This paper describes the English language problems encountered by foreign students at New Mexico State University, students whose previous educational experiences have included extensive use of British English. Specifically dealt with are West African students having lived in a situation where "transplanted English" was introduced by administrators and military men, but did not succeed in eradicating the preexisting languages of the territories in question. Following a discussion of the historical and educational background of New Mexico State University, the foreign student background is described, and features that characterize the varieties of English spoken by these students are listed. Since few foreign students succeed in regular freshman English composition courses, the university has a special English program. Admission and placement of foreign students is discussed, and comparison is made with courses in Spanish for native Spanish-speaking Americans. Three basic needs are defined: (1) greater intelligibility in speech, (2) greater intelligibility in writing, and (3) a greater sociolinguistic range in terms of knowing the rules that govern interaction and conversation in American English. It is hoped that the existing English course for foreign students can be revised to meet these needs. (CLK)
BRITISH-TRADITION ENGLISH IN THE AMERICAN UNIVERSITY

Betty Lou Dubois
New Mexico State University

INTRODUCTION

After submitting the title which appears above, I realized how presumptuous it was to use such a broad term. As far as I know, the fate of British-tradition English in the universities of our country is not being studied or even discussed. I will therefore give an account, in a rather practical, ad hoc fashion, of my experiences with students with long immersion in British English—not just those who have had a British teacher here and there or used British textbooks as they studied English as a foreign language—during the pursuit of their education at a particular university with a particular set of conditions, attitudes, and traditions, New Mexico State University. Perhaps after many such studies of British-tradition English at various sites, we will one day be able to discuss its status in the American university, instead of in an American university, as I will now do.

THE UNIVERSITY SETTING

New Mexico State University began its existence in 1889 as the New Mexico College of Agricultural and Mechanical Arts, a land grant institution. During perhaps the first fifty years of its existence, New Mexico A & M was a small school which devoted the major part of its efforts toward agriculture, as might be expected from the name. In the 1950's, during the Sputnik scare, attention was turned toward other sciences, resulting in the development of comparably good programs in pure and applied scientific fields. The Colleges of Education and Business Administration, like the previously mentioned fields, grew apace with overall university growth in the immediate post-World War II and subsequent periods. During most of the history of the institution, social sciences and liberal and fine arts functioned chiefly as service appendages to the scientific divisions, although recently, efforts are being made to bring the arts and the rest of the sciences into the prominence they must have if the University is to be truly deserving of the name.

It is no surprise that a university that has made an international reputation in agriculture and engineering should attract international students to study chiefly in those areas. Many administrators and faculty members from these disciplines have consulted in various countries of the world, and they have often been our most effective student recruiters. Visitors to the campus, as well as alumni, also help to attract students from other countries. It seems reasonable to say that at least 90% of our international students take degrees in agriculture, engineering, or one of the pure sciences. During the past three and a half years, a few have majored in economics or business administration, one in guidance,
two in mass communications, a couple in education--extension education at that!—and so on.

Not by accident, New Mexico State has a fair proportion of international students, not only because of offerings in specialties urgently desired by developing nations, but also because the university prides itself on its genuine commitment to international education. Besides the informal recruiting mentioned in the previous paragraph, the Office of International Programs actively seeks qualified students and oversees their welfare once they are here. Moreover, the commitment to international education extends from the administration to the faculty as well. With a few notable exceptions, faculty are genuinely dedicated to the education of such students and are on occasion willing to go far out of their ordinary routines to offer needed help. It is not at all unusual to find a faculty member giving a foreign student extra time to take an exam, substituting an oral exam for a student whose writing skills are not yet up to par, or carefully regularizing the English on a student's term paper. Probably the size of the university--approximately 10,000 students on the main campus—is a factor in creating such a good climate for international students. Although the faculty is too large for some purposes, it has still not grown so much that interdepartment and intercollege communication has become difficult. It is easy to get to know concerned faculty across the campus to discuss problems which arise. Many call me for assistance and advice, and I feel free to reciprocate. In summary: although conditions for international students at New Mexico State University cannot be described as perfect, a supportive environment is created for them, far better, certainly, than at many another school.

