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REFLECTING ON SECONDARY SCHOOL

E.F.L TEACHING

IN TUCUMAN

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Don Ramón Bautista Ortega

Ministro de Gobierno, Educación y Justicia
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Secretaria de Estado, de Educación y Cultura
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Perfeccionamiento Docente
Prof. Teresa Margarita Pacheco

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Prof. María Ana Danna
Prof. Victor Katz
Prof. Griselda Guagnini

REFLECTING ON SECONDARY SCHOOL E.F.L. TEACHING IN TUCUMAN

Lucrecia D'Andrea de Mirande
Rosa Perea de Otrera
Sara Isabel López
Patricia Ortiz

Lucrecia D'Andrea de Mirande
Maestra Normal Nacional, profesora en Inglés, Profesora Adjunta
de las cátedras de Didáctica General y Especial (Inglés) y
Organización y Didáctica de la Enseñanza Media de la Facultad
de Filosofía y Letras de la U.N.T.

Rosa Perea de Otrera
Profesora en Inglés, profesora de Inglés en la Escuela Normal
Superior J. B. Alberdi, profesora de la asignatura Metodología,
Observación y Prácticas de Ensayo del I.E.S. "Lola Mora" y J.T.P.
de las cátedras de Didáctica General y Especial (Inglés) y
Organización y Didáctica de la Enseñana Media en la Fac. de
Filosofía y Letras de la U.N.T.

Sara Isabel López
Profesora en Inglés, profesora de Inglés del Colegio Nueva
Concepción y Profesora de las asignaturas Gramática I y II del
I.E.S. "Lola Mora."

Patricia Ortiz
Profesora en Inglés, Profesora de Inglés en ATICANA, profesora
de Inglés y traductora en Cervecería del Norte y Cuyo.

PRESENTATION

Desde la Dirección General de Educación Media, Media Especial, Terciaria y de Perfeccionamiento Docente, a través del **PROPAD**, llevamos adelante a partir de 1993 varios proyectos de perfeccionamiento y capacitación para docentes de Nivel Medio en distintas disciplinas.

Por diversas razones ajenas a nuestro interés no pudo encararse desde el primer momento la atención de los profesores de lenguas extranjeras, concretamente Inglés y Francés.

Con el trabajo que hoy presentamos saldamos la deuda y esperamos que el mismo sea de utilidad para los docentes.

En este mundo, cuyas fronteras se encuentran cada día más cercanas, el manejo oral y escrito de otro idioma se hace indispensable, particularmente en nuestro país con un potencial económico que es necesario llevar a otras latitudes y con una población mayoritariamente joven a la que hay que instrumentar para que sea capaz de comunicarse con toda la humanidad en los albores del tercer milenio.

Tomo mis propias palabras de la presentación del primer producto de esta titánica labor de perfeccionamiento: "Nuestro proyecto proporciona al docente material científicamente actualizado y metodológicamente útil para intentar revertir en alguna medida la indiferencia de nuestros adolescentes" ...

Nuestro reconocimiento a los autores de este trabajo.

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Prof. TERESA MARGARITA PACHECO
DIRECTORA GENERAL DE EDUCACION MEDIA,
MEDIA ESPECIAL, TERCIARIA Y
PERFECCIONAMIENTO DOCENTE
Secretaria de Estado de Educación y Cultura

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

The reforms carried out in the area of education in our country do not imply a radical change in the structures of the old system but a new view of the processes that are going on in our classrooms. This new insight tries to develop co-operative reflective attitudes among teachers that would help to understand critically the nature of our daily work at school. This present module is addressed to our colleagues, professionals in the teaching of English as a foreign language, in order to reflect on the state of affairs in our profession and on the importance of being informed by the current theoretical and methodological trends in this field. The content of this module is a synthesis of the latest specialised literature in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching which hopefully will encourage self-development, a sharing of perspectives and insights in true collegiality. Obviously, we believe this material will be enriched by suggestions, opinions and ideas proposed by the readers.

This module is divided into four parts; part 1 is concerned with the state of affairs in EFL teaching in Tucuman, Argentina, part 2 begins with a brief explanation of the terms approach, method and technique and continues with an overview of the history of EFL, part 3 deals with some aspects of the so called Communicative Approach/es and part 4 presents a proposal of Reading Comprehension for secondary schools. A set of sample activities is also provided at the end of this module.

PART ONE

STATE OF AFFAIRS

A close examination of the state of affairs in E.F.L. teaching in Tucuman, Argentina gives us evidence that there are not only negative but also positive aspects in our profession:

Nowadays we all witness the increasing importance of English as an international means of communication which suggests that EFL teachers should do their best in order to meet the linguistic demands of a community already aware of the need of cross-cultural communication. In our reality, English language classes in many primary and secondary schools are bound to be large. The reasons for this are various and it is not our purpose to discuss them here. Nevertheless, it is necessary to point out that the prominent role of the English language in every area of modern world pushes the expansion in students enrolment for the English classes but this is not matched by a corresponding expansion in human physical and financial resources. Besides, the individualistic atmosphere of the English teaching profession is characterised by the lack of interest in sharing knowledge, experiences, standpoints and materials, therefore personal and professional growth is not likely to be attained. Looking back in time, the possibilities of getting authentic input were null about ten years ago. Luckily, at present there is better access to input coming directly from English speaking countries , thus offering a highly valuable means to improve "the ability to use the language effectively" which is nothing but "a potentially life-long skill" (Michael Lewis, 1993:188). Unfortunately, the multiple obligations we have to cope with make it difficult to take advantage of the service offered by the media which is an effective way of improving our command of the language, a goal we must constantly work on.

It is unquestionable that the EFL profession is now much better informed due to greater availability of theoretical and methodological information through books, articles, magazines and other publications. Together with this, there is also

the contribution of seminars, conferences, lectures, workshops, etc., some of them conducted by native speakers, which provide us with updated information that is expected not to be taken as recipes to apply in the classroom without thoughtful evaluation.

Usually, theoretical knowledge from Linguistics, Psychology, Sociology and other disciplines is ignored and even depreciated in the belief that theory is an "unattainable ideal or a set of postulates which are not applicable in the harsh world of reality" (H. H. Stern, 1983: 23) Obviously, the standpoint implicit in this is that good teaching equals just intuition and experience; the reason which might explain the rejection of theory is that there is such theoretical diversity, often confusing at face value, that teachers become paralysed and choose not to get involved. This position on the part of the teacher is understandable because theory was usually presented in terms of dichotomies (grammar-lexis, competence-performance, accuracy-fluency, cohesion-coherence, etc.). At this, it is the teachers' responsibility to develop their own inner criteria to take decisions in the light of theoretical considerations and classroom variables such as class size, time of the day for classes, number of contact hours per week, students' cultural background, their age and mood, our mood, students' level, their learning pace and learning strategies, course objectives, lesson objectives, and the social context where the institution is.

Today, one of the problems seems to be the lack of coherence between theory and practice, between the teachers' beliefs and their practice, between what they do and what they think or say they do. Moreover, some teachers exhibit updated theoretical knowledge but remain traditional in the reality of their classes.

At this point the readers might be wondering about the answer to a question we always ask ourselves: HOW CAN WE IMPROVE TEACHING SO THAT STUDENTS NO LONGER COMPLAIN THAT THEY HAVE STUDIED ENGLISH FOR SEVERAL YEARS AND STILL CANNOT SAY OR UNDERSTAND A WORD ?

We dare say that there is not a universal answer to this question, but each of us has to work out a response for every particular situation in the light of theory, our experience and reality.

We would like to end up this section by quoting H. Widdowson's words (1990: Preface X) "Unless teaching is informed by **principled pragmatism**, it can make no claim to be a serious professional activity. I would argue that teachers who reject theory as being irrelevant to practice not only misunderstand the nature of their work but at the same time undermine the profession."

PART TWO

APPROACH, METHOD, TECHNIQUE

For the sake of clarification it would be advisable to define the way the following terms are used in this module to avoid misunderstanding and ambiguity.

In trying to explain the key concepts of approach, method and technique, Richards and Rodgers refer to Edward Anthony's identification (1986:15) of three levels of conceptualisation and organization.

"...An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught...."

"...Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural. Within one approach there can be many methods..."

"...A technique is implementational- that which actually takes place in a classroom-. It is a particular trick, stratagem or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with the method and therefore in harmony with an approach as well..." (Anthony, 1963;63-67)

Richards and Rodgers revised and extended the original Anthony's model and present a new one as a basis for describing widely used approaches and methods

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND.

The diversity of approaches and methods is a prominent characteristic of the history of second and foreign language teaching.

For over a century, from 1840 to 1940, the **Grammar Translation Method** dominated this field. Its main features were emphasis on the teaching of the second language grammar, translation from and into the target language,

memorization of vocabulary, verb paradigms and lists of prepositions, translation of isolated sentences and classical texts. An alternative was provided by the **Direct Method** which became popular throughout the early years of the 20th century with emphasis on aural-oral skills, rejection of the use of the mother tongue at all, use of visual aids and differed reading and writing.

Dissatisfaction at such heavy emphasis on the spoken language led to **reading** as a more attainable and appropriate goal for school students. Reading was characterized by emphasis on getting the correct information, intensive and extensive reading, grammar rules and vocabulary based principally on the structures found in the reading passages. None of the above mentioned methods can claim such an outstanding impact as **Audiolingualism** can. It was the first method to approach language teaching on a scientific basis and to have almost an immediate adherence on the part of the teachers. Audiolingualism that dominated ELT during the 50s and 60s was rooted in two parallel schools of thought: Psychology and Linguistics. In Psychology, the **behaviourist** school was extremely influential. At the same time the **structural and descriptive** school of Linguistics dominated thinking in that field. The goal of language teaching according to this method was to develop in students the same abilities native speakers have. Language was seen as a set of structures and consonant with the behaviourist school audiolingual proponents considered that learning was habit formation (stimulus-response-reinforcement), therefore mimicry and memorization were used extensively to learn grammar structures inductively and implicitly. Manipulative drilling and contrastive analysis of L1 and L2 were intended to reduce learners errors which were viewed as bad habits and were to be corrected to avoid fossilization. The criterion for sequencing the teaching of grammar structures was that of increasing complexity but grammar instruction never moved beyond sentence level. Already in the times of Audiolingualism teachers started talking about communication in terms of language skills which were separated, sequenced and classified into active (speaking and writing) and passive (reading and listening). The Audiolingual method proposed a real and

usable form in language teaching materials such as tape recorders, film strips, flannel boards and language labs. Soon practical inefficiency coupled theoretical refutations. Techniques in classrooms proved to be boring for both students and teachers, and mastery of patterns in real communicative situations did not necessarily follow mastery of patterns in classrooms. It was not until the publication of **Chomsky's** highly critical review of Skinner's **Verbal Behaviour** (1957) that the behaviourist view of language acquisition was seriously questioned. Chomsky's theory was based on the distinction between **competence and performance** and his **Generative Transformational Grammar** was a linguistic theory that focused mainly on **syntax**. At this same time **cognitive psychology** was gaining in popularity, especially among educational psychologists. The cognitive theory was **mentalistic** and dynamic, thus knowledge was said to be acquired by the organism rather than implanted by some outside agent. This theory defined learning as a perception, acquisition, organization, and storage of knowledge in such a way that it becomes an active part of the individual's cognitive structure; learning is then rule -**governed behaviour**. The term "cognitivism" is usually used to describe methods based on Generative Transformational Grammar and Cognitive Psychology in which students are not asked to repeat but to think. Grammar was considered important and rules were presented either inductively or deductively, depending on the learner. Errors were viewed as inevitable and as something that the teacher and the learners could use constructively. However attractive and enlightening these innovations seemed to be, they did not represent an essential change in the theory of language teaching, no particular method emerged out of this theory though most of its principles are invoked by other methods. The innovations in Psychology and Linguistics were confined to a matter of code learning, non-linguistic aspects had been overlooked and little had been done to alter the way in which language was presented. The form- meaning model still failed to account for a third imponderable dimension: **Communication.**

PART THREE

THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH/ES

Early in the 1970's the communicative approach/es, based on the work of linguists both in the US (D. Hymes) and Britain (Halliday), came into being. According to this new approach, language is viewed as an **instrument of communication** and therefore those who support communicative methodology claim that communication is the goal of foreign language teaching.

This new perspective emerged fundamentally from Hymes' work "On Communicative Competence" (1971) whereby he challenges the centrality of grammar in language teaching and learning. From the standpoint of the Chomskyan linguistic principles, that Chomsky presented in his various Models of Grammar, what it means to know a language is reflected in his distinction between **linguistic competence** and **linguistic performance**. While the former is concerned with an ideal speaker-listener's knowledge of the language system in a completely homogeneous speech community, the latter refers to the actual use of language, affected by all the performance errors that derive from non-linguistic factors (false starts, omissions, hesitations, pauses, repetitions, etc.).Thus, Chomsky believed that to develop a linguistic theory it was necessary to study idealized abstractions and not real data. Since Chomsky's linguistic competence was **competence about grammar**, the pedagogical implication in EFL teaching was that teaching a foreign language meant teaching its grammatical rules. Obviously, such an attitude in EFL teaching led to students who were **grammatically competent but unable to communicate appropriately.**

For Hymes, Grammatical or Linguistic competence is just one aspect of a broader concept of competence which he presented as COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE. Due to the fact that Chomsky's view of language neglected the rules of social interaction and appropriate social behaviour in a heterogeneous speech community, Hymes proposed a new model of Communicative Competence consisting of knowledge and ability of four types:

1. Whether something is possible. This corresponds to Chomsky's notion of competence.

2. Whether something is feasible. That is to say if something is implementationally possible or not.

3. Whether something is appropriate. This refers to the context in which it is used.

4. Whether something is done. This means actually occurring knowledge and ability for use.

Communicative competence is thus viewed by Hymes as an interaction of grammatical, psycholinguistic, sociocultural and probabilistic systems. Several well-known theorists made contributions to the model of Communicative competence, that is the case of Campbell and Wales (1970) who pointed out the importance of the **appropriateness** of an utterance in a particular situation; Savignon (1972) whose notion of communicative competence emphasized the **negotiative nature of communication**, Halliday (1970) with his sociosemantic approach which indicated the **semantic options** available to a person when translating option in behaviour into linguistic options, Munby (1978) whose model of communicative competence incorporates the **rules of discourse** as one of its components.

In 1980 **Canale and Swain**, drawing back on what had been stated since Chomsky's times, provided an extensive review of the theoretical model of communicative competence and on such basis proposed an **integrative model with four components:**

1) Grammatical Competence, which refers to the degree to which the language user has mastered the linguistic system (vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, intonation, word formation, sentence structure, etc.).

2) Sociolinguistic Competence, which refers to the extent to which grammatical forms can be used or understood appropriately in various contexts. This

appropriateness is determined by factors such as topic, role of participants, setting, style, register, etc.

3) Discourse Competence, which refers to the language user's ability to combine sentences to achieve a cohesive whole and ideas, to achieve a coherent message.

4) Strategic Competence, which refers to the language user's ability to use verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to compensate the weaknesses in the other three.

The notion of **communicative competence** is perceived as the goal of the so called **communicative approach/es** to EFL teaching, In view of this aim, it is the teacher's task to organize and sequence language teaching in order to foster their students' communicative competence.

All throughout the history of EFL teaching, the various methodological approaches have differed in the role grammar instruction has to play in the foreign language classroom. From the point of view of Canale and Swain's notion of communicative competence, **grammaticality is not central but it is not ignored either**. In fact, it is one component which **interacts** with the sociocultural, discourse and strategic factors. In relation to this, it can be concluded that EFL teaching aims at developing the students' knowledge and ability to use language to communicate, which includes the following aspects:

I. Grammaticality, students should be able to produce sentences that comply with the rules of the linguistic system: vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, intonation, word formation, sentence structure, etc.

II. Feasibility, students should be able to distinguish those expressions which are likely to occur in terms of human processing. Sentences like the following are not likely to occur: The cheese the cat the rat the dog saw chased ate was green. The apple is being eaten by me.

III. Appropriateness, students should be able to understand and produce grammatical forms appropriate in a given sociocultural context. Students should be able to choose expressions taking into account variables such as setting, participants, purpose, channel, topic, style, register, etc.

IV. Discourse, students should be able to use cohesive devices, e.g. pronouns, connectors, superordinate nouns, and organize ideas to achieve unity of thought, e.i a coherent whole.

V. Non-linguistic strategies, students should be able to understand and use non-linguistic communicative devices which help him to compensate the gaps in his knowledge of the code, e.g. paralinguistic features such as body movements, facial expressions, gestures, etc.

Chomsky's view:

```
  ┌──────────┐                              ┌──────────┐
  │ Lingüistic│─────────────────────────────▶│ Lingüistic│
  │ competence│                              │ Perfomance│
  └──────────┘                              └──────────┘
```

