-Colombia, Hotel Ambalá, Ibagué
Pinto Afanador, Alfonso, English Teacher, Colegio José Elias Puyana, Floridablanca, Santander

Rada, Carlos Alberto, English Inspector, Department of Tolima, Ibagué
Rebolledo, Guido, Language Inspector, Secretaría de Educacion, Pasto
Rendono, Sonia, English Teacher, INEM, Cali
Rodríquez, Sheila, English Teacher, Instituto Pedagógico Santa Ana, Baramoa, Barranquilla

Quintanilla, Víctor, Director of Courses, Centro Colombo-Americano, Cali

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APPENDIX B

THE ENGLISH CLASSROOM

1. Arrangement of furniture

   4. in a semicircle
   3. divided into sections
   2. other_____
   1. in rows

2. Lighting

   4. Use of fluorescente lighting.
   3. Use of a sufficient amount of shaded incandescent lighting.
   2. Use of an insufficient amount of and/or unshaded incandescent lighting.
   1. No lighting installations or non-use of such installations when needed.

3. Cultural situation

   4. The classroom is filled with materials representative of the foreign culture and creates the image of being a cultural island.
   3. A Considerable amount of cultural materials are present to offer the student a variety of concepts about the foreign culture.
   2. The classroom appears barren with only a few items representative of the foreign culture being present.
   1. The classroom is completely void of cultural materials.

4. Cultural aids present

   a. _____maps
   b. _____calendars
   c. _____travel posters
   d. _____pictures (to include signs)
   e. _____newspaper clippings
   f. _____artifacts
   g. _____displays of stamps
   h. _____displays of money
   i. _____records or tapes of foreign songs
   j. _____other_____

THE ENGLISH CLASSROOM--Continued

5. Audio-visual aids

a. _____record players
b. _____records supplemental to textual materials
c. _____tape recorders
d. _____video tape recorders
e. _____film projector_____type
f. _____filmstrip projector
g. _____slide projector
h. _____tapes supplemental to textual materials
i. _____other_____
j. _____laboratory
_____type (electronic classroom, etc.)
_____sufficient booths for all students
Write other descriptive comments on the back of page.

6. Other--write comments below

a. Classroom properly ventilated (windows open, etc.)
b. Proper temperature attained (heating or air-conditioning)
c. Distracting noises or odors
d. Size of class
e. Availability of textbooks and supplies

7. Question for teacher

a. Do you currently hold another job either full or part time?
b. How many years experience do you have teaching English?
c. Have you ever lived in or visited an English speaking country? How long?
d. What do you consider to be the chief problems of the teacher of English in Colombian public colegios?

APPENDIX C

CONDICIONES QUE DEBE REUNIR UN PROFESOR DE IDIOMAS DE ESCUELA SECUNDARIA

La siguiente lista fue compuesta por los directores de la Modern Language Association de los Estados Unidos para el uso del investigador educativo en lo que se relaciona con las habilidades del profesorado de idiomas.

Favor marcar con una señal al lado, el rango que le corresponde a cada habilidad.

No escriba su nombre en ninguna parte de este cuestionario. Al investigador no le interesan las respuestas particulares sino las respuestas de la totalidad de los profesores que participan en esta encuesta.

1. Comprensión Oral

Sub-mínima

Mínima--La habilidad de coger el sentido de lo que dice un nativo culto cuando pronuncia cuidadosamente y habla de un tema cotidiano.

Bien--La habilidad de entender las conversaciones, las conferencias, y las noticias emitidas por radio y televisión cuando están pronunciadas a una velocidad normal.

Notable--La habilidad de entender fácil y rápidamente toda clase de habla, incluyendo conversación rápida y en grupo, comedias, y películas.

2. Habla

Sub-mínima

Mínima--La habilidad de hablar sobre temas preparados en la clase sin pausas y errores graves, y de emplear las palabras necesarias para defenderse en el extranjero, hablando con una pronunciación comprensible para un nativo.

Bien--La habilidad de hablar con el nativo sin cometer errores obvios, y con dominio de vocabulario y sintaxis suficiente para expresarse en una conversación de larga duración.

Notable--La habilidad de aproximarse al habla nativa en cuanto a vocabulario, entonación y pronunciación, y de intercambiar ideas con facilidad.

3. Lectura

Sub-mínima

Mínima--La habilidad de entender, sin traducir, el sentido de la prosa simple y no técnica con la excepción de algunas palabras poco frecuentes.

Bien--La habilidad de leer con comprensión inmediata la prosa y la poesía de dificultad normal y contenido adulto.

Notable--La habilidad de leer, casi con tanta facilidad como en español, materia de bastante dificultad, como ensayos y críticas literarias.

4. Escritura

Sub-mínima

Mínima--La habilidad de escribir correctamente las frases y párrafos que podrían desarrollarse oralmente en la clase, y la de escribir una carta simple.

Bien--La habilidad de escribir una composición simple con claridad y certeza en el uso de vocabulario, modismo y sintaxis.

Notable--La habilidad de escribir sobre temas variados, con facilidad de expresión, y con capacidad para expresar diferentes matices en el estilo que emplea.

5. Análisis del idioma

Sub-mínimo

Mínimo--Conocimiento de los patrones del Inglés, tanto fonológicos como sintácticos, y cómo difieren de los del español.

Bien--Conocimiento del desarrollo etimológico y las características actuales del idioma, y de las diferencias entre el lenguaje escrito y el lenguaje hablado.

Notable--La habilidad de aplicar a la pedagogía los conocimientos de la linguística descriptiva, comparada e histórica.