STUDENT ENGLISH BACKGROUND

The students in question arrive as more or less proficient speakers of what can be called transplanted English. Historically, transplants of English have had three classes of result. When, as in the case of Australia, for example, sufficient speakers of English arrived in a new land, made their permanent homes there, bred in large enough numbers to establish themselves, the transplant "took" to the extent that English became fully established as a geographical variety, often swamping indigenous languages and later arrivals. In a second category of transplantation, for example, Jamaica, English in some sense established itself with the original inhabitants but in a wide range of varieties, from creole to standard; that is, language contact had very great effects on English. In the third type, English was brought not so much by settlers as by administrators and military men, who came in insufficient numbers to eradicate the pre-existing languages of the territories. English therefore became a superposed governmental/administrative language which added to an already complex linguistic situation. Prime examples of the third transplant result are found in the Indian subcontinent and the former West African colonies of England.

Although the Indian subcontinent and West Africa bear some historical
similarities in the establishment of English within their borders, there are still some differences. Kirk-Greene points out that the British were in India for three hundred years; they arrived in West Africa a scant hundred years ago. In both cases, they met a language situation of enormous complexity, as measured in numbers of indigenous languages, but India, as opposed to the West African nations, had a history of written scholarship and high culture more than 2000 years ago. Sanskrit and Tamil were languages considered worthy of cultivation and study in East and West alike. Moreover, India had at least one language of wider communication spoken by millions of people, a condition not duplicated in West Africa. Finally, West Africa—for good or ill—lacked groups of "indigenous British" who identified their personal fate with that of the country, as India had (1971:124). A full study of the development of English in each region in which it has been transplanted would require an extensive account of particular historical facts. For purposes of the present paper, however, experience has shown that there are actual similarities (and theoretical considerations, to be discussed below) so that languages products of the third transplant situation can indeed be treated as a single category. For simplicity, then, I will deal with West African students and assume that what is said applies as well to East Africans, Indians, Pakistanis, and so on.

To the question of what kind of English we are talking about, no one can give a simple answer. As put succinctly by Spencer: "The West Africans who know and use English do not constitute a homogeneous speech community in regard either to their mother tongues or to English" (1971:7). School and church offer consistent exposure to the most standard English—formal written and spoken—that West Africans are likely to encounter. Depending on topic and other factors, business and governmental affairs may very likely be carried on in English, although one more remote from British norms. In the streets and in the play yards, it is possible to encounter pidgin, and on the coast and in certain urban centers, creole. With such a spectrum of varieties, Spencer warns against thinking of them as wholly separate, well-defined, stressing the interpermeability of the varieties of English to be found in West Africa.

Not only is there great variability present already (which has recently been augmented by the presence of Peace Corps teachers and the use of American T.V. programs), but there is ongoing social change as well, with the result that: "The place of English within the West African total language configuration is not therefore static, nor are the attitudes of their peoples toward English constant" (Spencer 1971:1). The position, function, prestige, and value of English compared to indigenous languages is neither uniform nor predictable from region, class, or educational background (Banjo 1973:306). Because nearly all English-speaking West Africans have English as a second language and retain their maternal tongues, and because some have in addition an African language of wider communication, West Africans lack a full range of English styles and registers such as are necessary for Britons and Americans. For example, the choice of language in away-from-home exchanges between adults can be
influenced by a shared maternal language or an African language of wider communication. In the north of Nigeria, if there is no common native language, such conversations are customarily conducted in Hausa, but in the south, English is used (Kirk-Greene 1971:128).