Our view:

```
              ┌──────────────┐
              │Grammaticality │
              └──────────────┘
        ┌───────────┐   ┌──────────┐      ┌────────────┐
        │Feasibility │   │Discourse │─────▶│   Actual   │
        └───────────┘   └──────────┘      │ Realization │
                                          └────────────┘
   ┌───────────────┐   ┌───────────────┐
   │Appropriateness│   │ Non Lingüistic │
   └───────────────┘   │  Strategies    │
                       └───────────────┘
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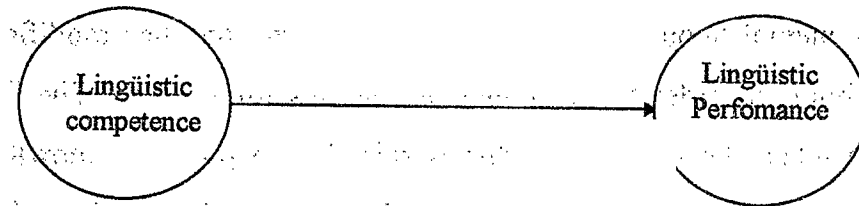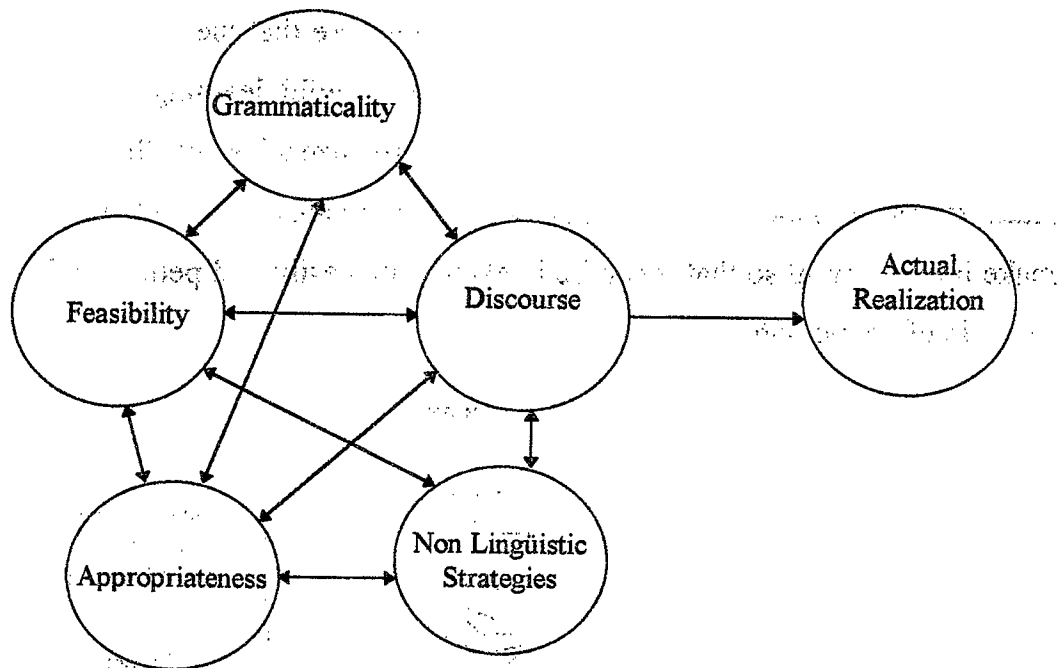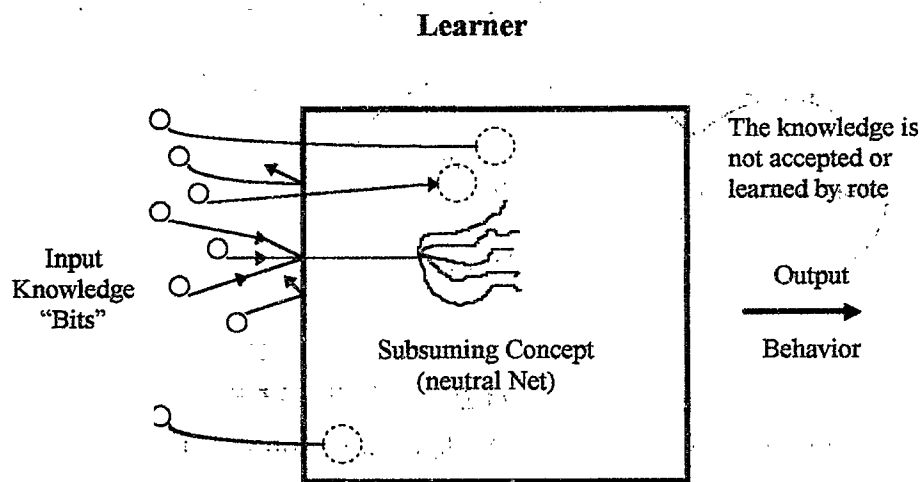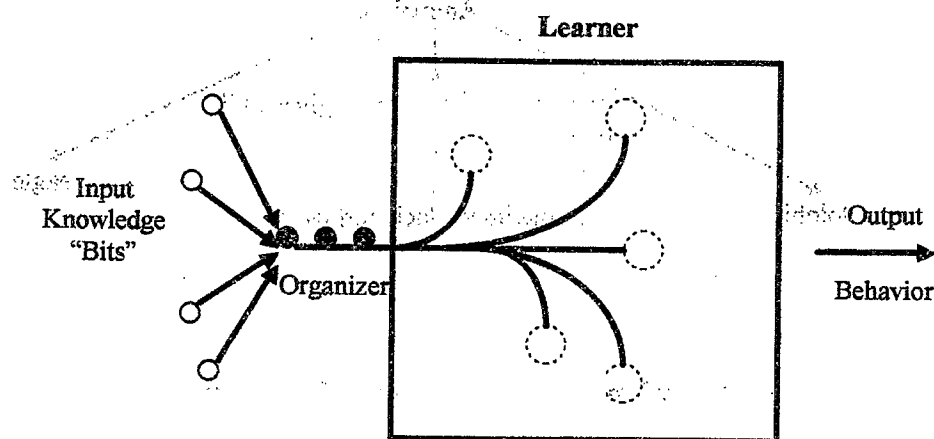
COGNITIVE PROCESSES

The communicative approach has not only a linguistic but also a **psychological theoretical framework** which gives us information about **how we learn**. This topic remains controversial; however, there are outstanding contributions that throw some light on the issue.

Perhaps the most important contribution to education in general and to language pedagogy in particular is that of cognitive psychology. One of its proponents, David Ausubel, considers that learning must be meaningful to be effective and permanent. Learning is meaningful when the mind gets actively involved in organizing the new information into meaningful chunks and relates them to the existing cognitive structures. Thus, the new material "anchors" in the

cognitive structures which consist of facts, concepts, theories and raw perceptual data. So, to say that someone has comprehended language is to say that one has found a mental home for that information or that one has modified an existing mental home in order to accommodate the new information. The "anchorage" is possible when the new knowledge is relatable to previous knowledge which is appropriately sequenced and organized. In this way the new knowledge becomes meaningful and can be absorbed and subsumed to strengthen and enrich the cognitive structure. The pedagogical implications are that the teachers should use teaching devices or strategies to facilitate meaningful learning. These teaching devices and strategies are called "advance organizers" since they activate the students' background knowledge and help them organize the input "in advance" to make it meaningful so that it can be intaken more easily and permanently and can result in effective output.

Learner

Input Knowledge "Bits"

Subsuming Concept (neutral Net)

The knowledge is not accepted or learned by rote

Output

Behavior

Knowledge that is not relatable to the learner's cognitive structure is either rejected by the learner's mind or learned by rote (memorization). In the case of EFL, visual aids are examples of teaching devices which serve as **advance organizers**, e.g. understanding of a reading or listening text can be highly enhanced if the teacher provides a picture related somehow to the topic of the text prior to reading or listening. A strategy an EFL teacher can use to activate background knowledge is **brain storming** on the topic before listening or reading a text. This will help students retrieve previous knowledge and daily experiences from their memory and associate them with the topic in the text. In this way the students' background knowledge is activated, brought to the surface to facilitate comprehension. So, we see how **central** to the process of **reading and listening** comprehension the **role of background knowledge** is. This role is explained and formalized in a theoretical model known as the SCHEMA THEORY which represents how knowledge is stored in human memory. The development of this theory has been possible due to the findings of Bartlett, Ausubel and information about Artificial Intelligence. One of the basic principles of this theory is that any given text does not carry meaning in and of itself but it provides directions for readers or listeners so that they construct meaning from their own cognitive structure. This previously acquired knowledge structures are called SCHEMATA. Rumelhart (1977) defines a schema as an abstract representation of a generic concept for an object, event or situation e.g. each of us has an abstract representation for the concept cow.
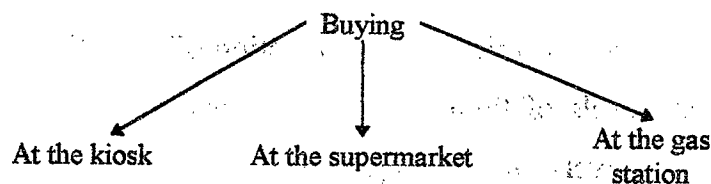
```
                    Animal
                   /   |   \
                  /    |    \
        has  ←── Cow ──→ gives milk
       · four        |
        legs         |                    eagle
  dolphin      Sometimes black and white
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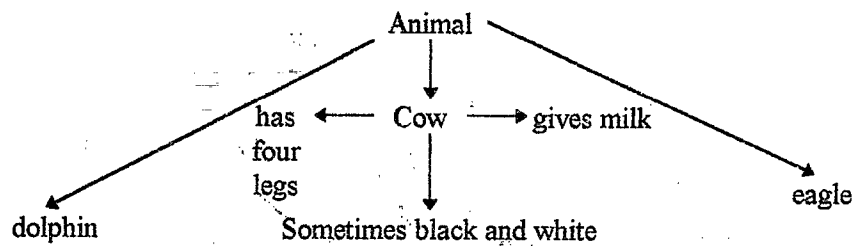
The concept "cow" may be altered depending on the adjectives we add to it or according to cultural contexts; the connotations conjured up by this concept in Argentina are different from those in India. Sometimes a schema represents a whole representation, e.g. "buying at the supermarket", then the individual's mind calls up a chain of events or features associated with the situation. Schank and Abelson (1977) use the term **script** to explain this phenomenon: a structure that describes in a predetermined stereotypic fashion appropriate sequences of events in a particular context (making a shopping list, taking some money or a credit card, going to the supermarket, taking a trolley, walking along the aisles, choosing food and other kinds of groceries, putting them into the trolley, paying the cashier). This is a generic script for that situation but a different script could be activated for the "buying at the kiosk" situation. Minsky (1982) uses the term "frame" to describe memory structures that represent a stereotypic situation. His frames are similar to the concept of script. Minsky says there are several types of information attached to each frame. The top levels are fixed and represent things that are always true about the situation. The lower levels have terminals, slots that may be filled by specific data. In the "buying at the supermarket" frame the top levels represent things common to all transactions, more specifically the buying of food and drink. The lower levels in this case are filled with bits of information that fit the situation of a supermarket and not of any other place where other things are sold and bought.

Thus, in the process of language comprehension our knowledge is not static. It is continuously in a process of reorganization. Comprehending a message

means drawing information from both the message itself and from the internal schemata that seem to fit the situation and that vary from person to person containing elements that go beyond the words themselves. That is why the comprehension and recalling of any input cannot be based on mere dictionary knowledge of the words that are read or heard, but on the internal processing of the information by the individuals.

When considering the tasks involved in comprehension, schema theorists posit two separate but interrelated modes of information processing: **bottom-up and top-down** processing. Schemata are thought to be hierarchically organized, from the most specific at the bottom to the most abstract at the top. Drawing back on our previous example it could be said that the "buying" schema in its most abstract form would be on top whereas the "buying at the kiosk" schema would be near the bottom.

```
                        Buying
            /             |            \
   At the kiosk    At the supermarket    At the gas
                                          station
```

Bottom-up processing is considered to be **data-driven** since the incoming text material activates the specific existing schemata first. In top-down processing the comprehender makes general conceptual predictions about the input based on higher level more abstract schemata. The input is then searched for information that will verify these higher order concepts: top-down processing is therefore considered to be **conceptually-driven**. Both kinds of processing interact simultaneously in the comprehension process. They help the comprehender use the appropriate schemata so that comprehension can take place without ambiguities. When there is a mismatch between the top-down predictions and the bottom up information, we are forced to revise the interpretation in such a way as to make the two of them compatible. There are four basic kinds of schemata crucial for the interpretation of messages:

a) Conceptual schemata which refers to the knowledge of the world.

b) Formal schemata which is related to the individual's knowledge of the rhetorical or discourse structures of different types (e.g. fables, stories, poems, etc.) and structures of texts and differences in rhetorical organization of texts (e.g. cause-effect, problem-solution, condition-outcome, etc.).

c) Content schemata which is related to the individual's background knowledge of a specific culture and of the content area of a text (e.g. fishing, Christmas in Argentina, pollution, etc.).

d) Linguistic schemata which is related to the individual's knowledge of the code, both of target language and mother tongue.

The major contribution of cognitive psychology to EFL is the assumption that **thinking** is a prerequisite for efficient learning. Teachers should have this in mind when selecting materials and choosing activities to help develop **whole learners**. One suggested criterion for the selection of activities may be the extent to which different levels of thinking skills are involved. Examples of activities that involve lower levels of thinking skills are those such as identification, labelling, yes/no questions, true/false exercises, matching exercises, etc. A next step would be: correcting false information, answering general and specific information questions, cloze texts, completion exercises, information transfer exercises. Activities that involve higher levels of thinking skills should go at a final stage, e.g. analysis, synthesis and evaluation exercises.

PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNICATIVE METHODOLOGY

If the aim of our task is to help develop our students' communicative competence, we should be guided by methodological principles which are consistent with the theoretical framework presented above.

Keith Morrow (1981) proposes a set of five principles for a communicative methodology as guidelines for our search and choice of teaching procedures.

1-KNOW WHAT YOU ARE DOING

2-THE WHOLE IS MORE THAN THE SUM OF THE PARTS

3-THE PROCESSES ARE AS IMPORTANT AS THE FORMS

4-TO LEARN IT, DO IT

5-MISTAKES ARE NOT ALWAYS MISTAKES

1. The focus of every lesson should be to teach our students how to do something through language use, e.g. inviting, asking for permission, expressing their opinions, etc. and make them aware of what they are doing. The important thing is not to teach a specific discrete point, e.g. the morphology of third person singular verbs in the simple present, the structures THERE IS/ARE, the comparative form of two syllable adjectives, etc. but to introduce language that students might find communicatively valuable.

2. We can identify and master elements in isolation but still be unable to communicate. The difficulty that many of our students face arise not so much from inappropriate knowledge of the system but from unfamiliarity with its use. A communicative method should **operate** with **contextualized stretches of language** which might occur in real situations.

3. Language teaching should resemble as much as possible the process of real communication. Some of the aspects involved in this process are:

a) Information gap: the purpose of communication is to bridge the information gap between two people one of whom knows something the other ignores. Therefore, asking a member of a group of thirteen year olds "how old are you"? is not communicative at all.

b) Choice: in real life communication participants have to choose what to say and how to say it. This suggests that classroom activities should as long as possible allow students to select from their language store the expressions they feel they need.

c) Feedback: in real language interaction what a person says depends not only on his own communicative purpose but also on what the other person has just said.

4. The teacher may help, advise and guide but it is the student who has to learn and only by practising communicative activities can he learn to communicate.

5. Traditional teaching methods aimed at eliminating the students' mistakes by controlling the type of language used. A communicative method, on the contrary, is the one that requires flexibility to deal with mistakes at different stages of the learning process, which does not mean that errors should never be corrected.

TEACHING MODELS. LEARNING PARADIGMS

Consistent with what has been said at the beginning, that well-informed teachers can make better choices, in this section we are going to deal with teaching models and learning paradigms.

## 1ª Presentation, Practice, Production (P.P.P.)

This is the most traditional model but it is still widely used. During the presentation phase the teacher introduces the new language aided by material and various strategies. By "new" we mean language we think students are not yet able to use (language structures, functions, grammar items in general, lexis, notions, etc.); the teacher not only shows the students what language MEANS but also how it is USED. While this stage is wholly teacher centered, in the next, the practice phase, students are highly involved in practising specific items but controlled by the teacher, e.g. oral drills, questions and answers, chain drills, etc. The final stage, the production phase, is mostly student centered consisting mainly of different activities intended to use the new language and show the teacher how much they have internalized. For reasons of time, in a real classroom situation the phase most likely to be omitted is this one. The overall purpose of this model is **accuracy** that students are expected to get the language right usually by forming correct sentences.
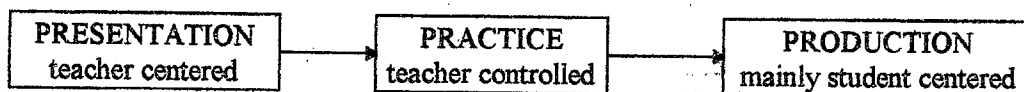
PRESENTATION teacher centered	→	PRACTICE teacher controlled	→	PRODUCTION mainly student centered

The traditional version of this model is mainly deductive (from explanation to example); however, there is an updated P.P.P. version which, together with the T.P.R. and O.H.E. models, is mostly inductive.

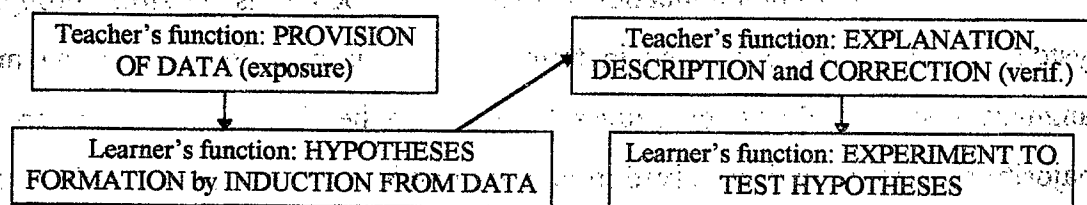## 2nd Task, Planning, Report (T.P.R.)

David and Jane Willis proposed the **task based learning cycle** which consists of three phases: task, planning, report preceded by an introduction and followed by **analysis and practice**. First, the teacher introduces the topic and the task, exposing students to a representative sample of language and arising motivation for the task. During the task phase students carry out the activity in groups or pairs using language privately and spontaneously. The type of language used by students at this point may, most probably, be faulty since there is no teacher intervention. In the second face, **planning**, students are involved in preparing a report of their task usually written, consequently the focus of language has become **more concerned with accuracy**. In the third phase, **report**, a spokesperson from each group reports to the rest of the class what they have planned, language is used here in public with the purpose of providing the class with a more prestiged accurate version of what has been said privately. The last step involves analysis and practice of language forms and use aiming at raising consciousness about language and its uses. In other words **a new dimension of accuracy** is the focus here, this is "**communicative**" accuracy which implies both **formal** accuracy and **meaning**.
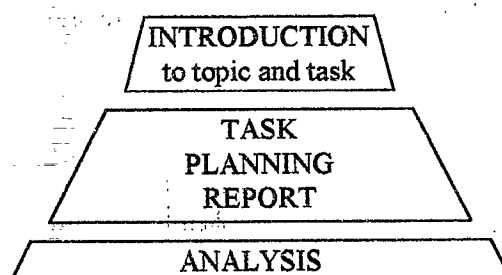
3rd. Observation, Hypothesis, Experiment (O.H.E.)

During the **observation phase** the teacher provides students with **data** (textual or recorded material) for them to work on a specific task. The focus here is on meaning and fluency. After this, in the **hypothesis phase**, the students' attention is directed to the semantic or syntactic function of a new item included

in the data so that they can inductively develop hypotheses that might explain it. The teacher's role here is to verify the learner's hypotheses and if necessary offer explanations. In the third phase, experiment, the teacher presents exercises intended to practise and test the rules which have been discovered, in Pitt Corder's words "teaching is a matter of providing the learner with the right data at the right time and teaching him how to learn, that is developing in him appropriate learning strategies and means of testing his hypotheses".

Teacher's function: PROVISION OF DATA (exposure)	Teacher's function: EXPLANATION, DESCRIPTION and CORRECTION (verif.)
Learner's function: HYPOTHESES FORMATION by INDUCTION FROM DATA	Learner's function: EXPERIMENT TO TEST HYPOTHESES

By now it is clear that the teacher should be able to choose an adequate model according to the level of the students. In our opinion and experience the P.P.P. model ,which is largely used today, can be applied at any level.The traditional version of this model is mainly deductive (from explanation to example); however, there is an updated P.P.P. version which together with the T.P.R and O.H.E. models is mostly inductive (from contextualized language to analysis and practice).To work effectively with the T.P.R and O.H.E.models, it is necessary for students to be above the level of beginners or roughly intermediate. Since grammatical and/or semantic analysis come later, the focus moves from fluency to accuracy, giving the students the impression that in the English classroom language is not only an object of study but also a means to communicate and relate with others. The choice of the most suitable model depends on variables interacting in the classroom such as classroom management, students' learning strategies and their learning pace and number of students. What little we know about the psychological processes of second language learning either from theory or practical experience, suggests that a combination of inductive and deductive procedures produces the best results.

PEDAGOGIC GRAMMAR

For the two and half millennia of foreign language teaching it has been assumed that the teaching of grammar is a necessary component of any language teaching course. In fact, before the 19th. century grammar teaching was considered not only necessary but also sufficient, so language teaching and the study of grammar were synonymous.

The idea that communication among human beings is possible through a system which can be expressed in terms of rules is a notion underlying most language research. Rules, consequently, seem to be the language and so the majority of professionals involved in language pedagogy have assumed that since language has rules, these should be taught in the EFL classroom.

The next question that arises here is the following: what type of linguistic knowledge is to be presented in the EFL classroom?. Undoubtedly, the way the linguist or teacher presents the grammar of a language is determined by the audience (language teachers, linguists, EFL students, etc.) both the linguist and the teacher are concerned with the same object LANGUAGE but the audience they address have different goals. This situation leads us to the distinction between PEDAGOGIC GRAMMAR and LINGUISTIC OR SCIENTIFIC GRAMMAR. Linguistics is a theoretical science and so the purpose of linguistic grammar, according to Allen (1974), is to "give a systematic account of the idealized knowledge or competence, which underlies the actual use of language in concrete social situations". Unlike scientific grammar with which language teachers are concerned during their teaching training, pedagogic grammar is as Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988:1) say "the means by which acquisition of second or foreign language grammar may be expressly facilitated". In other words, while linguistic grammar aims at describing language just as it is, pedagogic grammar is intended to provide "a comparatively informal framework of definitions, exercises and verbalized rules which may help a learner to acquire knowledge of fluency and its use" (Allen 1974) Pedagogic grammar however does

not ignore linguistic research at all, quite on the contrary, it is data extracted from scientific grammars which has gone through a process of conversion and is used as the basis for language teaching. As concerns the nature of pedagogic grammar, eclecticism has proved to be the best choice; in fact, pedagogic grammar feeds mainly on classical structuralist grammars, and to a less extent on Chomskyan linguistics, Hallidayan linguistics, valency grammar and case grammar, etc.

For about one hundred and fifty years there have been arguments for and against the role of grammar in foreign language teaching. Actually, it is possible to perceive **three** different kinds of attitudes towards the teaching of grammar: some attempt to ignore it, others incorporate it into the teaching programme but never mention it openly, and the rest include it and try to make students aware of it. This last attitude towards grammar focus is usually referred to in language pedagogy as grammatical CONSCIOUSNESS RAISING (CR). "Consciousness raising is intended to embrace a continuum ranging from intensive promotion of conscious awareness through pedagogical role articulation on the one end, to the mere exposure of the learner to specific grammatical phenomena on the other" (Rutherford and Sharwood Smith, 1988:3)

In contrast to the hypothesis that grammar CR promotes and facilitates language learning, there are some approaches that deny the value of imparting explicit knowledge of language form. This misconception is fundamentally based on the assumption that the L2 learner has an acquisitional device whose linguistic component is a sort of tabula rasa. The role of pedagogic grammar in this context is to provide language rules in order to fill the L2 grammar void. What logically follows is that since the difference between what there is to learn about L2 grammar and what the L2 learner can actually incorporate is vast , any attempt to teach grammar explicitly is useless.