6. Cultura

Sub-mínima

Mínima--Comprensión de la importancia del idioma como elemento esencial de las experiencias que forman una cultura, y un conocimiento básico de la geografía, historia, literatura, arte, costumbres, y civilización contemporánea de la gente de habla inglesa.

Bien--Lectura de algunas obras maestras de la Literatura, comprensión de las diferencias que existen entre la cultura extranjera y la suya, y posesión de información sobre la gente extranjera y su civilización.

Notable--Conocimiento de las gentas de habla inglesa, adquirido por contacto personal y viajes al extranjero, y por el estudio sistematico de descripciones de su cultura, literatura y arte.

7. Preparación profesional

Sub-mínima

Mínima--Información acerca de los métodos y las técnicas de la enseñanza de idiomas.

Bien--Habilidad para aplicar métodos y técnicas a la ensenanza de los idiomas, incluyendo los métodos audio-visuales, y habilidad para relacionar su campo con los otros campos del currículo.

Notable--Haber alcanzado maestría en el uso de la metodología, y habilidad para experimentar y evaluar nuevos métodos y técnicas.

APPENDIX D

MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE OF EXPERTS

1. Jairo Londoño
   Supervisor of Student Teachers of English
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2. Gonzalo Jaramillo
   Language Inspector
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   President, Local chapter of ASOCOPI
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4. Katherine Marchetti
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5. Carlos Patiño Roselli
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6. Bertha Raquel de Maurice
   Supervisor of Student Teachers of Foreign Languages
   National University
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7. Guido Robelledo
   Language Inspector
   Department of Nariño
   Pasto

8. Hector Munoz
   Chairman, Department of Languages
   and Inspector of Student Teachers of Foreign Languages
   University of Nariño, Pasto

MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE OF EXPERTS
Continued

9. Hugo Acosta Cadena
   Director
   Colombian-American Linguistic Institute
   Bogotá

10. Carlos Alberto Rada
    Language Inspector
    Department of Tolima
    Ibagué

APPENDIX E

A COMMENTARY ON OBSERVATION IN COLOMBIA

Observing colegios in Colombia is not an easy task. Perhaps the greatest obstacle is the fluctuation which exists in the educational establishment. In a rural school I visited, the teacher had received a twenty day leave of absence and no one was appointed to replace him. In Santa Marta I arrived at a school after making an appointment with the teacher the previous day, and found that the rector had dismissed classes after the second period in honor of her birthday. In another school, the only teacher of upper level courses was suddenly called out for a week to join an evaluation team, again with no teacher sent to replace him. In the departmental secretariat I was often misinformed as to whether or not a normal school offered the basic cycle (where English is taught) or the last two years only. Also, during the Pan-American games, when many schools were on morning sessions only, few people knew which schools had chosen this alternative.

Once a class was located, other problems frequently arose. Naturally, some teachers do not want their classes observed. The writer feels that there are considerably fewer such people in Colombia than in the United States. Other teachers want the observer to speak to the class, or explain what they are doing while they are doing it. In order to discourage such behavior, it became necessary for the

writer to emphasize before each class that he only wanted to sit in the back of the room and observe, and he did not want to speak to the class or participate in any way. Furthermore, he did not even want to be introduced to the class, although this was done, in spite of the request, on over half of the occasions.

Frequently a department head or group chairman will only want his best teachers to be seen. In order to circumvent this, it was necessary to arrive unannounced or to ask to see the first class meeting on a particular level. By the use of such methods, it was possible to see a cross section of teaching abilities and methods as was indicated by the fluctuation in the interaction matrices obtained.

In spite of the problems encountered, observing high schools in Colombia is probably no more difficult than in an American college town. In fact, the reward often justifies the effort. Most Colombians are extremely hospitable. An invitation to a beer, lunch, or supper frequently follows an observation. In smaller cities a guided tour of the town can also be expected. Consequently, when the task is completed, the researcher has mixed feelings. He has encountered frustration but he has also made unforgettable friendships. In the long run, it is the warmth of the people that will be remembered.

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VITA

Charles W. Stansfield was born on July 31, 1946, in Daytona Beach, Florida. He attended high school at Riverside Military Academy in Gainesville, Georgia, and graduated in 1964. That same year he entered The Florida State University from which he graduated in 1968 with a major in Spanish and a minor in Foreign Language Education. Mr. Stansfield also did undergraduate work under scholarship at the University of Los Andes in Bogota, Colombia, the University of Valencia in Valencia, Spain, and the Monterrey Institute of Technology in Monterrey, Mexico. While in Valencia he met his wife Maria, a native of that city.

After receiving the baccalaureate, he began a graduate program in Foreign Language Education at The Florida State University under an NDEA Title VI fellowship. During the 1968-1969 academic year he taught junior high school Spanish on a part-time basis at the Florida State University Demonstration School. In 1969, he received the degree of Master of Arts in Foreign Language Education with a minor in Spanish. He then began work on a second master's in Teaching English as a Foreign Language with a minor in Linguistics, completing this degree the following year. After finishing course work for the doctorate in Foreign Language Education, Mr. Stansfield became an Instructor in the Department of Spanish and Portuguese of the University of Colorado at Boulder, in August, 1970. There he was promoted to the rank of Assistant Professor

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Mr. Stansfield's publications on language teaching include seven book reviews; four in Hispania and three in the Modern Language Journal, and three articles; one in the American Foreign Language Teacher, and two on microfiche in Research in Education. He has also given several lectures to professional and public audiences on the subject of foreign language teaching.