Admist uncertainties about the status and kinds of English in West Africa, there is nevertheless evidence of the existence of a separate variety (or varieties): positive evidence in that, as Boadi has noted, many feel it "desirable for educated Ghanian users of English to impress their African personality on the language"; negative evidence in that others insist that a borrowed language had better be used "properly," (1971:53) a tacit admission of differences from British English. We are undoubtedly in presence of a widely-recognized phenomenon of prolonged language contact: "errors" in English have gradually become entrenched and widely used, with the resulting establishment of bilingual or contact norms. Dispute over the kind of English appropriate to West Africa will assuredly prove moot, since it is unimaginable that Africans can be made into speakers of perfectly British English even if they choose to accept the change. In fact, there already exists a serious literature--both prose and poetry--in West Africa and a thriving pot-boiler industry of prose romances, the Amisha novelettes, which will help to establish the independence of the writers' African English.

What is wanted, clearly, is extensive descriptive study of the English used in the region, to identify existent/nascent dialect(s). Despite the present lack of such work, it is possible to characterize, however tentatively, the English of some West Africans as possessing some or all of the following (Spencer 1971:26-29):

1. Syllable timing
2. Tonicity
3. Narrow range of syllable structures (resulting from cluster simplification)
4. Reduction of vowel contrasts
5. Loss of postvocalic nasal consonants (realization with previous vowel)
6. Simplified inflectional system
7. Vocabulary differences with British English (variant collocations, retention of older meanings, rule generalizations, borrowed and coined words, etc.).

NMSU ENGLISH PROGRAM

Courses

The English program for international students at NMSU came into existence as a direct response to the needs of students, as evidenced by complaints from the faculty and academic failures. Very few international students succeeded in the normal freshman English composition class in competition with American students; a three-hour composition
course was set up, therefore, to substitute for it. While three hours of composition (with a heavy dose of reading, speaking, and selected advanced grammar topics) is sufficient for a portion of the students, others arrive needing more extensive grammar review and practice in speaking. Those from countries where English is a foreign rather than a second language and where Neolithic language teaching is still the rule can arrive with a very low level of English proficiency indeed, if we define proficiency as "ability to receive or transmit information in the...language for some pragmatically useful purpose within a real-life setting" (Clark 1975:10).

After study which has consisted of grammatical analysis and translation, they are essentially unable to speak, understand, read, or write. For these students, three preliminary courses were added to the curriculum. The first two constitute a one-year elementary sequence to which students having a TOEFL score of 350 or below were to be assigned. Because of inadequate staffing, they have never been offered, to my knowledge. The third, given every semester, is an intermediate grammar review with emphasis on speaking, which originally met five hours per week for three hours credit, evidently because it was considered remedial in nature. What they perceived as extra, unrewarded class meetings was resented by the majority of students, and the new scheme of granting five hours credit—since intermediate courses in other languages carry full credit—has relieved the situation.

Admission of Students

Students regularly admitted to the University who do not have U.S. citizenship and who apply directly from a foreign country have in theory been required to submit a TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) score. In practice, there has been differential treatment of students based on our past experience with their countrymen here. There has apparently been no rigidly fixed minimum admission score, but something in the neighborhood of 425 is considered acceptable, except that 450 is required for students from certain countries who, in the main, have demonstrated little interest in improving their English skills and who thus need a higher beginning level. In previous semesters, various exceptions were made for particular students. In addition, West Africans have been routinely admitted without examination, given that their secondary schooling has been in English and that at least in school, they have been functioning effectively in English for several years. Numbers of international students admitted to our university have increased dramatically in the past two years—catastrophically for the teaching staff—and it would be easy to double the number again. However, because of dissatisfaction with the performance of a portion of the students and because a substantial increase in servicing the English program is not high on the University priority list, the Faculty Senate has recently passed a bill requiring a 500 TOEFL score for admission, a policy to be applied uniformly to all students, regardless of their country of origin or whether they are graduates or undergraduates.
Other routes of admission are open. A student who has studied English at an accredited university is of course given transfer credit although some of them are not minimally proficient by NMSU standards. A student who has graduated from a U.S. high school is admitted without being required to demonstrate English proficiency. Such students are comparatively rare; the few we have have shown themselves to be quite proficient. Any person—regardless of previous education or language skill—can be admitted to nondegree status through the College of Continuing Education and can enroll in any course offered. The students who come into the English program via this route have been mainly student wives or recent immigrants without previous formal study of English. They should obviously be in a beginning course, but since there is none, they are accepted into the intermediate one, although they cannot meet the requirements in one or even two semesters. An occasional international student who intends to become a degree candidate enters the university through this backdoor route. If large numbers become aware of this possibility, a special policy may have to be adopted to cover the situation.