It has been proved that a grammarless approach may lead to a pidginized form of the target language which will not allow any sort of communication

outside the classroom. This seems to support the observations made by several researchers:

1- That comprehensible input is not enough to ensure grammatical accuracy and a high level of proficiency

2- That some form of grammatical CR is effective in improving accuracy and to some extent the command of the language.

When making decisions about what to choose to bring to consciousness, when and how to raise something to consciousness, how often to call attention to it and how detailed the information should be certain variables are to be taken into account. One of these variables is age. Krashen states (1979:153) that "learners can only profit from learned knowledge after a certain age, that is , roughly puberty". This is supported by the fact that it is very much difficult to deny adult learners' explicit information about the target language because their intellectual maturity as well as their previous experiences make them ask for explanations. With younger learners explanations about the structural properties of the target language are less frequent and with children, who still lack intellectual maturity, explicit grammatical rules are out of the question. Proficiency level is another factor, with beginners focus on language form should not go beyond the practice of the basic form-meaning correspondences because when one is beginning to learn something new, one tends to approach it holistically and only later is it possible to carry out any sort of analysis. With intermediate and adolescent learners explicit grammatical explanations and correction help students to progress quicklier. Pedagogical grammatical descriptions involve the application of not only scientific linguistic principles but also notions of psychology. As regards psychology there are two basic principles accepted by cognitivists:

1- Tthat new knowledge is acquired via old knowledge.

2- That knowledge is not assertional but procedural (e.i. it is not knowing what but knowing how).

This suggests teachers should be aware of the knowledge students bring to the classroom and the sequential order when presenting new language items.

With relation to contrastive analysis this is viewed as a branch of linguistics that seeks to identify similarities and differences between languages. The information provided by this type of analysis may be used to highlight those aspects of L2 that will be found most unfamiliar, e.g. the Spanish missing pronoun in subject position does not work in English where the subject position must be filled. There is no implication that contrastive analysis should be brought into the classroom, however, it may help the teacher to decide when to ignore or present grammatical explanations and it may be a psychologically effective presentation device in explanations of certain complex areas of the target language.

Not much is known about the psychological processes of second language learning but it is widely accepted that a combination of induction and deduction procedures is the right thing to do since individuals learn in different ways. While deductive learners are more **left-brained**, inclined to analytic thinking; inductive learners are more **right-brained**, inclined to analogic or holistic thinking. In other words, teachers should present grammar rules not only in the traditional way (presentation, practice and production) but also give the students the chance to learn best by formulating and testing hypotheses, particularly when grammar rules are not highly complex. The learner should be given enough data for him to make hypotheses about the semantic or syntactic features of each new language item; once he has developed his own ideas, he should be given the chance to make choices and most probably mistakes. He has an active role in the CR process and the teacher only provides data (examples, descriptions, explanations of exercises) and most important of all provides verification of the learner hypotheses. In this way the discovery of the regularities of the target language will be self-discovery. During the process the students' native language and even translations may be used; this is so because on the one hand it is time saving, and on the other hand

some language items require complex paraphrases which might be more complicated.

In our view, basic grammatical principles can contribute to develop communicative competence, therefore the teaching of grammar focus should not be divorced from the teaching of meaning. An integrative theory of communicative competence is that in which there is a synthesis of knowledge of grammar principles, knowledge of how language is used in social context to perform communicative functions and knowledge of how utterances can be combined according to the principles of discourse.

As we have pointed out above, grammar CR is really a continuum, on the one end there is an explicit provision of rules and on the other end mere exposure to the grammatical features of the language. CR has therefore degrees of explicitness and it can also have degrees of elaboration which will depend on various factors such as students' level, age, learning strategies, their prior knowledge, the contrastive relationship between L1 and L2, the degree of complexity of a particular language item and others.

Grammar is nothing but a man-made description of how language works so anyone who knows the language knows its grammar. Native speakers do know the grammatical rules of their mother tongue only that they cannot verbalize them. It should be stated clear that students not only learn grammar consciously but also acquire it unconsciously every time they get comprehensible input (while listening to the teacher, talking to a classmate, watching a film, reading a comic, etc.).

In conclusion, grammatical consciousness raising is not an end in itself, it should be an AID to help students learn to communicate. If we oblige the learner to understand the intricacies of a device without knowing how to make it work, it would be "like learning the delicate mechanism of a clock without knowing how to tell the time" (Widdowson, "Grammar and Nonsense, and Learning"). Finally, when teaching grammar it is not our aim to develop the students' ability to

describe the language system but to help the communication process until they are able to automatize language rules. By this, we mean that the time alloted to grammar practice should be much less than the time alloted to using language as a means to negotiate meaning.

ATTITUDE TOWARDS ERROR:

From the point of view of the communicative approach, one of the most widely held assumptions about the language learning process is that errors indicate learners' hypotheses about the target language and that overt correction does not alter learners' natural path of acquisition. Numerous inventories of learners' errors have been compiled into the now widely familiar categories of 1) overgeneralization: she has two childrens. He teached English. Did he teached English? 2) overuse: She has one books. She liking school. 3) omissions: She is doctor. She has three book. He teach English 4) analogies: We walk with the girls. We follow with the girls. It is believed that in producing these errors, learners are testing hypotheses about rules and patterns in the language they are learning.

Recent theories of Bley Vroman (1986), Schachter (1984) and White (1987) do not believe that learner's incorrect hypotheses should go uncorrected. These theories claim that explicit and/or implicit correction is essential to a theory that includes hypothesis testing as part of the second language acquisition process. Research on the actual practice of classroom correction has shown it to be a highly diversified entity.

What has been advanced about the role of correction in the learning process appears not only confusing in itself, but also to contradict Krashen's claim that comprehensible input is all that is needed for successful second-language acquisition. Much of the confusion and contradiction is based on the fact that so little is known about the nature of correction and its effect on the learning process.

Although there is a great deal of difficulty in any research that attempts to trace the impact of correction on the learning process, foreign-language

classrooms provide at the moment the best research site for finding answers to this crucial area of language learning.

If when making mistakes, learners are testing Hypothesis about rules and patterns, it is the teacher's task to verify those hypotheses. Here again, teaching training flexibility and the use of common sense will tell the theacher when and how to correct.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF NEW METHODS

For the two last decades, innovations in the area of teaching have emerged, methodological alternatives have been suggested mainly in the areas of individualized instruction and communicative competence. Attention has been paid to social, cultural, cognitive and affective factors, to the role of grammar and lexis, and to the shifting emphasis on different skills. All of these are important contributions which explain the fact that the concept of communicative approach/es is an umbrella term. Included in this term are methods such as Total Physical Response, The Silent Way, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, The Natural Approach, The Lexical Approach.

The most outstanding contributions could be summarized as follows:

- Total Physical Response (Asher 1969) assumes that students should be allowed to have a silent period until they feel confident to talk. They show understanding by doing something through a physical response. These features remain as a technique especially for children and in the classroom language.

- The Silent Way (Gategno 1972) emphasizes the importance of respect for the students' capacity to work out language problems on their own with minimal intervention on the part of the teacher.

- Community Language Learning posits the consideration of students as whole persons. The teacher considers not only the students' feelings and intellect but also have some understanding of the relationship among students' physical reactions, their instinctive protective reactions and their desire to learn. The emphasis is placed on the sharing of the learning experience and on the teacher's role as counsellor.

- Suggestopedia (Lozanov 1978) seeks to counteract the negative suggestions or fears which inhibit learning. Its key feature is to get students' relaxation by means of appropriate music and comfortable environment. The use of music is

integrated with drama techniques involving the adoption of a new identity to lower inhibitions. This also remains as an effective teaching strategy.

- The last three are referred to as "Humanistic Methods" since they aim at developing the students' personality encouraging positive feelings.

As regards The Natural Approach (Terrell and Krashen) the most influential principles are stated in:

a) The acquisition-learning distinction hypothesis which implies that teaching should be geared to encourage acquisition since this is unconscious and therefore longer lasting,

b) The comprehensible input (i+1) hypothesis which means that students should be exposed to language a little beyond their production level and

c) The affective filter hypothesis which refers to the relaxing atmosphere and confidence built up by the teacher to facilitate acquisition.

An overview of the most important features of the various approaches and methods mentioned here is offered by D. Nunan in his book *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*, 1989 at the end of Part 3.

THE LEXICAL APPROACH

The Lexical Approach (Lewis, 1993) upholds the general principles of the Communicative Approach namely the use of classroom tasks which necessitate communication, decreased emphasis on correction, increased student autonomy, increased emphasis on receptive skills, etc., which are accurate and highly relevant but still remain unimplemented.

Language from the point of view of this approach consists of "grammaticalized lexis" not of "lexicalized grammar". More meaning is carried by lexis than by grammatical structures and if communication is the aim of EFL teaching, the role of lexis should be increased and the role of grammar should be decreased. There are different kinds of lexical items, the kind we are most familiar with is the individual word, particularly the noun. Yet, there are other kinds of lexical items which have a highly relevant function in the communication process, these are multi word items. They can be subcategorized into groups such as poliwords (taxi rank, record player, put off, by the way, etc.), collocations (words such as prices, unemployment, income can collocate with fall, rise ,stabilize), institutionalized expressions (not yet.., I see what you mean but...., Sorry to interrupt but can I just say......, etc.). The basic idea is that students should be encouraged to acquire the ability to produce lexical phrases as unanalized wholes or chunks which in turn become the data by which the learner begins to perceive patterns and eventually masters the syntactic system.

Since the purpose of language is the communication of meaning, language activities should be **meaning centered**. The term meaning is quite complex, it has different aspects that communicative activities should take into account. In view of this, it is possible to speak of referential meaning ("the" meaning, the basic facts, dictionary definitions), differential meaning (language items are defined by contrast with others), connotational meaning (it adds extra meaning; compare: He walked down the street, He staggered down the street),contextual meaning (language means different things depending upon the situation of use), pragmatic

meaning (which does not refer to what we say but what we do), discourse meaning (the value of a word may change because of the extended context in which it co-occurs), negotiated meaning (that created by the interaction between speaker-listener), factual and modal meaning (which refers to the degree of validity attributed to the statement by the speaker; compare: She may be there- She is there), etc. The individual language user creates meaning through the exercise of choice, selecting one language item and rejecting others, therefore classroom activities should provide activities which acknowledge the true nature of meaning.

The Lexical Approach does not ignore the importance of grammar; even though messages can be conveyed through lexis alone, the ability to grammaticalize is necessary. Grammar should be learned receptively through student-centered exploration, a procedure where students are presented with language data and describe what they see. Put simply, they make their own grammar rules. As for sentences, they should be presented with co-text since individual sentences are meaningless when decontextualized. **If a student uses the wrong lexical word -lexical error- misunderstanding is more likely than if the mistake is only structural.** This does not mean grammar is unimportant but it points out that in a communicative classroom teachers should always react primarily to the content of student language.

Whatever teaching method is used, accuracy is the final goal. Language mistakes are not bad, in fact a learner who makes a mistake is "trying out" some new language items which he has not fully acquired yet. At this the teacher should react naturally, showing incomprehension and asking for or providing reformulation.

Methodological principles of the Lexical Approach.
1- Students learn best in language-rich classroom. Teachers must be unafraid of exposing students to real language.

2- Receptive skills should be emphasized, especially listening is recommended.

3- Receptive grammar practice values awareness raising and exploration above any teacher exploration

4- Teachers should learn to value fluency, confidence and imagination as well as accuracy.

5- Teachers should also encourage physical recording which mirrors psychological recording.

6- Teachers should help students develop their own skills in chunking texts.

7- Reformulation and feedback are the most effective responses to students' mistakes.

Summing up, EFL teachers should adjust the values they emphasize in the following way:

1) from speaking to listening

2) from product to process

3) from explanation to exploration

4) from accuracy to communication

5) from structure to lexis

6) from sentence to text

7) from teacher-centered to learner-centered

8) from recipes to theory

Appendix B Approaches and methods – an overview

	Theory of language	Theory of learning	Objectives	Syllabus
Audiolingual	Language is a system of rule-governed structures hierarchically arranged.	Habit formation; skills are learned more effectively if oral precedes written; analogy not analysis.	Control of the structures of sound, form and order, mastery over symbols of the language; goal; native-speaker mastery.	Graded syllabus of phonology, morphology and syntax. Contrastive analysis.
Communicative	Language is a system for the expression of meaning; primary function-interaction and communication.	Activities involving real communication; carrying out meaningful tasks; and using language which is meaningful to the learner promote learning.	Objectives will reflect the needs of the learner; they will include functional skills as well as linguistic objectives.	Will include some/all of the following: structures functions, notions, themes, tasks. Ordering will be guided by learner needs.
Total Physical Response	Basically a structuralist, grammar based view of language.	L2 learning is the same as L1 learning; comprehension before production, is 'imprinted' through carrying out commands (right brain functioning) reduction of stress.	Teach oral proficiency to produce learners who can communicate uninhibitedly and intelligibly with native speakers.	Sentence-based syllabus with grammatical and lexical criteria being primary, but focus on meaning not form.
The Silent Way	Each language is composed of elements that give it a unique rhythm and spirit. Functional vocabulary and core structure are a key to the spirit of the language.	Processes of learning a second language are fundamentally different from L1 learning. L2 learning is an intellectual, cognitive process. Surrender to the music of the language, silent awareness then active trial.	Near-native fluency, correct pronunciation, basic practical knowledge of the grammar of the L2. Learner learn how to learn a language.	Basically structural lessons planned around grammatical items and related vocabulary. Items are introduced according to their grammatical complexity.
Community Language Learning	Language is more than a system for communication. It involves whole person, culture, educational, developmental communicative processes.	Learning involves the whole person. It is a social process of growth from child like dependence to self direction and independence.	No specific objectives. Near native mastery is the goal.	No set syllabus. Course progression is topic-based; learners provide the topics. Syllabus emerges from learners' intention and the teacher's reformulations.
The Natural Approach	The essence of language is meaning. Vocabulary not grammar is the heart of language.	There are two ways of L2 language development 'acquisition' – a natural subconscious process, and 'learning' – a conscious process. Learning cannot lead to acquisition.	Designed to give beginners and intermediate learners basic communicative skills. Four broad areas; basic personal communicative skills (oral/written); academic learning skills (oral/written).	Based on a selection of communicative activities and topics derived from learner needs.
Suggestopedia	Rather conventional, although memorisation of whole meaningful texts is recommended.	Learning occurs through suggestion, when learners are in a deeply relaxed state. Baroque music is used to induce this state.	To deliver advanced conversational competence quickly. Learners are required to master prodigious lists of vocabulary pairs, although the goal is understanding not memorisation.	Ten unit courses consisting of 1,200 word dialogues graded by vocabulary and grammar.

	Activity types	Learner roles	Teacher roles	Roles of materials
Audiolingual	Dialogues and drills, repetition and memorisation pattern practice.	Organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses.	Central and active teacher dominated method. Provides model, controls direction and pace.	Primarily teacher oriented. Tapes and visuals, language lab often used.
Communicative	Engage learners in communication, involve processes such as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction.	Learner as negotiator, interactor, giving as well as taking.	Facilitator of the communication process, participants' tasks and texts, needs analyst, counsellor, process manager.	Primary role of promoting communicative language use; task-based materials; authentic.
Total Physical Response	Imperative drills to elicit physical actions.	Listener and performer, little influence over the content of learning.	Active and direct role 'the director of a stage play' with students as actors.	No basic text; materials and media have an important role later. Initially voice, action and gestures are sufficient.
The Silent Way	Learner responses to commands, questions and visual cues. Activities encourage and shape oral responses without grammatical explanation or modelling by teacher.	Learning is a process of personal growth. Learners are responsible for their own learning and must develop independence, autonomy and responsibility.	Teachers must a) teach b) test c) get out of the way. Remain impassive. Resist temptation to model, remodel, assist, direct exhort.	Unique materials: coloured rods, colour-coded pronunciation and vocabulary charts.
Community Language Learning	Combination of innovative and conventional. Translation, group work, recording, transcription, reflection and observation, listening, free conversation.	Learners are members of a community. Learning is not viewed as an individual accomplishment, but something that is achieved collaboratively.	Counselling/parental analogy. Teacher provides a safe environment in which students can learn and grow.	No textbook, which would inhibit growth. Materials are developed as course progresses.
The Natural Approach	Activities allowing comprehensible input, about things in the here-and-now. Focus on meaning not form.	Should not try and learn language in the usual sense, but should try and lose themselves in activities involving meaningful communication.	The teacher is the primary source of comprehensible input. Must create positive low-anxiety climate. Must choose and orchestrate a rich mixture of classroom activities.	Materials come from realia rather then textbooks. Primary aim is to promote comprehension and communication.
Suggestopedia	Initiatives, question and answer, role play, listening exercises under deep relaxation.	Must maintain a passive state and allow the materials to work on them (rather than vice versa).	To create situations in which the learner is most suggestible and present material in a way most likely to encourage positive reception and retention. Must exude authority and confidence.	Consists of texts, tapes, classroom fixtures and music. Texts should have force, literary quality and interesting characters.
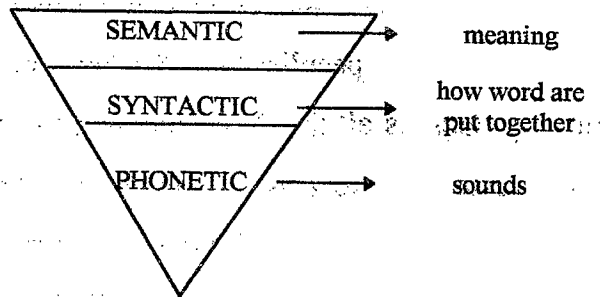
The emphasis is here on the semantic level. The other two are still important but with a different role. They help create meaning.

Reading involves comprehending a message and this in turn entails drawing information from the message itself and from the internal schemata the reader brings to the text.

READING IS A UNIQUE EXPERIENCE

In the process of language comprehension our knowledge is not static, it is continuously in a process of reorganization: each of us has a different internal representation of a given text. The input may be the same but the output will change according to each reader. All the changes of meaning take place in the brain because of the cognitive processes involved in reading. We must remember that in secondary school we are going to deal with a subject, a person, who has already reached the level of formal logical thinking. He has completed the structure of his thought and is not the result of addition but of integration of prior and new knowledge. This is the consequence of two processes which take place in the brain.

1. Accommodation: when the input comes into the brain, it accommodates the new information

2. Assimilation: when the brain tries to assimilate the new information.

These two processes will provoke a new structural thought which is different from the previous one and which is moving on to new information. The brain performs many different operations: it analyses, orders, sequences,

characterizes, defines, explains, summarizes, synthesizes. It is a living organism working all the time. Another peculiarity of the brain is that it is the master of the sensory system. It processes all the data coming from the senses: whatever you see, smell, hear, taste and feel is processed in the brain. When we face adolescents in secondary school they all have their brains working. They have had a large quantity of input which has developed all the structuring of thought and they have stored their experience within the brain. Therefore, when the student comes into the classroom, his mind is not a blank slate but the cognitive processes are already in action.

HOW INFORMATION IS PROCESSED

According to Schema Theory the process of interpretation is guided by the principle that every input is mapped against some existing schema. This principle results in two cognitive modes of processing language when reading a text: a) bottom-up processing and b) top-down processing. Bottom-up processing, on the one hand, involves rapid and accurate identification of lexical and grammatical forms and building textual meaning from the smallest units to the largest ones. On the basis of the information or data encountered in the text, the reader modifies his pre-existing background knowledge and current predictions. Bottom-up processing is thus data-driven. Top-down processing, on the other hand, is the making of predictions about a text by means of context clues, prior experience or background knowledge. Straightaway, the reader checks the text for confirmation or refutation of those predictions. Therefore the idea is that the reader has a general concept of what should be in the text -due to his previous acquired knowledge- and uses this general idea or concept when interpreting the graphic clues. Top-down processing is ,thus, conceptually-driven.

READER

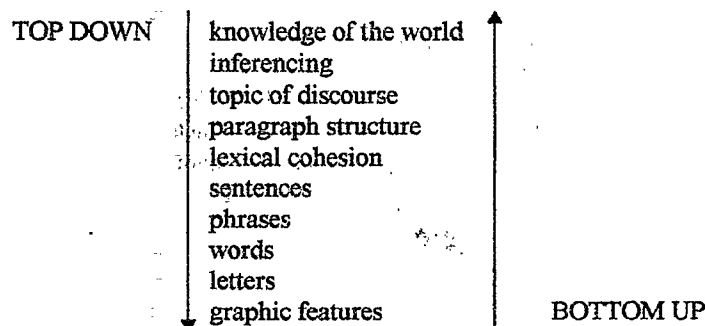Bottom up; He identifies linguistic units, builds meaning and confirms predictions
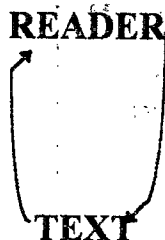
Top down; He predicts on the basis of prior knowledge / experiencie and confirms them by means of the data in the text

TEXT

DECODING IS IMPORTANT

The bottom-up processing involves reconstructing meaning from written language by using graphophonic, syntactic and semantic systems and this, in turn, promotes decoding. The term "decoding" here is not reserved to describe what happens when a reader translates print into sound but it is used to describe the process of matching print and meaning. When reading, native speakers decode lexical units and syntactic structures without making any conscious effort. This automaticity frees the minds of fluent readers to think about and interpret what they are reading. Bottom-up processing or decoding is possible due to the reader's knowledge of the language which is organized in the mind under the form of schemata that native speakers can use automatically.

INTERACTIVE MODEL OF READING COMPREHENSION

It can be said that a text is not self-contained, there is no information in it but mere marks on a page which the reader converts into meaning by interacting with it. Reading is then a kind of dialogue between text and reader. The term interactive has another important dimension in the reading comprehension model presented here. Schema Theory research has shown that the most efficient processing of written text is interactive, a combination of top-down and bottom-up processing modes. Widdowson (1979) discussed reading in this light as the process of combining textual information (data) with the information the reader brings to a text (concepts, ideas).

```
TOP DOWN    |  knowledge of the world  ↑
            |  inferencing
            |  topic of discourse
            |  paragraph structure
            |  lexical cohesion
            |  sentences
            |  phrases
            |  words
            |  letters
            ↓  graphic features        BOTTOM UP
```

PEDAGOGIC IMPLICATIONS

A poor reader who is inaccurate and slow at word recognition but who has knowledge of the text topic tends to compensate his deficiencies in bottom-up processing by relying on top-down processing. Similarly, EFL students at beginners' level usually have problems with bottom-up/data -driven processing because they lack the necessary linguistic schemata of the target language. In view of this, we should recommend that texts intended for beginners should be close to the learners' own culture, his interests and those topics he is familiar with, that the syntactic patterns in the passage should be easily accessed by the learner and that the vocabulary should not present too many unknown words and should as far as possible make use of cognates. One may argue that the sort of reading mentioned here is artificial in the sense that texts of the kind described above are very little informative. In this sense, it should be taken into account that fostering the reading comprehension skills is a continuum. On the one end, the teacher provides simpler texts whose content is already known to the reader and presents all sorts of clues (titles, visual aids, charts, scripts) to help activate the existing knowledge and to compensate the initial lack of linguistic knowledge. On the other end, the teacher provides more complex texts not only at the grammatical and lexical level but also at the level of content, this suggests that texts at this stage contain a great deal of new information which will enrich the reader's knowledge. The ultimate goal would be to help students develop as independent readers outside the EFL classrooms in order to perform various tasks.

Strategies for Reading Comprehension

♦ One possibility of text facilitation is using local settings and specialized low-frequency vocabulary. These materials might be local newspapers, pamphlets, brochures, booklets about local places of interest.

♦ Another way to minimize interference from the text is to encourage reading of texts whose content is being dealt with in other school subjects.

♦ A further alternative to provide material that is relevant to the student's culture and interests is to introduce texts devised by teachers themselves. Though non-authentic, this type of texts does help in the initial stages of reading comprehension.

♦ The use of mother tongue in reading comprehension classes may be incorporated as another strategy to facilitate text manipulation. It is the teacher who decides how often to resort to this strategy bearing in mind the student's level of English. Reading comprehension for students who take up an English course for the first time will be quite different from reading comprehension intended for students who have had previous instruction in English.

## *A Basic Methodological Model for the Teaching of Reading*

Jeremy Harmer (1991:187) proposes a methodological model for the teaching of reading. He makes it clear that it is the teacher's responsibility to train students in what he calls Type 1 and Type 2 skills which are involved in the process of reading. Type 1 skills are those used by students when they first deal with a text. Type 2 skills are those used when studying reading material in a more detailed analysis of a text.

The model proposed has five basic stages which are:

1. LEAD-IN: Students and teacher get ready for the task. Students' interest for the text is arised (e.g. by means of a brain storming or predicting activity).

2. TEACHER DIRECTS COMPREHENSION TASK: The teacher explains "exactly" what students have to do. (e.g.: Read and fill in a chart).

3. STUDENTS READ FOR TASK: Students read to do the task set by the teacher.

4. DIRECTS FEEDBACK: After the task is done, the teacher checks how they have done it or students check each other.

5. TEACHER DIRECTS TEXT RELATED TASK: The teacher sets post reading activities.

The following diagram shows how skills are involved in the five stages.
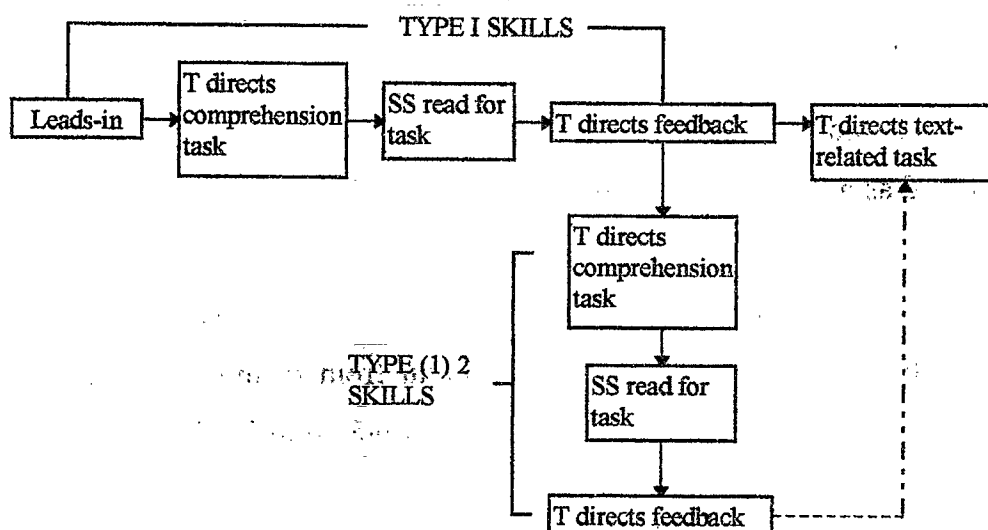
Finally, we would like to warn teachers about the possible personal interpretations of the reading comprehension approach. Some teachers tend to equate reading comprehension to literal translation. We believe that comprehending a text may eventually lead to the production of an organized oral or written Spanish version which is not a word by word translation. Certainly, a new dimension of the concept of translation is implicit here, it means encoding into Spanish the "message" proposed by the writer in English.

CONCLUSION:

We conclude this module by restating the reasons that prompt us to share our viewpoints with you. The content of this work is intended to inform our colleagues, teachers of English, of recent developments in the area of EFL teaching, to clarify the concept of communicative competence and to suggest guidelines for practical realization of the Communicative Approach/es in the classroom.

If we view teaching as an activity whose value depends centrally on "principled pragmatism", it is the teacher's responsibility to work out the way towards the most effective teaching practice, taking into account that "teaching is not the end, it is the means; all teaching is subordinate to learning" (Lewis, 1993:188).

SAMPLES: MODELS AND ACTIVITIES

P.P.P. Model (traditional version)
Materials: Passage Nº 9: "A cold welcome"

Presentation:

1. Students listen to the passage (books shut). The teacher plays the recording once, at normal speed. Consistent training in oral comprehension will, after a time, enable the students to understand a fair amount, even at first hearing.

2. Students listen to the passage (books open). The teacher reads the passage again stopping at convenient points to explain unfamiliar words and constructions. Explanations are given in English. The students' mother tongue should be used as the last resort. Students must understand the text completely. They may read the passage silently.

3. Students' listen to the passage once more (books shut). The should understand the text completely.

Practice:

4. The teacher reads short sections of the passage at normal or slightly less than normal speed and the whole class repeats in chorus after the teacher (books shut).

5. The teacher reads and students repeat either in groups or individually (books shut).

6. The teacher reads the passage and they read the text individually (books open).

7.   a) Elicitation of Yes/No answers.

       b) Questions with WHO or WHICH.

       c) Elicitation of affirmative and negative statements.

       d) Questions with WHEN, WHERE, WHY, WHO, HOW, etc.

Production:

8. Comprehension precis and composition. (written or oral task to be done by students)

9. Key structures (guided by the teacher orally and/or in the written form)

10. Special difficulties (guided by the teacher orally and/or in the written form).

11. Final exercises (guided by the teacher orally and/or in the written form).

A Cold Welcome

On Wednesday evening, we went to the Town Hall. It was the last day of the year and a large crowd of people had gathered under the Town Hall clock. It would strike twelve in twenty minutes' time. Fifteen minutes passed and then, at five to twelve, the clock stopped. The big minute hand did not move. We waited and waited, but nothing happened. Suddenly someone shouted, 'It's two minutes past twelve! The clock has stopped!' I looked at my watch. It was true. The big clock refused to welcome the New Year. At that moment, everybody began to laugh and sing.

the clock stopped

Comprehension Précis and Composition

Answer these questions *in not more than 50 words.*
1. Where did we go on New Year's Eve?
2. Were there many people there or not?
3. In how many minutes would the Town Hall clock strike twelve?
4. At what time did it stop?
5. Did it refuse to welcome the New Year or not?
6. What did the crowd do then?

Key Structures

When did you arrive? I arrived at 10 o'clock.
Read these sentences carefully. Pay close attention to the phrase in italics. We can use phrases like these to answer questions beginning with *When.*
a Phrases with *at*:
I always leave home *at 8 o'clock*. I begin work *at 9 o'clock*. I work all day and often get home late *at night*.
b Phrases with *in*:
I'm going out now. I'll be back *in ten minutes* or *in half an hour*.
The second World War began *in 1939* and ended *in 1945*.
Many tourists come here *in summer*. They usually come *in July* and *in August*. It is very quiet here *in winter*. The hotels are often empty *in January, February* and *in March.*
I'll see you *in the morning*. I can't see you *in the afternoon* or *in the evening.*
c Phrases with *on*:
I shall see him *on Wednesday*. I'm not free *on Tuesday* or *Thursday.*
My brother will arrive from Germany *on April 27th*. He will return *on May 5th.*
d Other phrases:
The shops are open *from 9 till 5.*
It rained heavily *during the night.*
He will not arrive *until 10 o'clock.*

Special Difficulties

a Everyone, everybody, everything. Everybody enters for 'The Nicest Garden Competition'. (ll. 2–3)
Read these sentences:
Everything is ready.
Everybody has come.
Everyone likes ice-cream.

Exercise
Choose the correct verbs in the following sentences:
1. Everybody (believe) (believes) he will win.
2. I heard a noise and went downstairs. I found that everything (were) (was) in order.
3. Everyone (try) (tries) to earn more and work less.

L. G. Alexander
Practice and Progress

P.P.P Model (a more Communicative version)

Material: (a dialogue)

Presentation:

The teacher begins the class asking students how they feel on Monday morning before an exam. The teacher hands out pictures of people's faces expressing different moods and students describe them guessing how they feel.(for extension of vocabulary). The teacher asks the students to look at the artwork in their book and predict how the characters feel and why. The teacher plays the cassette and students listen to it to confirm their predictions. The students read the dialogue and as they read they underline expressions related to moods and/or states of mind.

Practice:

Students solve a true-false exercise about the dialogue. Students practise in pairs talking about their moods and making suggestions following a pattern written by the teacher on the blackboard.

A: I'm really in a bad mood.

B: Why?

A: Because I think I failed my exam.

A: Why don't you......................?/ May be you could.............

A: That's a good idea.

Or:

A: You really look happy.

B: I just got some good news.

The teacher explains she is going to describe different situations and the students should say: "That's great" or "That's too bad"

E.g.: T: I just got a letter from my penfriend, Susan.   St: That's great

T: I failed my driving test.   St: That's too bad

Production:

The teacher asks students to write a paragraph about one of the characters in the story, explaining how he/she feels and why.

Or: Teacher conducts a discussion about events in life that affect people's emotions (marriage, exams, divorce, birth, death, etc.).

T.P.R Model

Material: a comic strip

Introduction:

Teacher talks about Christmas in general: its meaning, how people celebrate it in most countries (Exposure). Teacher encourages students to add ideas and guides them to focus on people's customs of doing a lot of shopping, mainly presents.

Task:

The class is divided in two groups. Each student is given the comic strip with empty bubbles. The texts for the bubbles are scrambled at the bottom of the page. Students have to place the corresponding text in each bubble.

Planning:

Students write a paragraph telling what the comic strip is about and how it ends up.

Report:

One spokesperson from each group reads the written paragraph.

The students are now given the complete strip for them to check how closely to the original they have done. Though different, all coherent versions should be accepted.

Analysis:

- Find in the text all the "ing" forms. Teacher guides the students to talk about the differences in use and functions.

- Fixed phrases: "Bring out the best /the worst ..." Notice the difference in meaning in the last scene.

- Focus on questions. Real questions: what is their function/meaning.

- Irregular comparatives and superlatives.

- Suggestions.
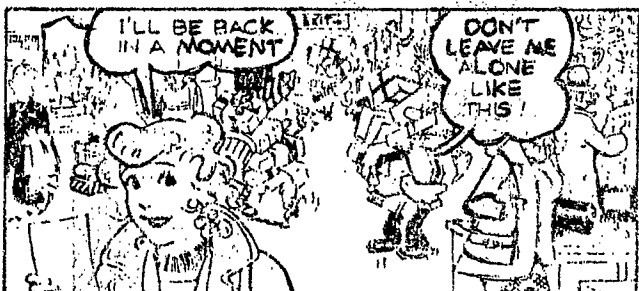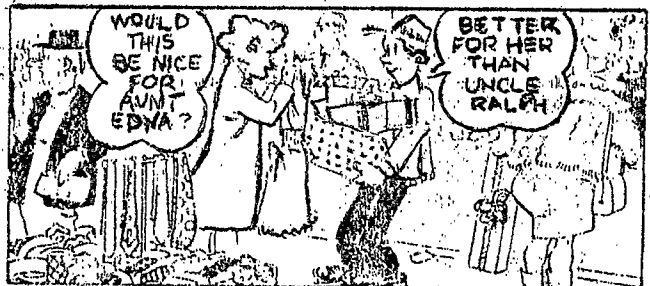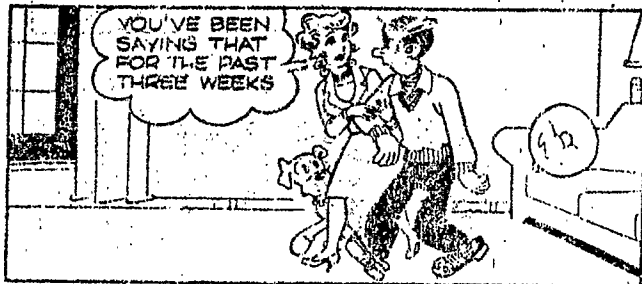
- Use of "will": does it indicate future?

Follow up

a) Watching a TV report on "Christ and Christmas" (the real significance of the festivity)

b) Open discussion and comments
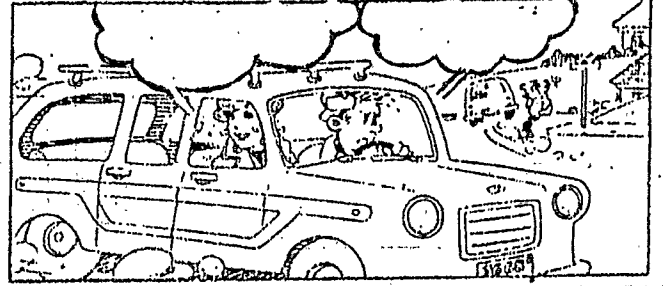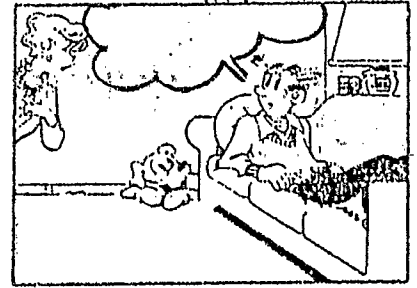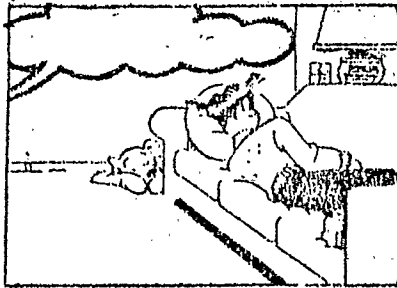
O.H.E. Model
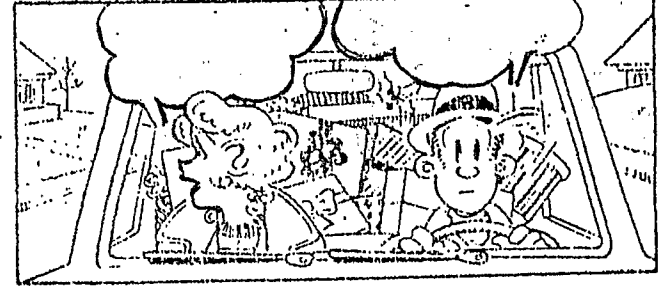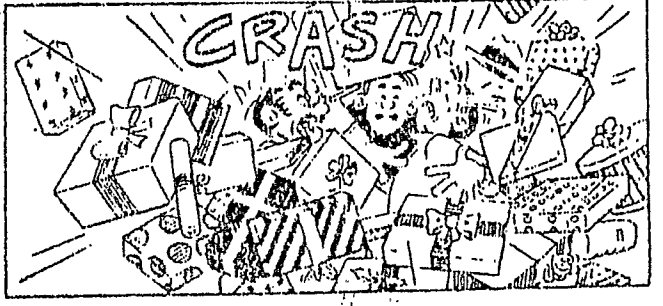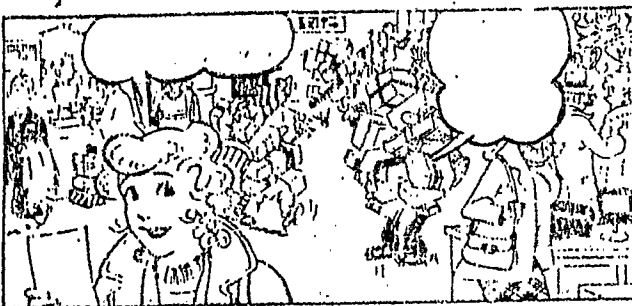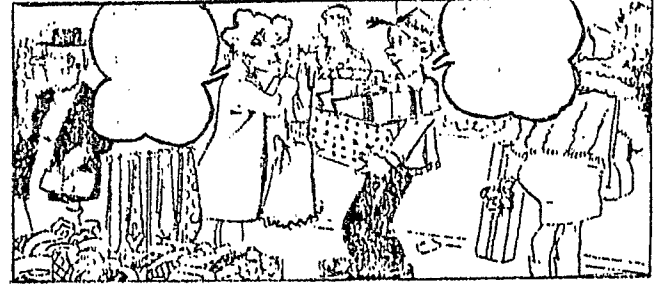
<u>**Material**</u>: a poem, "18 ways to Make Each Day of Your Life Happier" by V. Worsham.

<u>**Observation**</u>:

The teacher writes the word "happiness" on the blackboard and asks the students when they are happy/ unhappy to elicit expressions such as:

I' m happy when........

I'm unhappy when.....

The teacher hands out copies of the poem. Students read it silently then, aloud.They discuss new vocabulary items. The teacher asks students to give their opinions about the poem, if they like it or not,if they like poetry or not and about their favourite poets.The teacher asks them to pay attention to the first word in every verse to find out if they can identify them as verbs.

Hypothesis:

The teacher asks students what the form of the verbs is. The teacher guides students to decide what the poet means: What is he doing? Is he ordering, inviting or suggesting?.