Placement

Having only two courses and having made the decision not to refuse admission to the lower one to underprepared students (they are, however, warned that they may not be able to meet the requirements in one semester), NMSU has three placement possibilities: 103 (the intermediate course), 104 (the alternate freshman composition course), and exemption from further study. The placement procedure in operation when I came in January 1973 was intermediate between an informal system such as the one then in operation at the University of New Mexico (if possible, students were enrolled in one of the three courses according to evaluation of transcripts; the residue were enrolled in the beginning course, to be sorted out on the basis of the first week’s performance) and an elaborate, fully formal system such as that of the University of Michigan or UCLA. At NMSU, the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (less the oral and composition sections) was administered to all incoming students and placement was done according to cutoff points determined from actual experience. In general, cutoffs were lower than the recommendations listed in the accompanying Manual, and in no case was a student’s total academic load reduced.

Then, as now, the instructor had authority to rectify placement errors on the basis of performance at the beginning of the semester, and serious effort was (and is) made to verify placement. Reasons for shifting downward include lack of speaking ability to match test scores and lack of writing ability, i.e., inability to achieve functional integration of the discrete points tested by the Michigan instrument. Reasons for shifting upward include the usual questions of test reliability (an occasional student has a bad day caused by jet lag, is relatively unfamiliar with multiple choice exams with separate answer sheets, or has little experience with speeded exams) and dialect and style matters. Students
who use West African English fluently may show up poorly on the Michigan Test, which emphasizes formal written American English norms. Incidentally, the same is true for some native New Mexicans, university seniors ready to graduate whose scores would place them in a class of English language study with reduced academic classload, if the Michigan placement recommendations were followed. In fairness to the Michigan Test, let me state that it makes no claim to validity other than for those for whom English is truly a foreign language.

The Michigan Test has been retained as our initial placement tool because it has worked well in the circumstances. Our English program is small—next fall there will be three sections taught one by me and two by another staff member—and we have not only a great deal of administrative flexibility, but cooperation from concerned academic departments and administrators. The other side of the coin is that our small size is a disadvantage in that, if we had a large number of international students, we might set aside a class exclusively for West Africans and pitch it to their proficiency levels.

COMPARISON TO SPANISH FOR THE SPANISH-SPEAKING

Enough has been written to show that there are certain similarities in the situation described to that of the Spanish-speaking in the United States who for administrative reasons must be put in foreign language Spanish classes. At the early stages, such an arrangement makes rational materials selection impossible. Beginners are willing to work with a foreign language textbook containing exercises, but I have not found West Africans willing to do so. It must be the case also with the Spanish-speaking, for it is insulting to proficient speakers to ask them to use materials far below their level. I have my greatest success with West Africans using newspapers, magazines, and a novel as textbooks. Even when the materials are suitable, however, West Africans and Spanish speakers alike most often find them written in a dialect not their own. Probably West Africans have an easier time of it than Chicanos, for example, being long accustomed to decoding into their dialects. The two groups may share an unwillingness to adopt the dialect used by the instructional staff, if it is already not their own. The customary dialect serves as vehicle for personal and social identity, which few of us are willing to renounce. Moreover, adopting the classroom dialect may involve more or less conscious identification with another country: for Chicanos, with Mexico, if the northern dialect of that country is being used; for West Africans, with the United States, while their previous English loyalty has been toward Britain.