Experience:

Students do the following exercise: Read the following and underline the verbs, are they base forms or not?; if so, are they suggestions or orders?.

a) Mother: It's twelve o'clock, go to bed now!

Daughter: Yes, mum.

b).....In a world of comparisons and conformity

have courage to be yourself! ....Diane Holcomb.

c) Ladies and gentlemen, your attention please. Come into the dining room, dinner is ready!

d) Shop assistant: Do you like the dress?, Try it on!

Customer: Yes, but do you think this is the right size?

Students are asked to write a four verse poem dedicated to a friend:

18 Ways to Make
Each Day of Your Life
Happier

Every day...

Share a kind word with a friend.

Give away a smile.

Tell one secret.

Listen to what someone has to say.

Listen with your heart

> to what someone cannot say.

Try one new thing.

Forgive one person who has hurt you.

Forgive yourself for past mistakes.
Realize your imperfections.

Discover your possibilities.

Make a new friend.
Accept responsibility

> for everything you do.

Refuse responsibility

> for anyone else's actions.

Dream one dream.

Watch the sunset.

Cherish what you have.

Cherish who you are.

Love your life.

Vickie M. Worsham

The Lexical Approach. (Lewis, 1993). Sample activities.
How Grammar is presented.

Delexicalised words as pattern generators

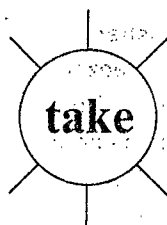**(take someone somewhere)**
Who takes the children to school?
I'll take you shopping tomorrow.
They had to take her to the doctor.

....

....

a picture
a photograph

(a period of time)
I took over an hour on the motorway.
That'll take ages.
It won't take more than ten minutes.

....

....

(take)

(travelling)
Shall we take the car?
Don't worry I can take a train.

....

....

an exam
your driving test

(decisions or choices)
You should take more risks.
We can't take a decision yet.
I'll take the responsibility.

....

....

If language practice is to reflect the nature of language, all **practices should be supra-sentential.** Notice the difference in these two examples:

PRACTICE 1

Complete the following sentences with the correct form of the verb:

1. I .... late every night last week. (work)
2. I .... a new car last week. (buy)
3. I .... to bring your book, but I'll bring it tomorrow. (forget)
4. I .... my wallet somewhere safe, and then I couldn't find it! (put)

PRACTICE 2

Complete this dialogue with the correct forms of the verb:

Did you remember to call at the supermarket on your way home?
— Oh sorry, I completely .... I .... late, was tired when I .... the office, and I just .... (forget, work, leave)
— Don't worry, it doesn't matter. I .... a couple of pizzas this afternoon and .... them in the deep freeze so we can have one of those. (buy, put)


M. Lewis, 1993

How Lexis is Presented

Vocabulary networks

It is useful to record words which are associated in networks because it can help you to remember them. You can do this in a list or in the form of a diagram like the one below.

The following are all electrical household goods. Use your dictionaries to check the meaning and (if possible) the pronunciation of any you do not know, then fill in the spaces. Some are already filled to help you.

air-conditioning   cooker   dishwasher
microwave oven   spotlight   fan   freezer
fridge   food mixer   home computer   iron
kettle   lamp   hi-fi system   vacuum cleaner
Walkman   video   washing machine
word processor   CD player   fan heater
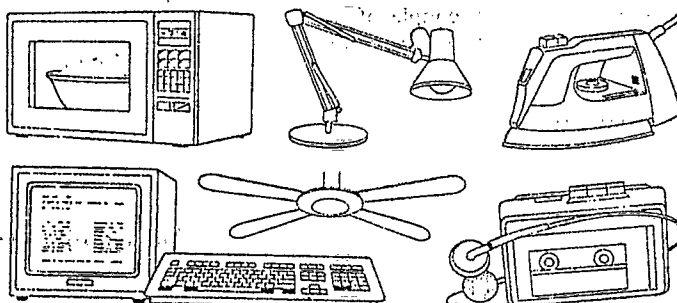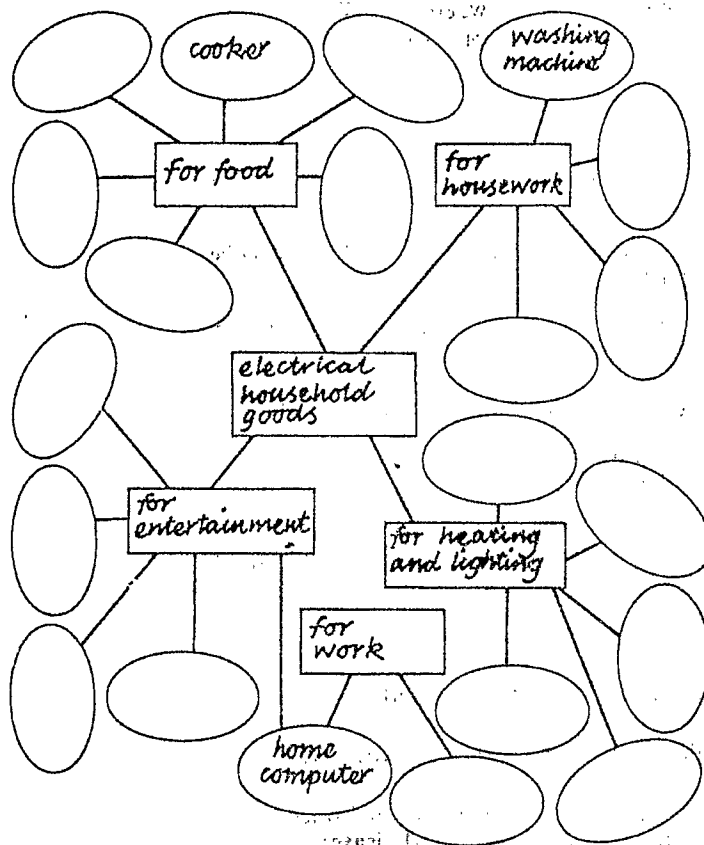
John and Liz Soars, 1991
Headway Pre-Intermediate
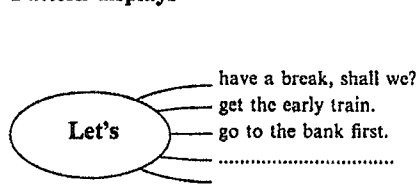
How Lexis is Presented

Collocation boxes

(re) draft dictate go through get fax	confidential sales special offer urgent promotional	letter

Example 1

small nice classy reasonable popular	Italian Chinese Thai Indian Mexican	restaurant

Example 2

Pattern displays

Let's
— have a break, shall we?
— get the early train.
— go to the bank first.
— ....
— ....

Example 5

(a meal)
breakfast.
lunch

(personal relationship)
a friend in America
a daughter in London
— have —
(food or drink)
a coke
a cup of tea
an apple

(free time)
a day off
a holiday
a break
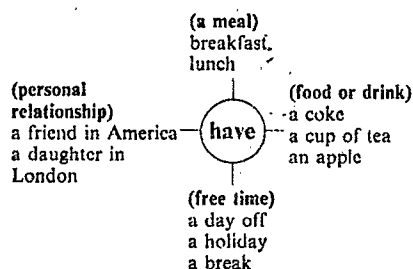
Example 6

EXERCISE 6

How many expressions can you make which use:

a. part of the verb *have* with:
b. part of the verb *give* with:

1. a party
2. lunch
3. a pound
4. a present for . . .
5. a present to . . .
6. a cup of tea
7. time to . . .
8. a hand
9. a cold
10. the opportunity to . . .

EXERCISE 9

1. Agree with a synonym.
He was very strange.
— Yes, very odd.

2. Agree, with an antonym
Joe didn't stick to the subject.
— He wandered off too much.

3. Agree, with a more general word.
The cat is great company.
— All pets are.

4. Agree, with a more specific word.
Books are badly printed nowadays.

M. Lewis, 1993
The Lexical Approach

Communicative Activities, Samples
Sample 1: A poem for the E.F.L. Classroom

A) Pre-reading activities:

a) Brainstorming based on the following questions:

- Would you associate life with suffering or happiness?

- What attitudes towards life would you suggest to make it better?

- What is more important: past, present or future events?

b) In pairs: what do the following words mean to you? Use either single words or phrases:

Laughter - heart - destiny - challenge - creation

c) In pairs: Make a list of things that might make your lives beautiful.

d) From the title predict what the poem is going to be about. Predict what the mood of the poem is going to be like.

B) Reading Activities

a) Silent reading (students)

b) Reading aloud (first the teacher, then students in turns, one verse each)

* Comprehension Activities:

1. Match each of the following expressions with the appropiate explanation:

   a) "Live your life to the fullest"

   b) "Smile for today"

   c) "Conquer the unconquerable"

   d) "Questions all that is questionable"

e) "Challenge tomorrows and treasure yesterdays"

   i) Show happiness for the nice things you have at present

   ii) Carpe Diem. Seize the day.

   iii) Do not accept everything submissively

   iv) Take advantage of past experiences and face the future with courage.

   v) Be brave.

2) Say whether the following sentences are true or false. Justify your answers with reference to the text:

   a) Live just for today, don't care about tomorrow.

   b) Be friendly to strangers.

   c) Don't expect to make new friends.

   d) Accept everything without objections.

   e) Happiness is outside you.

   f) Think hard.

   g) Fight for the new coming day

   h) Forget about yesterday

   i) Get whatever you can from life.

   j) Love !

C) Dealing with Lexis:

   a) Find in the poem a word or words which you would associate with the following:

   Life - Conquer - Heart - Enjoy - Star

b) Find in the poem words opposite in meaning.

D) Grammatical Consciousness Raising:

a) Underline the verbs at the beginning of each sentence

b) Comment on their   *form

*meaning

E) Content evaluation

1) Answer the following questions:

a) Who is the writer addressing to?

b) Is the writer optimistic or pessimistic in his view of life? Justify with examples from the poem.

c) In your own word and very simply say what the writer's message is or what the writer wants to tell us.

F) After reading activities:

*Read "18 ways to make each day of your life happier" by V. Worsham and then answer the following questions:

a) Is the main idea of this poem similar to the main idea of the analized poem? In what sense?

b) What can you say about the verbs in both poems?

*Match one sentence from poem 1 with another in poem 2, taking **meaning** into account.

G) Writing

In a paragraph explain the title of poem 1

H) Follow up

a) Talk/write about a happy event, e.g. a birthday, a wedding, making a new friend, etc ...

b) Look for a song with the same theme as that of the poems.

c) Illustrate the poems (drawings, collages, etc ...)

d) Who says the following? To whom?. Comment on the meaning in each case

- Type these letters!

- Be careful!

- Come to my party?

- Stop!

- Put it in the fridge!

e) Add four or five verses to one of the poems

f) Write your own poem.

Life Is as Beautiful
as You Make It

Always live your life to its fullest.
Enjoy laughter, touch a star.
Smile for today
while you shine through your tomorrows.
Open your heart to strangers;
destiny may bring newfound friends.
Venture out, conquer the unconquerable.
Look where others dare not look,
and question all that is questionable.
Remember that happiness is the home
we build within ourselves.
Speak your mind.
Hear a symphony within silence.
Open your heart.
Challenge tomorrows
and treasure yesterdays.
Capture all that you can
in this beautiful creation called life.

—William J. Burrows

Sample 2.

Our Environment.

1.Read the following sentences and choose the one you like most. Say why:

A) WOE TO THOSE WHO ADD HOUSE TO HOUSE, WHO JOIN FIELD TO FIELD UNTIL THERE IS NO MORE ROOM AND THEY ARE THE SOLE INHABITANTS OF THE LAND. Isaiah 5:8.

B) THE BOUNDLESS BLUE SKY, THE OCEAN WHICH GIVES US BREATH AND PROTECTS US FROM THE ENDLESS BLACK AND DEATH, IS A VERY THIN FILM. HOW DANGEROUS IS TO THREATEN EVEN THE SMALLEST PART OF THIS CONSERVER OF LIFE. Shatalov.

C) A FROG DOES NOT DRINK UP THE POND IN WHICH HE LIVES. Indian proverb.

D) AND THIS, OUR LIFE, EXCEMPT FROM PUBLIC HAUNT, FINDS TONGUES IN TREES, BOOKS IN THE RUNNING BROOKS, SERMONS IN STONES, AND GOOD IN EVERYTHING. William Shakespeare.

E) MOTHER PLANET IS SHOWING US THE RED WARNING LIGHT: BE CAREFUL SHE IS SAYING. TO TAKE CARE OF OUR PLANET IS TO TAKE CARE OF OUR OWN HOUSE. The Dalai Lama.

F) THE GREATNESS OF A NATION CAN BE JUDGED BY THE WAY ITS ANIMALS ARE TREATED. Gandhi.

2. Look at the following picture. What does it mean? How can you relate it to the phrases above?

What feelings does it bring about in you?

3. Read the following articles and report them to the class (One for each group).

TEXT A: **Our environment.**

Forests- Boreal, coniferous forests, temperature zone forests and tropical forests- cover 30% of the earth's land surface.

The tropical rain forests in Amazonia, southeast Asia and west central Africa are being destroyed at an alarming rate of 42 million acres per year. This destruction is caused by slash-and-burn agriculture, cattle ranching, the building of dams and highways, and mining.

The tropical rain forest is a natural recycler, provider and protector of our planet. It recycles carbon, nytrogen, and oxygen, helps determine temperature, rainfall and other climate conditions and supports the most diverse ecosystems of the world.

Deforestation is endangering the ecosystem, and could cause at least one-fourth of all species on the earth to vanish in the next 25 years. Burning these forests releases carbon and decreases the oxygen in the atmosphere, causing the

possible acceleration of global warming. The loss of rain forests also means the loss of many indegenous peoples who inhabit those areas. Some like the Malasyan Iban and Penan tribes are fighting for the oldest forests in the world, which have been their homes for centuries. Protecting our forests is one key to the survival of our planet.

TEXT B: **Overpopulation**.

Ultimately, no problem is more threatening to the earth's environment than the proliferation of human species.

Today the planet holds more than 5 billion people. During the next century, world population will double, with 90% of that growth occurring in poor countries. In the poorest countries people cannot afford even the most basic necessities: housing, fuel and food. Living trees are being cut down for fuel, grasslands overgrazed by live stock and croplands overplowed by desperate farmers. In India and in Africa thousands of people can not find enough food to sustain themselves and die of hunger.

Prospects are so terrible that some environmentalists urge the people to plan their families so as not to have more than two children each. This notion was considered as imperialist and racist in the past but nowadays it is a strong need, especially in the underdeveloped countries.

4. *Class discussion*: How responsible is the government for deforestation and overpopulation? How responsible are individuals? What measures could be taken? Which form of life do you think is more important to save, endangered plants or endangered animals? Why?

5.*Group work*. Which species will you save?

a) a.You are members of a team that is working to save the ten endangered species below. However, you have only enough money and material to work with one species at a time. Look over the list and then order the plants and animals in the order you will try to save them.

crane

pitcher plant
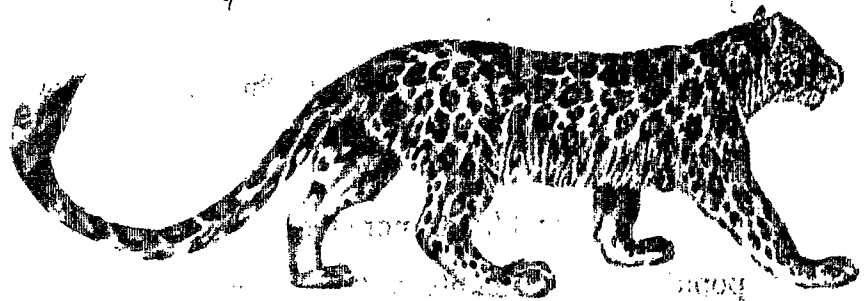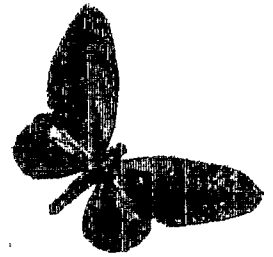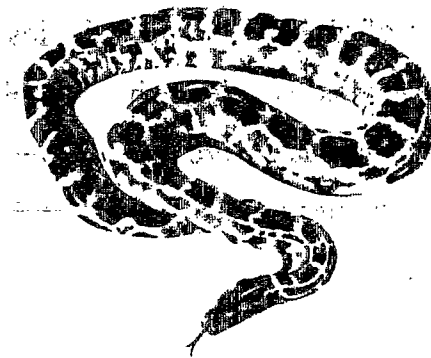
Indian python

Humpback whale

Snow leopard

Giant panda

Grey bat

Phillipine Eagle

Birdwind butterfly

b) On what basis did you decide your ranking? usefulness to humans? beauty? size?.

c) Why are some people more interested in saving mammals and birds than they are in saving lower plants and animals.

* This activity could be concluded with the song "Heal the World" by

Michael Jackson.

Sample 3:

Problem Solving Activities

All the students are told to read the following:

THE SITUATION

It is about ten o'clock in the morning in July, and you have just crashed in a small aeroplane in the Sonora desert in Northern Mexico. The pilot and co-pilot are dead and the aeroplane is a burnt-out shell. One of the passengers is injured.

The aeroplane had no radio, and the survivors think that they were about 100 kilometres off course when they crashed. Just before the crash the pilot told the passengers that they were 120 kilometres south of a small mining camp.

From experience you know that daytime temperatures can reach 43° centigrade (110° Fahrenheit) and night-time temperatures reach freezing. All the passengers are dressed in light clothes. The area is flat and arid as far as the eye can see.

Instructions

The following is a list of items that came out of the crash in good order:
— Flashlight with four batteries
— Jack knife
— Detailed pilot's chart of the area
— Large plastic poncho
— Compass
— Instrument to measure blood pressure
— Loaded .45 pistol
— One red and white parachute
— Bottle of 1000 salt tablets
— One quart of water per person
— Book *Edible Desert Animals*
— One pair of sunglasses per person
— Two bottles of vodka
— One overcoat per person
— One pocket mirror

Now do the following:
(a) Individually write down a list of the seven most important items on this list to ensure survival and/or rescue.
(b) Agree with the other members of the group what these items are.

They are then put in groups. Each group must follow the instructions and work out how to survive this desert situation. The teacher can then check to see how ingenious (or otherwise) the solutions are. (One proposed solution is as follows: the seven important items are the mirror, the flashlight, one quart of water per person, the plastic poncho, sunglasses, overcoats and a parachute. Walking is inadvisable owing to the heat, so a signalling mirror (by day) and flashlight (by night) will be useful. The parachute can be used for shelter and as a sign for searching planes. Sunglasses can prevent blindness and overcoats keep people warm in the cold desert nights. The

J. Harmer, 1993.
The Practice of E.L.T.

Sample 4:
Project Work

( ) The smoking report

In this project students devise a questionnaire and then use it to get results which are interpreted and written up as a report. The project can easily be used in non-target language situations since students can interview each other – or students in other classes – to get the results they want.

The project is organised in the following way:

Stage 1 Students are told they are going to work in groups to write a report on attitudes to smoking based on a questionnaire that they will design.

Stage 2 The teacher discusses with the class what kind of information they might want to obtain and the kind of questions they could use to get it. For example the following areas might be selected:

Smokers:
- their smoking habits
- their reasons for smoking
- their feelings about smoking in public places and on public transport
- their attitude to smokers who complain

Non-smokers:
- their reasons for not smoking
- their reasons for having given up (in some cases)
- their attitude to smoking in public places and on public transport
- their suggestions for change

Stage 3 The groups write their different questionnaires. The teacher can act as a resource (see 11.1.6) or as a prompter (11.1.4).

Stage 4 The groups then administer their questionnaires. In an English-speaking community they can question members of the public. In other countries they can question fellow classes and fellow students (see above).

Stage 5 The groups study the information they have collected and write a report in which they reach conclusions about the results of their investigations. The reports can then be compared. Groups can read other groups' work and discuss the similarities and differences with their own.