There are also marked differences between the two groups. The West African students represent the top products of their countries' educational systems. They are adventuresome, adaptable, ambitious. They are aware of the need back home for education, and many come genuinely dedicated to learning what they can to help their countries when they return. Many have left government jobs to come to school and count upon a promotion
when they have their degrees in hand. As to their social class, it is difficult for me to judge. I remember one young man's reply to a request to imagine his home at six p.m. and describe what is going on. He began: "We are sitting down waiting for dinner. The cook is preparing the meal, the houseboys are setting the table...." Others come from less urban, more traditional tribal settings, but all seem to have the feeling of upward personal mobility. They appear to take pride in their ability in English, which I judge a necessary though perhaps not a sufficient pre-condition for success.

It would be foolish and insulting to describe Chicanos merely as the opposite of West African students, for both groups partake of the range of human intelligence and traits. Yet, the situation of Chicanos as a largely lower socioeconomic, racially identifiable, linguistic minority has had its adverse effect. Chicanos are not so confident of being able to find a useful, satisfying occupation. Not only are they not their country's top educational products, they are in fact, as a group, systematically excluded from the higher reaches of the educational system. They are not always the eager, self-assured learners that the West African students mainly are, but I have no doubt that Spanish language courses designed to capitalize on their abilities—both receptive and productive—and to teach them what they need to know will accomplish a great deal in this direction. Contrary to West Africans, until recently they have not been encouraged to be proud of their Spanish and in fact, young educators the question of the use of Southwestern Spanish is still keenly debated.

SPECIAL NEEDS OF WEST AFRICANS

All students, including American citizens, who come to the University need to learn to read better, to expand their vocabularies, to use the words they already know with greater precision and art, to express themselves effectively in speaking and writing. West African students, who arrive relatively proficient in English, have further needs, two of which, I am sure, they do not willingly recognize. The first is for greater intelligibility in speech, apparently not a problem in the home countries. Some of the sound features to be found in West African English are listed earlier; all of them are in evidence in NMSU students.

In addition to syllable timing, cluster simplification, and tonicity, I have found phoneme substitution, for example, /f/ for initial /p/, /v/ and /b/ confusion, /s/ for /θ/ and so on. Reduction of vowel contrasts is quite obvious. All students I have encountered are r-less, which causes no difficulty here, since some Americans are r-less too. h-dropping is prevalent, again without affecting intelligibility: Interestingly enough, been and being, seen and seeing have become homonyms, as indeed the latter pair are for at least some Americans. Post-vocalic /n/ is realized most often as a nasal, although for some students it has disappeared, i.e., /kæntækjt/ has become /katækt/. The latter was a little hard for me to learn to understand, but in general, individual phoneme errors cause little problem in intelligibility, as the listener
can adapt readily. What cannot so easily be compensated for is syllable timing and tonicity, which seriously compromise intelligibility of speech, especially for university personnel not accustomed to dealing with international students.

I have attempted to work on these problems in class through modified TESOL techniques (little success) and out of class by having selected students use an excellent set of pronunciation tapes under unsupervised conditions (little success). We have the possibility of using new laboratory facilities expected to be ready in January 1977, and I am sure that it will be worth a try to self-pace the pronunciation course and hold out the reward of early release upon completion of reasonable objectives. Meanwhile, much of the work in both English courses is done in small groups. I make certain that the groups contain students from various language groups and in these groups, at least, the West Africans must make themselves clearly understood.

Intelligibility of writing presents another sort of problem, one which is equally difficult to attack. Some, though certainly not all, students' writing seems diffuse, elusive in meaning. More words are used than seem necessary, and many are used in ways so remote from American norms that it is difficult to construe sentences precisely. A few samples will illustrate.

Before Laughing Boy and Slim Girl had planned to return to the people, everyone of them had understood each other. They very much more improved their love and every one had believed that one could not nicely survived without the other, and probed that any where they go they would settled in a good and peaceful condition.

An individual of this norm lives a physical and harmonious mental relaxation with every member of his group.

Unstable as she is with no ego-culture bounds, she joined this new dehumanizing prostitution and made a better and probably endless just for profit enterprise.

Slim Girl was not as equaly unlucky as culturally deprived.

These people also translated her civilization as a cost of culture and respect for their traditions.

I hope that one day I will go back to Nigeria and for some the first week will be of difference to my people.

This phenomenon may be no more than a result of inexperience and undereducation in English, some of it at the hands of teachers not fully proficient themselves. Bowen (1973:299) notes, for example, the disastrous effect of the Kenya system, where English was taught in rural
elementary schools by teachers inadequately prepared and supervised. (Additional evidence of undereducation can be found in West African spelling pronunciation, for example, /klow8iz/ for /klow8z/. Undereducation is, of course, found in native speakers of English; if they happen to be university students and it is manifested in vocabulary, we call it "collegese." The following sample, from a U.S. born Chicano, shows the same kind of diffuse vocabulary usage, I think:

Leaving the Cd. Juarez city limits, one is immediately struck with the pride of being an international citizen because of the primordial traits that the Mexicans and the Mexican-Americans share. The countryside along the road to Chihuahua almost declares the bloody history that took place there and instead, one sees a resplendent countryside of bucolic serenity.

Such writing is of course not the monopoly of Chicanos, for many monolingual English speakers write that way, too. A complicating factor, one which makes it risky to dismiss such West African writing as the result entirely of inexperience and undereducation, is the presence of published popular fiction which displays the same characteristics. Kirk-Greene (1971:130, 132) gives examples from the Onitsha novelettes:

...they look out for flimsy excuse to issue you queries.

It is known to my poor self the hows and whys of politics. As from now I shall call group of politicians—Peoples of varied wishes that assume one name. Politics is forced out tears by intense anger. One can not remember any time both in dream and normal life that poor self stood among honourable ones, expressing in opposition terms against a number more than one, of course, except in concerts.

This writing may perhaps be an illustration of established semantic differences from British English which Banjo (1973:307) says are the most notable characteristic of African English. A second major need of West Africans, at least as far as their stay in the United States is concerned, is for the full inflectional systems of English. Typical of the reduction to be found are the following two examples:

...Slim Girl['s] inability to bear children....

...if they succeeded in return[ing] to the people.

The absence of a grammatical morpheme does not often affect intelligibility greatly, all other things being equal, but I fear that some Americans associate reduced inflection with poverty and ignorance, even stupidity, the more so when the speaker's skin is dark. I am convinced that absence of inflections can produce emotional barriers to communication and at a minimum bad attitudinal side effects. A solution, however, is difficult to find. West African students seem, as a whole, quite indifferent to
standardizing their English morphology, for reasons discussed above. Second language teaching techniques most emphatically do not work for this group, at least in any way in which I have used them myself. To the contrary, most Africans refuse to participate at all.

Reduction in the number of vowel contrasts in the English of West Africans shows up in their writing, too. Sometimes it causes very little miscommunication, as in the following sentence: "Their love will stand the test of time." The only genuine collocational possibility for the cliché is test. One can also quickly accommodate to human being instead of human been. Sometimes, however, I am brought up short, as the day when I read something on the order of "the truth of their situation licked out." Asked to explain, the student informed me that lick out is very common in Nigeria, and I was about to store this very vivid metaphor in my mind when I realized that he intended leak out. The absence of /h/, postvocalic /n/, and /r/ causes another order of writing difficulty. Sometimes one will be omitted, as tied for tired; sometimes one will be added, as heat for eat, confident instead of confident. Since West African pronunciation makes the spelling of a large number of such words a less faithful rendering than mine does, for example, they have have to memorize a greater number of words than I have as containing silent letters (as gnome and thumb do for speakers of all dialects).