Clearly this project requires commitment and dedication from the students. It could well occupy two weeks of an intermediate class's time. Smaller versions could be done, however, simply focusing on how many people smoke and how many cigarettes they smoke a day. The same kind of thing could be done with other topics like hobbies, travel to and from work/study, eating habits, etc.
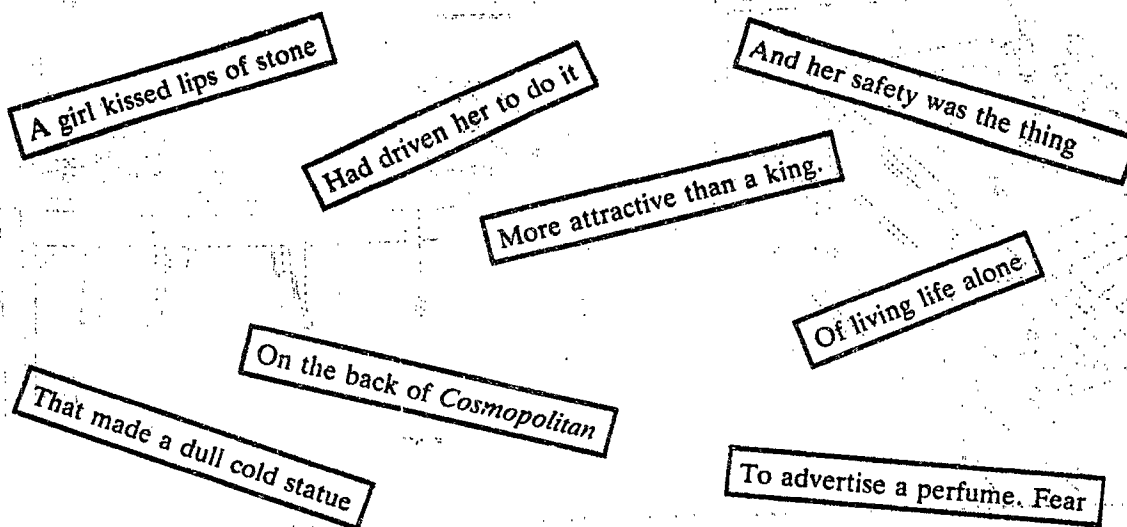
Sample 5:

Reconstruction

( ) Poem reconstruction

The   principle of reconstruction can be applied to simple poems. Students have to reassemble lines which they are given. The activity mixes reading, listening and discussion.

Stage 1 The students are put into groups.

Stage 2 In each group each of the students is given one of the following cards and instructed not to show it to anyone else:

A girl kissed lips of stone

Had driven her to do it

And her safety was the thing

More attractive than a king.

Of living life alone

On the back of Cosmopolitan

That made a dull cold statue

To advertise a perfume. Fear

Stage 3 The groups are told that they must reassemble the poem – it is a one stanza poem. Students can read the lines aloud, but they may not show them to anyone else.

Stage 4 The groups are told that they must decide on a title for the poem.

J. Harmer, 1993
The Practice of E.L.T.

Sample 6
Jigsaw Activity

How many?

Type of activity
pair work
information gap

Function practised
counting

Exponent
How many ... are there?
There are ... (+ numbers up to 20)

Lexical areas
numbers up to 20, kitchen objects

Essential vocabulary
teapot, pan, fork, knife, spoon, cup, saucer, glass, plate, bowl, spider
numbers 1 to 20

How to use the game
Divide the class into pairs and copy enough pictures for each pair.
Give out the pictures so that one student in each pair has picture A and the other has picture B.
The object of the game is to find out who has the most things in the kitchen. To do this, A and B will have to ask each other how many teapots, pans, forks, knives, spoons, cups, saucers, glasses, bowls and plates there are in their kitchens and add up the total.
When they have done this, they can find out who has the most spiders!

Jill Hadfield, 1984 Elementary Comm. Games.

A

B
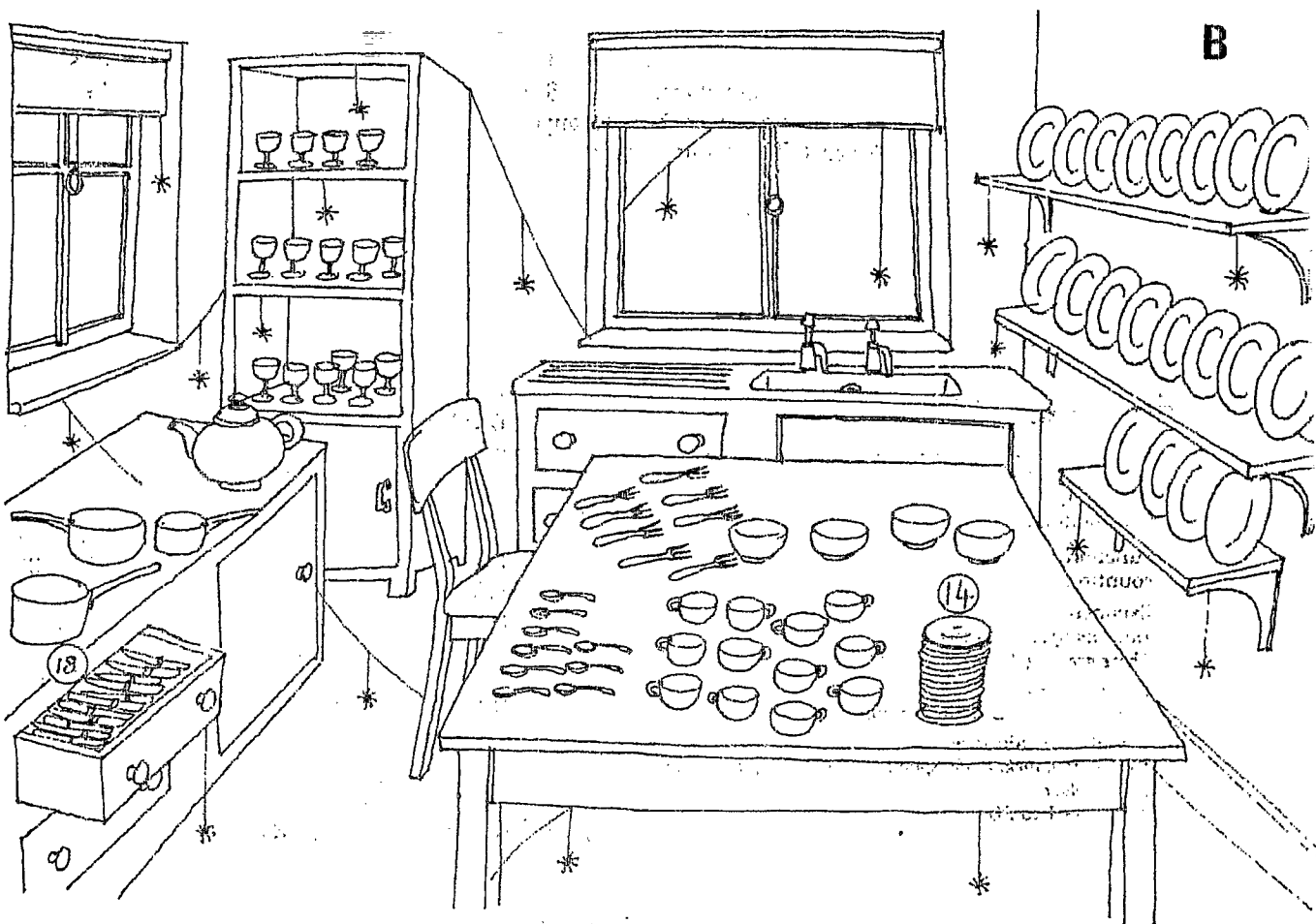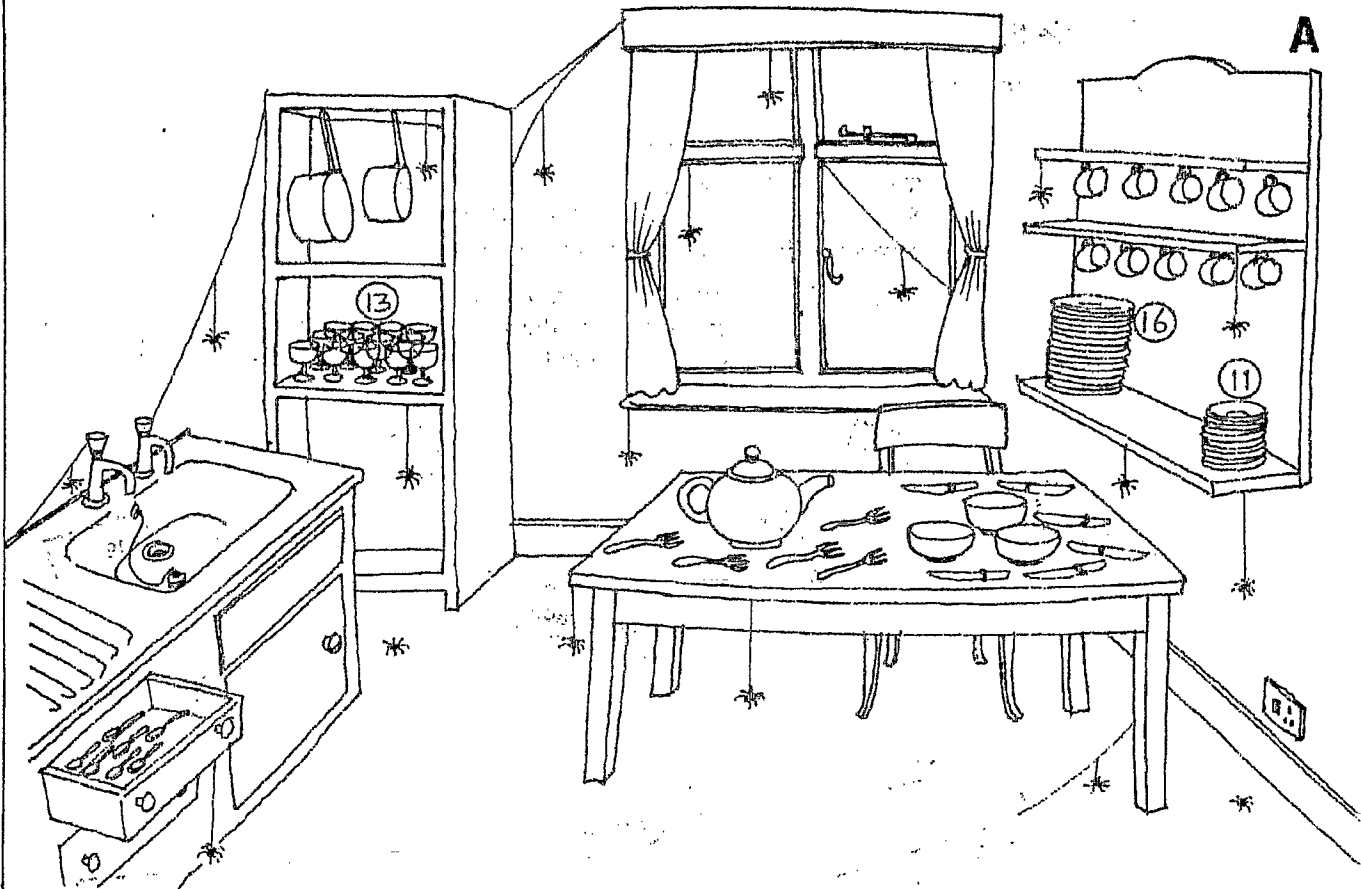
Reading Comprehension. Sample Activities.

Sample 1.

This activity may be used in schools with large groups and limited time of exposure to English at initial stage.

1. Mire la fotografía. Según su opinión se trata de:

    a. personal de una oficina.

    b. una familia.

    c. un grupo de amigos.

    d. un equipo de voley.

2. Lea el texto con la ayuda del diccionario bilingue.

This is a photo of Martin, his wife, and his children. His wife's name is Jennifer. She's a dentist. His daughter's name is Alison. She's twenty-three and she's a hairdresser. His son's name is Andy. He's nineteen and he's a student. Alison's boyfriend is a travel agent. His name is Joe.

3. Complete los espacios en blanco con los nombre respectivos.

4. Diga si es verdadero (V) o falso (F). Corrija la información falsa.

    a. Jennifer is Andy's wife

    b. Martin is a dentist

    c. Alison is twenty-three.

    d. Andy is Martin's son.

5. Complete el siguiente diagrama.

(Martin) [............]   [............] (Jennifer)

FAMILY

(Andy) [............]   [............] (Alison)
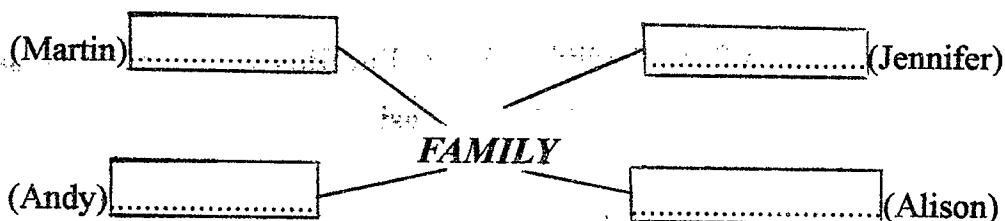
6. Usando el diccionario complete el siguiente cuadro sobre ocupaciones.

a.Roberto Giordano...............................

b.Whitney Huston...............................

c.Mario Sockolinsky...............................

d.Gaston Pauls...............................

e.Claudia Schiffer...............................

7. Siguiendo el modelo del texto dado, complete el siguiente párrafo.

Hello!, my name is...................My mother's name is.......................,she is a...................and my father's name is..........................., he is a...................My brother/s is/are...............................and my sister/s is/are...........................

Sample 2.

1. Read Hellen's letter to he penfriend, Juan, in Argentina.

<div align="right">

22 Newport Road

Cardiff

CF6 4TU

Wales

16 October

</div>

Dear Juan,

Hello! I'm your new penfriend. My name is Helen. That's my first name. My family name is Jones.

I'm from Cardiff in Wales. I'm fifteen years old. The name of my school is the Central Cardiff Comprehensive. I am in Year 10. There are twenty-seven students in my class.

My favourite singer is Prince. Who is your favourite?.

Best whishes,

Helen.

This is a photo of me!

2. Look at the girls in the pictures above. Which one is Helen/Why do you think so?

3. Complete the information about Helen in your notebook..

First name:..

Family name:..

Town:..

Country:..

Age:..

Course :..

Favourite singer:..

4. Are these sentences true (/) or false (x). Correct the false sentences.

a.Juan is from Cardiff.

b.Cardiff is in Wales.

c.Helen is ten years old.

d.Helen's class has thirty students.

e.Prince is a singer.

f.Juan is in Helen's class.

g.Central Cardiff Comprehensive is the name of Helen's school.

h.Helen is English.

5. Put the different parts of Helen's letter into an appropriate order.

6. Complete these sentences:

a.Cardiff is..............................

b.In Helen's class.....................

c.Helen is................................

d. Prince is..............................

e. Juan is................................

16 October		Jones.

My favourite singer is Prince. Who is your favourite?

22 Newport Road Cardiff CF6 4TU Wales		Best wishes, Helen.

This is a photo of me!

I'm from Cardiff, in Wales. I'm fifteen years old. The name of my school is the Central Cardiff

Dear Juan,
   Hello! I'm your new penfriend. My name is Helen. That's my first name. My family name is

Comprehensive. I'm in year 10. There are twenty-seven students in my class.

7. Answer:

a.Is the text a poem or a letter?

b.Is it formal or informal?

c.Is it about personal information or information about the city?

8. Write three (3) questions you would like to ask Helen.

a...?

b...?

c...?

9. You are Juan. Answer Helen's letter.

....

....

....

....

....

* The same type of exercise might be used with biographies such as the ones below:

BIOGRAPHY

MAHATMA GANDHI was born in 1869 in South Africa, but his nationality was Indian. He was a great political leader. He believed in non-violence. He wanted his country, India, to be independent and his struggle for independence from the British government was successful. His non-violent campaign defeated the British. Gandhi died in 1948. An assassin killed him. It was a tragic death for a very great man.

Headings	Notes	
Name		
Dates	b.	d.
Nationality		
Work		
Achievement		

BIOGRAPHY

MARIE SKLODOWSKA was born in 1867, in Poland. She married Professor Pierre Curie, who was a Frenchman. So Marie Curie was Polish and French. She lived and worked in Paris. She was a great scientist. She discovered the chemical element, radium, and she helped to discover X-rays. She was a Nobel Prize winner twice: in 1903, for physics and, in 1911, for chemistry. She died in 1934.

Headings	Notes	
Name		
Dates	b.	d.
Nationality		
Work		
Achievement	......	

Sample 3.

What's your body made of?

1. Consider the following Spanish words. Consult your bilingual dictioanry and write the corresponding English words:

a.cuerpo: b.celula:

c.capa: d.fabrica:

e.central: f.filamentos:

g.jalea: h.deposito:

i.quimicos:

2. Read the following passage and underline the words you looked up in the dictionary:

What is your body made of?

Your body is a complex mass of many different parts. All the parts have vital jobs to do and they all have to work properly together to keep you alive and healthy. Your body is made up of more than 50 billion individual living units called cells. All human beings develop from just two cells: an egg cell (ovum*) from their mother and a sperm cell from their father. Egg cells are the largest human cells and can just be seen without a microscope. Most of the other cells can only be seen through very powerful microscopes.**

3. Underline the words CELL/S and then match the following:

egg cell   50 billion

cells   ovum

sperm cell   a cell from the father

What is a cell made of?

Although there are differences between the various types of cell, most have the same basic structure and they all need certain substances, such as food and oxygen, to stay alive and to work properly. Here is a cell shown with a section removed so you can see its different parts.

Membrane

This is a fine layer which holds the cell together and separates it from other cells. It is rather like the frontier of a country. It allows certain substances to pass into the cell, while keeping others out. It also allows waste products made in the cell to pass out.

Mitochondria

These are the cell's power stations. Here food and oxygen react together to produce energy so that the cell can live and work.

Ribosomes

Ribosomes are the cell's factories. They manufacture proteins, including those from which the cell itself is made.
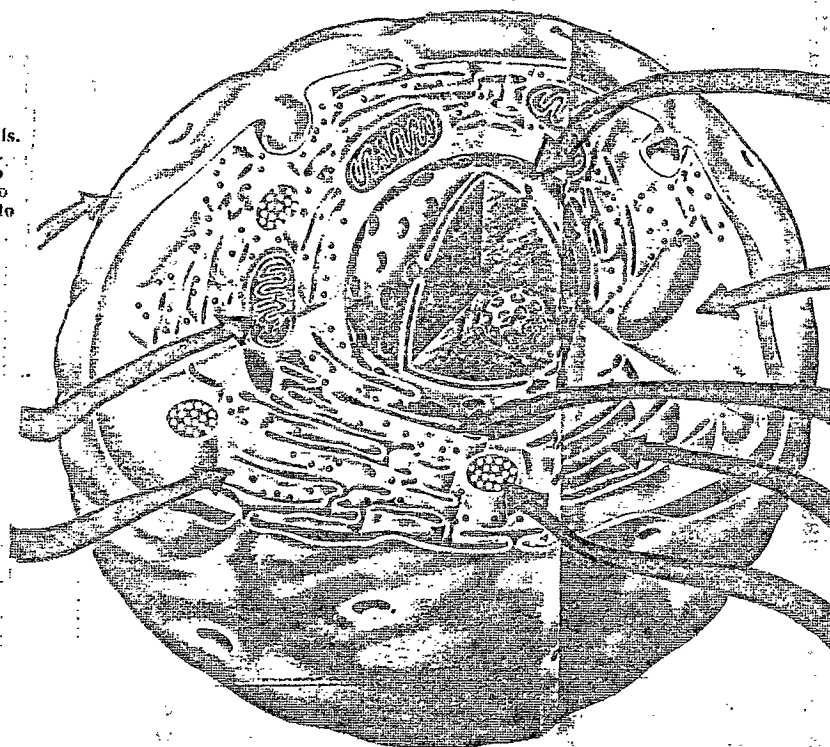
Nucleus

The nucleus acts rather like a government headquarters, controlling and directing all the activities of the cell. It is in the centre of the cell body. (You can see the nucleus in each of the cells on the page opposite.) The nucleus contains special threads called chromosomes. These carry complex coded instructions for the workings of the cell, rather like a computer program. You inherit your chromosomes from your parents.

Cytoplasm

This is a jelly-like substance, which makes up most of the cell, rather like a background landscape. It consists mainly of protein and water, especially water. Your cells are about two-thirds water.

Endoplasmic reticulum

These channels are the cell's industrial estates. They are where the ribosomes are found.

Golgi complex

This acts as a storage depot. Some of the proteins made by the ribosomes are kept here until they are needed.

Lysosomes

These are the cell's secret police. They contain chemicals which destroy harmful foreign substances and any old or diseased parts of the cell.

a. Are there different types of cells?

b. Do cells have different structures?

c. Does the membrane produce energy?

d. Is the mitochondria a kind of power station?

e. Do ribosomes consume proteins?

f. Is the nucleus the central element of the cell?

g. Does the cytoplasm contain chromosomes?

h. Is the endoplasmatic reticulum the cell's industrial estates?

i. Is it a kind of storage depot?

j. Do lysosomes fight against harmful substances?

5. Complete the following word net:

ribosome

energy

chromosomes
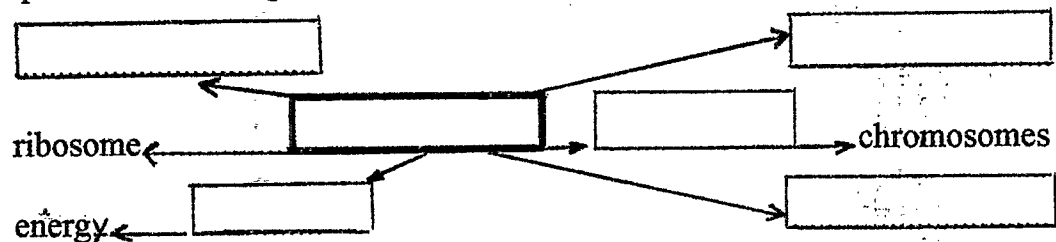
6. Read the following definitions and give them a label.

e.g. ....membrane:................This is a fine layer

a) ....: it's an individual living unit.

b) ....:it contains chemicals which destroy harmful substances.

c) ....: it consists mainly of protein and water.

d) ....: it is in the center of the cell body, it contains chromosomes.

e) ....: it produces energy so that the cell can live and work.

7. Read the passage again. Identify pronouns like IT, THEY, THIS, THESE. Use an < to indicate the word they refer to.

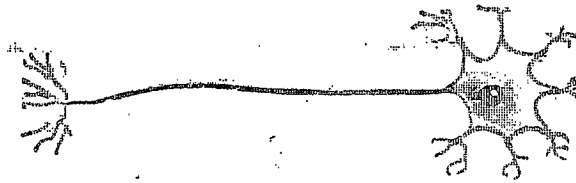8. Read the following.

Types of cell

You have many different types of cell in your body, each with different jobs to do. (The cells shown here are not to scale.)

Muscle cells are long and thin. They can shorten their length (contract) and then relax, which causes movement.

◁ Nerve cells have long fibres which send messages to other parts of the body. Some have special endings for feeling sensations.

Sperm cells, from the male's body, have long tails. This helps them to swim towards the egg cells in the female's body.

9. Match the following:

a. nerve cell

b. muscle cell

c. sperm cell

10. Using your bilingual dictionary find out the antonyms of the following words.

a. simple: b. destroy:

c. healthy: d. old:

e. with: f. thin:

g. live: h. long:

i. contract:

11. Read the following passage and cross out the wrong information:

Your body is a simple/complex mass of parts. It is made up of/for 50 billion cells/organs. Human beings develop/consist of two cells: an egg cell and a nerve/sperm cell. Egg cells is/are the largest human cells and can be seen with/without a microscope. All cells have the same basic structure/form and the

same parts: membrane, mitochondria, ribosomes, nucleus, cytoplasm, endoplasmatic reticulum, Golgi complex and lysosomes. You have/contain different types of cells, e.g. nerve cells, muscle cells, sperm cells, etc.

12. Using your own words write a paragraph in Spanish which summarizes the texts you read. Be sure to include the following concepts: celula, membrana, mitocondria, citoplasma, ribosomas, lisosomas, reticulo endoplasmatico, tipos de celulas, complejo de Golgi.

Sample 4

The Solar System

a) Label the diagram.
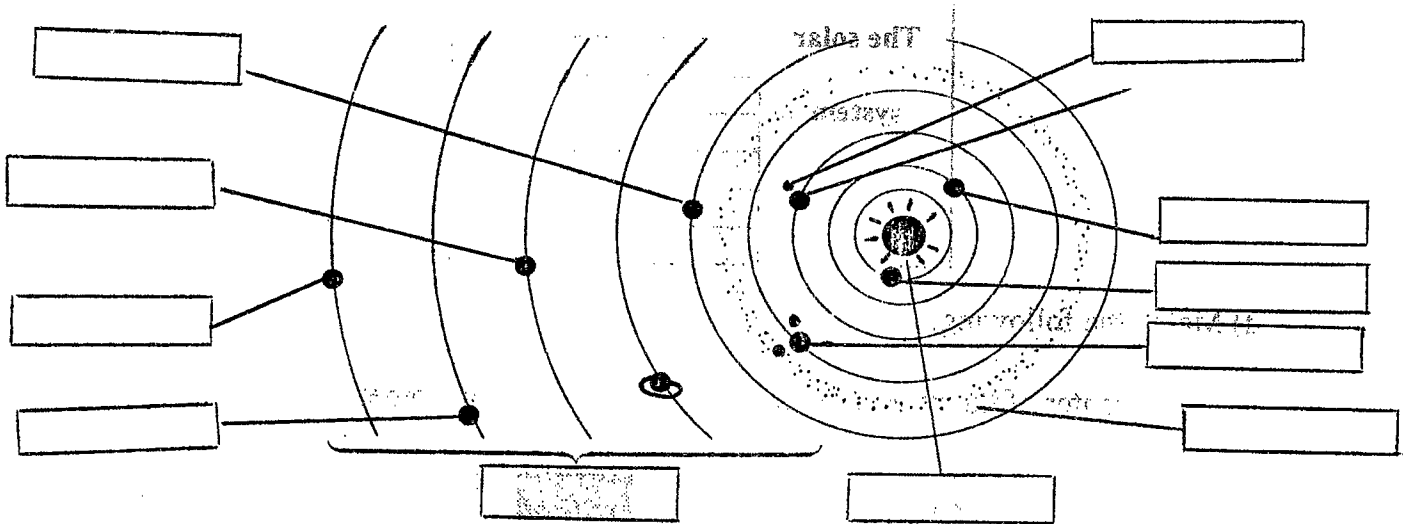
b) Read the following text:

1- The solar system consists of a star (the sun), the planets and other bodies such as satellites, and

2- incalculable number of asteriods, thousands of comets, hundreds of meteors and a multitude

3- of meteorites. The sun is the center of the solar system. the planets revolve around it. There are

4- nine planets in all. They are Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune

4- and Pluto. Some planets have satellites. The earth has one satellite. It is called the moon. Mars

5- has two satellites. Mercury, Venus and Pluto have no satellites.

6- There is life on earth: animals, plants and people. We live on Earth. There is no evidence of

7- life in the rest of the solar system. The Halley is the most famous comet of all.

8- It has a long, long tail

9- Every seventy-six years we can see it.

c) Complete the table:

System	Planets
The solar system	Mercury

d) Match the following:

1. center of the solar system   a. comet

2. Earth   b. satellite

3. Moon   c. sun

4. Halley   d. our planet

5. animals, plants, people   e. life

6. a multitude   f. meteorites

e) What is this?



f) Complete the following:

1. The sun is...

2. ....planets in the solar system

3. The moon is...

4. There is life...

5...............................revolve...........................the sun.

g) Read the following passage and label the diagram:

Insect anatomy

The body of an insect consists of three main parts: the head, the thorax, and the abodmen. The head contains the insect's brain, eyes and mouth. It also carries the antennae. The thorax is the central part of the body. It bears the legs and wings. There are three pairs of legs and two pairs of wings. The insect's abdomen contains its digestive and reproductive organs.

thorax

antennae
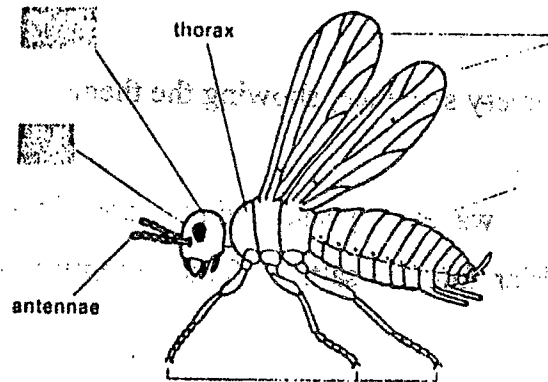
g.) Cuente en Español el contenido de este texto.

Sample 5.

Yeast.

Yeast is added to paraffin in a tank along with water, air, ammonia, and mineral salts. The yeast cells feed on the paraffin and start to grow. The yeast solution then goes into a centrifuge where it is spun rapidly. The concentrated yeast, now thick and creamy, goes from the centrifuge to a container. It then passes into a drier where the cream is heated and the water evaporates. The purified yeast then appears as a fine powder. This yeast powder has a high protein content.

Exercises.

1. Underline the topic words in every sentence, showing the theme in each case.

2. Group the following words.

> add   paraffin   tank   water   yeast   high   container   ammonia
> evaporate   purify   drier fine   salts   feed   centrifuge   cream
> concentrated   thick

3. Say whether these sentences are true or false.

> a Yeast is a mineral salt.
>
> b. Paraffin makes yeast cells grow.
>
> c. The purified yeast is the result of spun yeast.
>
> d. Yeast powder is rich in proteins.
>
> e. The thick and creamy yeast goes into the centrifuge.

4. Mention briefly the different steps through which yeast goes to become a fine powder. Draw pictures for every step.

5. Complete:

> a- The yeast solution becomes........................ after it is spun.
>
> b- The concentrated yeast looses ....after it is heated.
>
> c.-When yeast is heated and water evaporates, the purified yeast becomes
>
> a...................

GRAMMATICAL CONSCIOUSNESS RAISING ACTIVITIES.

Sample Exerxises.

Sample 1.

A Discovery Exercise.
i) Read the following dialogue and then answer the questions that follow it.

Bill: Where are you going for your holidays this year?

Maria: To Lagos in Portugal.

Bill: We were there last year.

Maria: What is it like? We've never been in Portugal before.

Bill: I thought you said you liked Portugal.

Maria: Oh, we've been to Portugal before but never to the Algarve.

Bill: We've been many times. We've only stayed in Lagos once though. We usually stay in Salema. Do you know Jim and Jilly Morrison?

Maria: I've met them a few times. Why?

Bill: They've often stayed in Lagos. We met them when we went on a day trip there last year. Give them a ring. They'll tell you all about it.

Maria: I will. I've thought about asking them round for a drink anyway.

    1. When did Bill go to Lagos?

    2. When did Maria go to Portugal ?

    3. When did Bill stay in Lagos ?

    4. When did Maria meet the Morrisons ?

    5. When did Bill meet the Morrison in Lagos ?

    6. When did the Morrisons stay in Lagos ?

ii) Compare the following pairs of sentences:

1.a. I read HARD TIMES when I was at University.

b. I've read HARD TIMES.

2.a. They played very badly in the Final Cup.

b. They've often played badly this season.

3.a. We went to New York in 1979.

b. We've been to New York many times.

4.a. I saw E.T. on New Year's Day.

b. I've seen E.T.

What is the difference between the a) sentences and the b) sentences?

iii. Look at the following pair of sentences. The verb in sentence a) is in the past simple tense. The verb in sentence b) is in the present perfect tense.

a) I FINISHED my essay last night.

b) I HAVE FINISHED my essay.

Say what tenses the verbs in the following sentences are in:

1. They BOUGHT a new car last week.

2. We VISITED my mother on Christmas day.

3. They HAVE MOVED to a new house.

4. I HAVE LOST my wallet.

5. I SAW him in the office a few minutes ago.

6. She HAS PUT ON a lot of weight.

iv. Find all the verbs in i), ii) and iii) above which are in the simple past tense. Then find all the verbs which are in the simple past tense. Then find all the verbs which are in the present perfect tense. Compare the ways in which the two tenses are used in the examples in i), ii) and iii) and then complete the statements below.

You use the simple tense when you..in the past. If you

....in the past but do not ....then you use the present perfect tense.

v) Complete the dialogue below:

Sara:......................you.................on hovercraft before?

Jean: Yes,   I.........................on   one   last   Easter   when we......................to Paris.

Sara:............you.................the tickets yet?

Jean: Yes, I.................them last Tuesday when I.....................to town to see E.T.

Sara:............you.................it?

Jean: I...................it was great when I.................it last week..

I.....................all of Spielberg's films now.

Sample 2:

Dave Willis, 1990
The Lexical Syllabus.

Sample 3:

132 Grammar words

do

What is the difference between sets 1 and 2?

Set 1
Ask your teacher if you don't understand.
How do you know?
It doesn't matter.
What does Chris say?
I didn't get up until 8.30, so I was late.
Did Chris give good directions?

Set 2
I usually do the cooking and cleaning in the morning.
My husband does the gardening at weekends.
He did the meals when I was ill.
What are you doing?
All right. You do it first, then it's my turn.

These examples are a mixture of sets 1 and 2.
Sometimes both types appear in the same sentence.
Which is which?

a *What does your brother do?*
b *Did you do your homework?*
c *No, I didn't, because I had a lot of other things to do.*
d *Who's going to do the dishes?*
e *Which bus? A 62 or 63 will do just as well.*
f *Is this yours? No, it's nothing to do with me.*
g *Have you done your homework?*
h *It doesn't matter.*

Look at the Grammar Book. Which categories do the last eight examples go into?

Grammar and Appropriateness.

Sample 1.

Study the following sentences, say what you think might be wrong and rewrite them in the correct register. Who do you think might have spoken the sentences before you change them?

1. Husband to wife in the kitchen. "The performance of the gas-powered cooking apparatus falls far below expectations".

2. Candidate to examiner at the end of an oral exam. "Cheerio dear, and thanks a lot; it was great having the chance of a chat with you".

3. Slovenly waitress in a transport cafe talking to a customer. "I really am most frightfully sorry but I'm afraid there's no stew left".

4. Farmer addressing a meeting of the National Farmers Union. "Dearly beloved brethren, we're gathered here today to give thanks for an abundant harvest".

5. Stokebroker advising a client on investments. " Bung a few quid on Malperts, mate- you can't go wrong, they're dead cert".

6. One labourer explaining to another why he can't get his wages in advance. "As your gross weekly income falls below the minimum allowable level you are not entitled to an advance of salary.

7. Managing Director of a company congratulating one of his marketing staff on a good sales performance. "Who is a clever boy, then?".

Sample 2:

11 Writing letters (3)
Formal and informal letters

1 Here are two letters. One is written to friends, the other to a hotel. The lines of each letter are mixed (but the two letters are not mixed). Put the lines in the right order.

Monday

Dear Alice and Jim

a. Would you mind having a look for me?

b. The conversation was excellent and the food delicious!

c. I think I left a pair of brown corduroy trousers in the wardrobe of my room.

d. I had a wonderful time.

e. Please can you let me know if you find them?

f. Thank you for having me to stay last weekend.

g. It was lovely to see you all. See you again soon!

h. Could you do something for me?

i. Thanks a lot.

Love
Jack

1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5 ___ 6 ___ 7 ___ 8 ___ 9 ___

January 13th

Dear Reception

j. Could you possibly check if this is so?

k. The service was superb and the food delicious!

l. I have mislaid a pair of brown corduroy trousers, which I suspect I left in the wardrobe of my room.

m. We had a most pleasant few days.

n. I look forward to hearing from you.

o. Many thanks for the weekend break that my wife and I enjoyed at your hotel recently.

p. We hope to visit your hotel again soon.

q. I would like to ask you a favour.

r. I would be most grateful.

Yours sincerely

Jack Higgins

1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5 ___ 6 ___ 7 ___ 8 ___ 9 ___

---

2 The purpose of the two letters is the same, but the lines are different because one is formal and the other is informal.
Compare some of the lines.

Examples
Could you do something for me?   *I would like to ask you a favour.*
Thanks a lot.   *I would be most grateful.*

3 Choose one of the letters, and write the reply to it. Explain that you looked very carefully for the trousers, but couldn't find them.
The following notes will help you.

Alice and Jim's letter

Dear Jack
Thanks for you letter. We enjoyed ..., too.
I'm sorry to say that I looked everywhere ..., but I couldn't ...,
Have you looked ...? Perhaps you ...?
Sorry I can't help any more.
See you soon!

The hotel's letter

Dear Mr Higgins
Thank you for your letter of 13 January.
We are delighted that ...
We are sorry to inform you that ... unable to find ...
We searched ...
We look forward ...

John and Liz Soars, 1993
Headway Pre-Intermediate.

Grammar and Intonation

Sample 1

Actor's Workshop.

Purpose: Different stress and intonation patterns , to communicate different meanings.

Preparation: Prepare different contexts for the same rejoinder or reponse by writing appropriate questions/statements and giving directions as to the communicative intent of the response.

E.g. Response: ALL RIGHT

1. A: We are having chicken for dinner.

   B: All right. (Agree that it is O.K.)

2. Teacher: Let me check your work. (Teacher looks over work).

   Student: All right? (Show concern, ask if work is all correct).

3. Parent: For the last time get off the phone!

   Teenager: All right. (Express irritation)

4. A: Raquel Welch and Burt Reynolds will be here today or tonight.

   B: All right. (Express excitement and great approval)

Put these mini-exchanges on cards, one exchange to a card.

Game: Introduce the phrase/sentence that is being used as a response and explain how different stress and entonation patterns communicate different meanings. Ask for two student volunteers at a time to come up and role play the mini-exchanges. After several students have practised the conversations, class can vote which pair wins the "Academy Award".

Variations: Other examples of mini-exchanges.

1.A: Does Bill want an apple? (which fruit?)

B: No, Bill wants an orange.

A: Does Henry want an orange? (who?)

B: Bill wants an orange.

A: Does Bill have an orange? (have or want?)

B: Bill wants an orange.

2. Same basic exchange but answer is stressed differently.

A: But Bill is a good tennis player.

B: He is a good tennis player.

* Agreeing.

Questioning the statement.(disagreeing)

Agreeing that he is good in this game but not necessarily in another game like golf.

## Sample 2

● Everyday English

Polite requests and offers

1 Match a line in A with a line in B.

The people are in one of the following places.

baker's	department store	post office
airport	railway station	supermarket
chemist's	fast food restaurant	

Where are they?

A	B
1 Can I have a book of stamps, please?	a. Yes, of course. It's on the third floor.
2 We'd like two cheeseburgers and one Big Mac, all with fries, please.	b. Do you want first class or second?
	c. I'll check, but I think we only have it for dry.
3 Could you tell me where the shoe department is, please?	d. Yes, that's fine. I'll give you a label for it.
4 Have you got any Sunsilk shampoo for greasy hair?	e. Would you like anything to drink with that?
5 Excuse me. Can you tell me where platform six is?	f. Here you are. We don't charge for them.
6 I'd like a large, brown, sliced loaf, please.	g. It's over there. Come with me. I'll show you.
7 Can I take this bag as hand luggage?	h. I'm afraid we only have white left.
8 Could I have another plastic bag? I've got so much to carry.	
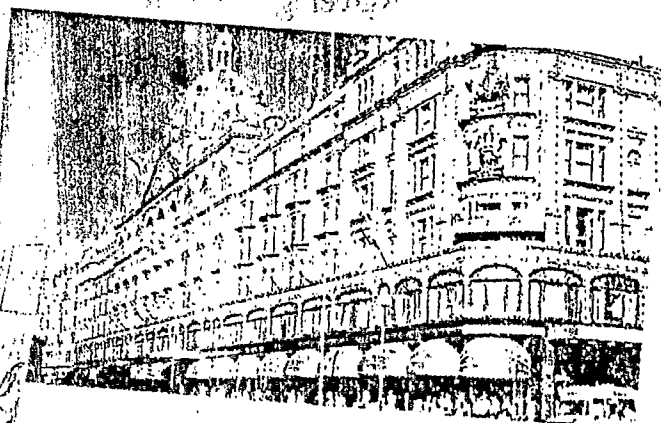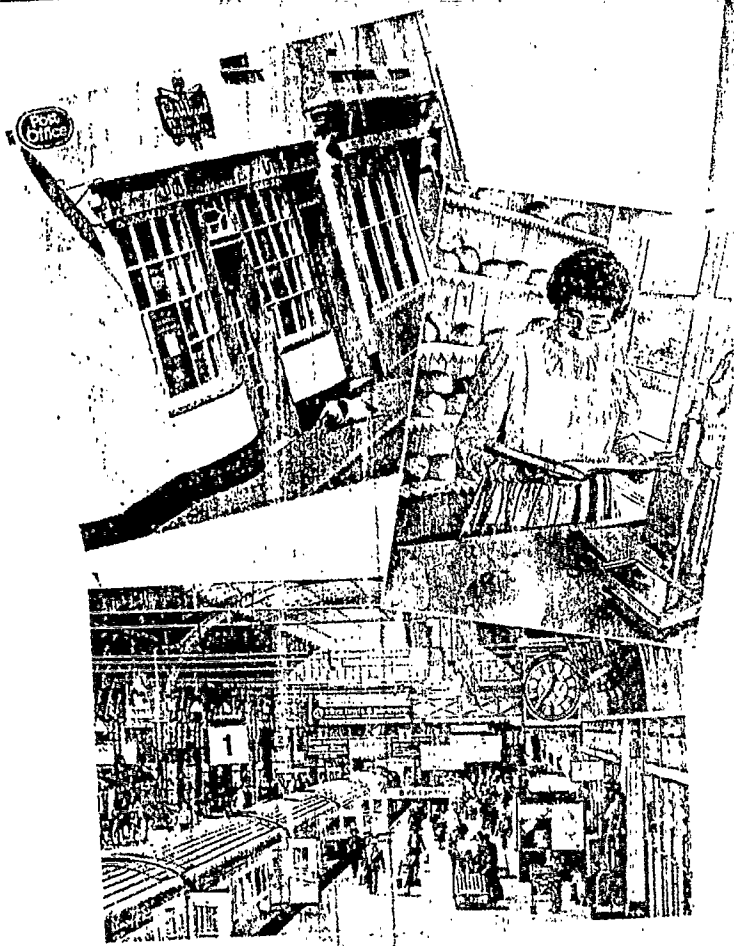
2 **T.12** Listen and check your answers. Listen carefully to the intonation of the requests, and practise saying them.