The concerns just listed are headed "Special Needs of West Africans," but they have proved to be quite general ones. The question arises whether the needs ought to be diagnosed in a more systematic fashion, by the use of contrastive analysis. It would be pointless to rehearse the contrastive analysis-error analysis controversy here, and I have already taken my stand against contrastive analysis (Dubois and Fallis n.d.). It is fortunate for me that I arrived at this point of view, for doing contrastive analyses of English and West African languages would be a practical impossibility, beyond a rudimentary matching up of lists of phonemes. Regardless of questions of definition of language and dialect, the language situation of the region is enormously complicated. Ayo (1971:36) says there are four hundred local languages in Nigeria; Boadi (1971:49) claims forty for Ghana. Moreover—and this to me the most compelling reason for rejecting the contrastive analysis hypothesis—one can maintain the illusion that errors in a target language are the product of "interference" from the first language only so long as blinkers confine one to those two languages. In classes such as those at NMSU, with students of many language backgrounds, it is easy to see that the first language is not a determining factor for student morphological errors. For example, West African English was earlier claimed to be inflectionally simplified, which is certainly the case in the English of the students at NMSU. However, the same inflectional simplification is found in the English of speakers of Spanish and of Chinese, the one more inflected than English, the other far less. Now, in these circumstances, can we say that either language is the "cause" of morpheme reduction in learner English? This is the theoretical consideration, mentioned much earlier, which enables me to deal with Indians and Nigerians as a group, attacking
their errors as they appear.

A third need is for a greater sociolinguistic range than West Africans bring with them, specifically, the rules for speaking with their American counterparts. One of the fundamental purposes of international education is people-to-people interchange, and international students must learn how to approach their contemporaries. Second, a natural laboratory for increasing intelligibility is free, natural conversation with peers. A third reason concerns the social life of the West Africans. A few of the young men have wives with them, and the others feel the need for female companionship. Some succeed in dating American women almost immediately, but for most, disappointment is in store. What is involved is, of course, a deep-seated attitude toward women (in addition to sociolinguistic rules), and few of our young women are prepared to accept the dominating attitudes of West Africans. Another factor which comes into play is the rather conservative nature of our student population. My guess is that we have a smaller percentage of young women ready to accept the companionship of international students, particularly dark-skinned ones, than huge metropolitan schools do. Unfortunately, however much the students' personal lives would be enriched by a broader range of sociolinguistic skills, such cannot be the main goal of the University TESOL classes. "In teaching English to foreign students at the university level, we have been recognizing that our instruction falls short of their need. We have been leaving them inadequately equipped with the skills they need for coping with university-level instruction in English. The need is for earlier and stronger emphasis on reading processes, and for teaching the more formal style required by textbooks and lectures rather than the conversational style of the Audio/Lingual materials" (Saville-Troike 1975:1).

Proficiency objectives for the two NMSU courses have for two years been written in terms of the formal English—formal speaking, formal writing, formal information exchange—that is required in university classrooms. As time allows, I show informal equivalents and discussion relations with American university students as questions arise, but increasing the sociolinguistic range in this direction unfortunately cannot be the main priority of the program.

PROSPECTS

During the school year 1976-77, I intend to redesign the second of our two courses, doing what I call micro-self-pacing, i.e., goals on a weekly or two-week basis. Perhaps if it is made clear that those whose work consistently manifests certain features, including the most obvious grammatical morphemes, can satisfy the requirements after, say, twelve weeks instead of the usual sixteen, some students will make it their business to use them uniformly. In devoting the present paper to those to whom English is truly a second language, I have lost sight of the fact that the courses must serve not only these students, but others from the most diverse backgrounds, from Indonesia, Taiwan, Latin America, and the
Middle East. Setting clear goals and providing an incentive for the best
students to meet them early will provide good motivation for all,
allowing the needs of all students to be more nearly met.
REFERENCES