3 Underline the different structures that express a polite request in A. There are three offers in B. Find them. What verb form is used for making offers?

John and Liz Soars, 1991
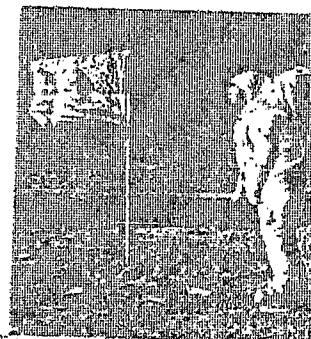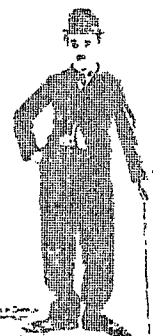Headway Pre-Intermediate.

Grammar and Culture

Question forms – Adverbs – At the railway station

## Did you know that?

PRESENTATION (1)

Question forms

1 Work in groups. Answer the quiz!

General Knowledge Quiz

(1) When did the Berlin Wall come down?
   a 1988   b 1989   c 1990

(2) When did the first American walk on the moon?
   a 1961   b 1965   c 1969

(3) Where are the Andes mountains?

(4) Who did the actress Elizabeth Taylor marry twice?

(5) Who won the 100 metres in the Seoul Olympics?
   a Ben Johnson   b Carl Lewis
   c Ed Moses

(6) How many countries are there in the European Community?

(7) How much does an African elephant weigh?
   a 3-5 tonnes   b 5-7tonnes
   c 7-9 tonnes

(8) How fast does Concorde fly?
   a 2,000 kilometres an hour
   b 2,500 kilometres an hour
   c 3,000 kilometres an hour

(9) How far is it from London to New York?
   a 6,000 kilometres
   b 9,000 kilometres
   c 12,000 kilometres

(10) How old was Charlie Chaplin when he died?
   a 75   b 83   c 88

(11) What languages do Swiss people speak?

(12) What did Columbus discover in 1492?

(13) What sort of music did Elvis Presley play?
   a Jazz   b Blues   c Rock'n'roll

(14) What happens at the end of the story Cinderella?

(15) What happened in Chernobyl in 1986?

(16) Why do birds migrate?

(17) Which newspaper does Queen Elizabeth read?

(18) Which language has the most words?
   a French
   b Chinese
   c English
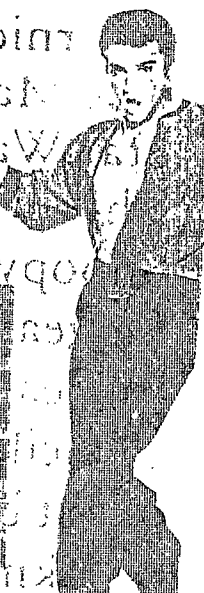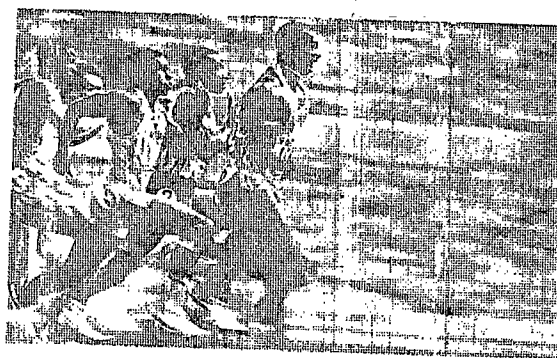
John and Liz Soars, 1993
Headway Elementary O.U.P.

Sample 2:

Match one element in column A with one in B as in the example:
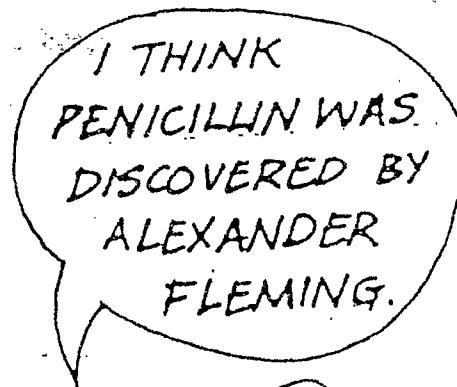
Nicholas Nickleby
Guernica
The Magic Flute
Star Wars
The 'Unfinished' Symphony
Snoopy
Sergeant Pepper's Lonely
    Hearts Club Band
Penicillin
Light bulbs
Walkman stereo
War and Peace
Mickey Mouse
This book

Picasso
Charles Dickens
The Beatles
Schubert
George Lucas
Thomas Edison

Alexander Fleming
Sony
Mozart
Charles Schulz
Walt Disney
Cambridge University Press
Leo Tolstoy

Grammar and discourse

Sample 1:

II.9   My sentences – your paragraph

GRAMMAR: Linking words
LEVEL: Intermediate
TIME: 20–30 minutes
MATERIALS: None

In class

1 Ask the class to tell you all the linking words they know. You might start
  them off by suggesting *and*, *but*. Build up a list on the board. There will be
  some you will have to explain/translate for people who do not know
  them, or are not sure they know them.

2 Write up on the board five open, general sentences around a theme, e.g.

  Teenagers have never been pensioners.

  In old age you may want to be close to your relatives.

  I don't like thinking about ageing.

  Some young people feel guilty about old people.

  At times old people want to be independent.

  Ask the students to work on their own and put the above sentences in any
  order they want, linking them into a two or three sentence paragraph.
  They may add linking words and further linking clauses or sentences to
  make a full paragraph. While this is going on, go round and help students
  who are getting linking words wrong.

3 Ask the students to stick their paragraphs up on the walls of the class-
  room; they then go round and read each other's.

Acknowledgement

I learnt this technique from Lou Spaventa. An excellent source of suitable
'empty', 'open' sentences round a theme is Caleb Gattegno's *1000*
sentences (Educational Solutions, New York, 1974).

Sample 2

12 Relative clauses (2)

1 *Who/that/which* as the object

In the examples in Unit 6, Exercise 11, page 34, who, that, and which are the subject of the sentence.

SUBJECT
... the man who works   = the man works in the
in the bank   bank

SUBJECT
... the coat which was   = the coat was in the
in the window.   window.

Who, which, and that can also be the object.
Look at the following sentences and study how they are used.

OBJECT
He's the man who
Anna loves.   = Anna loves the man

OBJECT
I bought the coat
which Anna wanted.   = Anna wanted the coat.

We often leave out the relative pronoun when it is the object.

He's the man Anna loves.
I bought the coat Anna wanted.

Put who, which, or that into the gaps.
If it is possible to leave it out, put brackets around it.

Example
He's the man who loves Anna.
He's the man (who) Anna loves.

a. The film star gave a party ____ ____ cost £10,000.

b. The man _____ you met at the party was a famous film star.

c. What's the name of the lady _____ was wearing the gold dress?

d. You're reading the book _____ I wanted to read.

e. There's someone at the door _____ wants to speak to George.

f. I don't like food _____ is very spicy.

g. That's the dictionary _____ Bill gave me for my birthday.

h. Those are the cars _____ only take unleaded petrol.

i. Do you like the people _____ Sarah invited to her party?

---

2 Writing a biography

1 Read the following text which is a short biography of the film star, Elizabeth Taylor.

—Elizabeth Taylor—

Elizabeth Taylor was born in England in 1932. She was a very beautiful child, with black hair and violet-blue eyes. In 1939, she and her family moved to America, where film makers soon noticed her beauty. She became a child star at the age of nine, and appeared in the films *Lassie* and *National Velvet*. Elizabeth Taylor is one of the few child stars who have continued to be successful as adults. She has made many films in her adult career, including *Cat on a Hot Tin Roof* in 1958 and *Cleopatra* in 1962. Her private life has not been as successful as her career in films. She has been married eight times. Her first marriage, which was when she was eighteen, ended after one year; her third husband, Mike Todd, was killed in an air crash; her fifth and sixth marriages were to the same man, Richard Burton, probably the man who she loved the most. She has often been ill with back problems and has had many operations. In 1981, after her second divorce from Burton, she became very depressed and turned to food, alcohol, and drugs for comfort. For the first time in her life her beauty left her and she put on a lot of weight. However, in 1983, she went to stay at the Betty Ford Clinic, where she worked hard to give up her addictions. Today she is a grandmother and she has her film-star looks again.

---

2 Divide it into five paragraphs according to the following headings:
   – introduction and early career
   – adult career
   – private life
   – health problems
   – life now

3 Underline all the relative pronouns.
Put brackets round who or which if they can be omitted.

4 Write a similar biography of somebody famous who you think is interesting. It can be a film star, a musician, a politician, a writer, etc.

John and Liz Soars, 1993
Headway Elementary O.U.P.

Grammar and Nonverbal Communicative Strategies

Sample 1

Mime introductions

Level   Post beginner and above

Time   15-30 min.

In class

1   Form the class into groups of about 8 students. Ask the students to find a partner within their group. Now tell the students they have 3-4 minutes to find out as much as they can about their partner but they must *not speak or write* any known language. (This will force them to draw or mime, but don't tell them this — let them work it out for themselves.) If there is an odd number of students you should pair off with the odd one out and mime with him or her.

2   After four minutes, stop the silent pairwork and ask the groups of 8 to re-form. Each student is then to report to the group of 8 what they think they found out about the partner. After each report, allow the person reported on to put right any misinterpretations. This can be very funny — it's the misunderstandings that make for interaction and release laughter. The reports in the different groups of 8 happen simultaneously.

Variation

We have presented this exercise as an ice-breaker but it can well be used some way into a course to work on the second and third person of the present simple, as most of the reporting takes this form:

You are married
Petra doesn't play tennis
She likes gardening
She watches a lot of television, etc.

(The reporter sometimes feels like speaking to the group *about* the person, and sometimes feels the need to report back to the person, especially if the mime was unclear.)

Christine Frank and Mario Rinvolucri, 1987
Grammar in Action

Grammar and Meaning

Sample 1 Look at these groups of utterances. What do the utterances in each group have in common? What distinguishes them? If necessary, check in the commentary after doing exercise A to see whether you are on the right track.

A.
1. Willy smokes
2. Fred's a slow worker.
3. Aggie used to drink.
4. Joe's in the habit of talking in his sleep.
5. He's always making that mistake.

B.
1. Pollution is getting worse.
2. It's raining.
3. I'm going out tonight.
4. He's always dropping ash on the carpet.

C.
1. Simmer for 15 minutes over a low heat.
2. Come again soon.
3. Halt!
4. Give us this day our daily bread.
5. Don't mention it.
6. When in Rome, do as the Romans do.

D.
1. See you!
2. The Queen is due to arrive at 4 p.m.
3. He's about to arrive.
4. The train leaves at 3 p.m.
5. Willy's going to be an engine driver.
6. He's taking his finals in June.
7. I'll be 64 next birthday.

E.
1. If I were you, I'd stay.
2. It's time you went home.
3. Wish you were here!
4. If only he had worked harder!
5. Suppose someone had seen us.

1. 'Don't worry! I'll help you with your homework.'
2. My brother will talk with his mouth full.
3. 'Pass the mustard, will you?'
4. 'Shall I open the door for you?'
5. 'I'll see you at the party tonight.'
6. 'Shall we go for a drink?'

1. She'll be 83 next July.
2. 'I'm just going down to the village.' 'Will you be going near the Post Office?'
3. 'I've lost my wallet again!' 'What are you going to do about it?'
4. 'There's going to be a crash on that bend soon.'
5. 'What are you doing this evening?'
6. 'We hope to go abroad next year.'
7. John is about to resign from his job.
8. You never know what might happen.
9. The film starts at 8.15.

7. Trespassers will be prosecuted.
8. Boys will be boys.
9. 'Do you think Liverpool will win?'
10. 'You shall do as I tell you!'
11. Summer will soon be over.

Sample 2

Preposition IN

a) Find out the meaning of IN in the following sentences. How many are to do with time, place, manner, comments, inclusion, prepositional verb(verb + prepositon)?

1. She lives IN a small top floor IN London.

2. All of you should do the homework IN this way.

3. Which room are these peole IN ?

4. The cathedral was built IN 1890.

5. IN fact, there are more men IN the family.

6. It can be cold IN winter, especially IN January and February.

7. IN a word, the play was written by some anonymous person.

8. The IBM company invested a lot of money IN this project.

9. How many words are there IN this sentence?.

10. IN brief, he was drunk and therefore arrested.

11. She speaks IN the most extravagant manner.

12. Do you believe IN ghosts?

b) Sometimes IN has a metaphorical use. Can you match part A and B?

A.	B
1. Is Daisy in calf again?	a. to be lucky.
2. We're in luck, the bus hasn't arrived yet.	b. to be pregnant (of a cow)
3. You're in deep water, watch out!	c. as the total
4. I have $20 in all.	d. to be IN serious trouble
5. Try to arrive in time next Sunday.	e. very quickly
6. In no time, the problem was solved.	f. early enough

GLOSSARY:

Accuracy: it refers to the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences but may not include the ability to speak or write fluently.

Advance organizer: an activity which helps students organize their thoughts and ideas as a preparation for learning or studying something. E.g.: a discussion which takes place before students listen to a lecture and which is intended to help them follow the lecture more easily or a preview of the main ideas covered in a reading passage before reading it.

Brainstorming: a group of activities in which learners have a free and relatively unstructured discussion on a assigned topic as a way of generating ideas.Brain storming often serves as preparation for another activity.

Case Grammar: An approach to grammar which stresses the semantic relationships in a sentence. It is a type of Generative Grammar developed by Fillmore. In case grammar, the verb is regarded as the most important part of the sentence, and has a number of semantic relationships with various noun phrases. These relationships are called cases.

Chomskyan Linguistics: It refers to a theory of Grammar proposed by Chomsky in 1957. It has since been developed by him and many other linguists. Chomsky attempted to provide a model for the description of all languages. A Transformational Generative Grammar tries to show , with a system of rules, the knowledge which a native speaker of a language uses in forming grammatical sentences.

Cognate: a word in one language which is similar in form and meaning to a word in another language because both languages are related. E.g. transparent/ transparente, system/sistema.

Coherence: the relationship which links the meaning of utterances in a discourse or of the sentences in a text.These links may be based on the speaker's shared knowledge. E.g.

a.Could you give me a lift home?

b.Sorry, I'm visiting my sister.

Cohesion: the grammatical and/or lexical relationships between the different elements of a text. This may be the relationship between different sentences or between different parts of a sentence. E.g.

A: Is Jenny coming to the party?

B: Yes, she is.

Cohesive Devices: substitution, ellipsis, reference, lexical cohesion and connectors.

Comprehensible input: input language which contains linguistic items that are slightly beyond the learner's present linguistic competence. Krashen, 1985.

Context: the nonlinguistic situation in which the discourse is produced.

Co-text: the actual text surrounding any given lexical item. See context.

Deductive (learning): an approach to language teaching in which learners are taught rules and given specific information about a language. They then apply these rules when they use the language.

Discourse: a general term for examples of language use, i.e. language which has been produced as the result of an act of communication. Whereas grammar refers to the rules a language uses to form grammatical units such as clause, phrase and sentence , discourse refers to larger units of language such as paragraphs, conversations, interviews. Sometimes the study of both written and spoken discourse is known as discourse analysis.

Fluency: in second and foreign language teaching, fluency describes a level of proficiency in communication, which includes:

a. the ability to produce written and/or spoken language with ease.

b. the ability to speak with a good but not necessarily perfect command of intonation, vocabulary and grammar.

c. the ability to communicate ideas effectively.

d. the ability to produce continuous speech without causing comprehension difficulties or a break down of communication.

Hallidayan Linguistics: It refers to Halliday's theory for the description of languages. In his view, a linguistic description is on three levels: a) phonic or graphic, examined by Phonetics and Phonology. b) form, studied by Grammar and Lexicology and c) context, studied by Semantics which relates linguistic form to non-linguistic events. According to Halliday, the description of any language requires four fundamental theoretical categories: 1) Unit (e.g.: the sentence) 2) Structure (arrangement of elements in relation to other elements, e.g.: subject and predicate) 3) Class (e.g.: nouns, verbs) and 4) Systems (closed sets of items such as 'the personal pronouns', 'tenses', etc.) "With these four basic categories it is possible to describe the grammar of all languages" (Hallyday, Mc Intosh, and Strevens, 1964:31)

Inductive: (learning) an approach to language teaching in which learners are not taught grammatical or other types of rules directly but are left to discover or induce rules from their experience of using the language.

Input: (in language learning) language which a learner hears or receives and from which he or she can learn. The language a learner produces is by analogy sometimes called output. In second or foreign language learning a distinction is sometimes made between input and intake. Intake is input which is actually helpful for the learner. Some of the language (i.e. the input) which a learner hears may be too rapid or difficult for the learner to understand, and therefore cannot be used in learning (i.e. cannot serve as intake).

L1: first language, mother tongue.

L2: another term for a target language or second language.

Lexical items: the smallest units in the meaning system of a language that can be distinguished from other similar units. Also called content words. Content words are mainly nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, e.g. book, run, musical, quickly. Function words, unlike content words, have little meaning on their own but show grammatical relationships in and between sentences (grammatical meaning: Conjunctions, prepositions, articles, e.g. and, to, the), are function words.

Mentalism: (mentalistic/mentalist adj.) the theory that a human being possesses a mind which has consciousness, ideas, etc. and that the mind can influence the behaviour of the body.

Mother tongue: a first language which is acquired at home.

Rethoric: the study of how effective writing achieves its goals.It typically focuses on how to express oneself correctly and effectively in relation to the topic of writing or speech, the audience and the purpose of communication.

Superordinate/hyponym/meronym: a relationship between two words in which the meaning of one of the words includes the meaning of the other word. For example, in English the words animal and dog are related in such a way that dog refers to a type of animal and animal is a general term that includes dog and other types of animal. The specific term dog is called a hyponym and the general term animal is called superordinate. In English, the words dog and tail are related in such a way that tail refers to a part of the dog and dog is a general term that includes tail and other parts of a dog such as leg, head, nose,etc. The specific term tail is called meronym and the superodinate, in this case, is dog.

Target language: L2. The language which a person is learning in contrast to a first language or mother tongue.

Usage/use: a distinction has been proposed by Widdowson between the function of a linguistic item as an element in a linguistic system (usage) and its function as part of the system of communication (use). For example, the progressive aspect may be studied as an item of grammar or usage (i.e. to consider how it compares with other aspects and tenses in English and the constructions in which it occurs) and in terms of its use (i.e. how it is used in discourse for performing such communicative act as descriptions, plans, commentaries, etc.) The meaning a linguistic item has, as an example of usage, is called its signification, and the meaning it has, as an example of use, is called its value.

Valency grammar: (also Dependency grammar) a grammatical theory in which the verb is considered to be the central and most important unit. Verbs are classified according to the number of noun phrases they require to complete a sentence. This number is called the valency of the verb. The English verb BLUSH, for instance, would have a valency of one: "She blushes", the verb GIVE as in "The sales girl gave Jane the parcel" would have a valency of three.

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