

APAC *of NEWS*

NO. 16-17. February 1993. *Butlletí de l'Associació de Professors d'Anglès de Catalunya.*



Modular Thinking: Catering for Different Needs and Different Contexts.

APAC ELT-CONVENTION 1993

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APAC ELT CONVENTION 1993. PROGRAMME

APAC of NEWS	
Butlletí de l'Associació de Professors d'Anglès de Catalunya	
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- *Graffische Effekte.* Interbook, 1966.

FROM ME TO YOU

Dear APACs,

A happy new year to all of you.

With this double issue of our bulletin, you will receive a new installment of the proceedings of our 1992 Convention plus the programme for the 1993 edition. We hope to see you there and to have an opportunity for meeting and sharing things.

An effort has been made to have a much wider and richer offer this year. Not only more lectures and workshops have been included, but also a greater variety of topics and speakers. The programme contains contributions for very experienced teachers, for general interest, for people on the lookout for very practical ideas. It has a pedagogical, and a more academic side. Teachers from all contexts of teaching have been carefully considered and will surely find abundant and varied choice of themes. This is our APAC Convention 1993. A shake of hands with all APAC members. Have a nice and fruitful time.

The language development course for EGB teachers we announced in APAC of NEWS 15 looks very promising. We want to thank the Escola d'Idiomes Moderns of the Universitat de Barcelona for their help. Unfortunately the number of seats is strictly limited to ensure quality. We would like to receive feedback and comments from the participants, as this is a kind of course we would like to run again in the future. Secondary school and language school teachers are invited to send suggestions as to the kind of training course would interest them.

Pedagogical weekends have been organized in different areas. Check APAC Agenda for more information.

We have tired of endless institutional negotiation and unfulfilled promises concerning premises. So, finally we have rented an office. It is a small one, but it gives us a base to operate from. You can phone there at the pre-arranged times (s. inside of the bulletin), drop a letter, or leave a recorded message. Rental, phone, computer, fax, part-time attendance, come expensive. So we are implementing the agreement we reached at our general meeting in 1990 and raising our yearly fee to 3.500. Even so, our association has the lowest fees of all the Spanish Associations of Teachers of English.

A considerable effort has been made to update our membership database. If you have not received the last issue of our bulletin, let us know. Bank payment is also a problem with some members. Even after the corrections have been introduced, copies of the bulletin and bank charges have been returned. Please, communicate changes using the enrolment form.

You will receive this bulletin after election day (20th January). We have announcements to make. We hope that during our Jornades we will find an opportunity to make them.

With love,
APAC

L'INSTITUT BRITANIC COMPLEIX 50 ANYS A CATALUNYA

El 1993 és un altre any especial per a l'Institut Britànic, ja que celebrem el seu 50è aniversari a Barcelona. Seguint la línia de la seva política a 30 països d'arreu del món, l'Institut Britànic veu aquest esdeveniment no només com una ocasió per analitzar el passat, sinó especialment per mirar cap al futur. Així doncs, continuem millorant i ampliant la nostra oferta de cursos i adaptant-nos a les necessitats canviants dels nostres alumnes.

Nous cursos flexibles. A més a més dels ja prou coneguts cursos generals d'anglès, els quals es realitzen a totes hores i de tots els nivells, des de principiants a Post Diploma (examen de Cambridge posterior al Proficiency), recentment hem introduït algunes noves opcions amb la finalitat d'adaptar-se millor a la creixent flexibilitat que necessiten els adults que treballen o estudien. D'aquesta forma hem obert uns cursos d'una durada de dues o quatre setmanes, de matí o de tarda, entre els quals s'hi troben els d'anglès empresarial. Aquests cursos es basen en l'ús de l'anglès en l'àmbit laboral. Estan especialment centrats en la preparació dels alumnes per examinar-se del CEIBT (Certificat d'anglès per al comerç i els negocis internacionals). Una altra opció, la qual ha estat molt ben acceptada, és la dels cursos del dissabte al matí, dels quals també n'hi ha de tots els nivells.

Cultura britànica i altres serveis. A part d'una qualitat d'ensenyament difícilment superable, en unes instal·lacions perfectament equipades, també oferim una àmplia gamma d'altres serveis, com ara un extens programa cultural en el qual s'inclouen la projecció de pel·lícules, conferències i exposicions. Recentment s'han fet dues exposicions úniques: una del 30è aniversari dels Beatles i una altra sobre el misteri de l'assassinat.

Més que una aula. Nosaltres sempre hem pensat que no és suficient aprendre l'anglès a classe i, seguint aquesta filosofia, oferim el màxim d'oportunitats per facilitar-ne l'aprenentatge. Entre aquestes facilitats s'inclou el centre per a l'autoaprenentatge, amb accés a vídeos, ordinadors, cassettes, llibres de lectura i material didàctic. També hi ha una completa biblioteca anglesa que és a disposició dels alumnes.

Centre per a joves. L'Institut Britànic per a joves està situat al carrer Vendrell, 1, de Barcelona. Es va inaugurar l'octubre del 1991 i està destinat a alumnes de 7 a 17 anys. Aquest nou centre gaudeix d'un equip de professors qualificats i especialitzats en l'ensenyament dels joves, i imparteixen les classes segons els mètodes didàctics més moderns. El nostre concepte educatiu es basa en estudiar l'anglès per parlar-lo i gaudir-ne, però no només fent exercicis gramaticals, sinó assimilant-lo realitzant tot tipus d'activitats. La matèria que s'ensenya als joves consta de 90 hores en el transcurs d'un any acadèmic, dividides en tres hores setmanals. L'octubre passat vam obrir nous cursos els dissabtes al matí. Per últim, hem de ressaltar que els nostres alumnes tenen accés lliure a totes les activitats i serveis oferts per l'Institut Britànic del carrer Amigó (el d'adults). Totes aquestes activitats representen, en definitiva, una ajuda molt important per a la meta que es persegueix, és a dir, el coneixement i plena assimilació de la llengua anglesa.

**ENGLISH LANGUAGE
TEACHING - CONVENTION**

**JORNADES
APAC-1993**

*"Modular Thinking: Catering for
different needs and different
Contexts"*

**ASSOCIACIÓ DE PROFESSORS/ES
D'ANGLÈS DE CATALUNYA**

Les properes Jornades Apac sobre l'ensenyament de la Llengua Anglesa es realitzaran durant els dies 25, 26 y 27 de febrer de 1993. Aquestes Jornades estan dirigides a professors/es de Llengua Anglesa de tots els nivells educatius i a alumnes dels darrers cursos de Filologia Anglesa i d'Escoles Universitàries de Formació del Professorat.

INSCRIPCIÓ: 7000 ptes. (Socis d'APAC 4.500 ptes.) **PAGAMENT:** Transferència bancària al compte d'APAC nº 0001625617. CAIXA COL·LEGI D'ENGINYERS INDUSTRIALS. Nº entitat 3025. Nº Oficina 0001. Barcelona.

Enviar el comprovant del Banc adjuntant un formulari simple d'inscripció amb dades personals i professionals abans l'11 de febrer de 1993 a:

**Departament de Filologia Anglesa.
Jornades APAC.**

**Universitat de Barcelona. Gran Via
585. 08007. Barcelona.**

UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATIONS SYNDICATE. ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

By the time you read these words, some of your students will no doubt have already taken an UCLES exam during the autumn at one of the authorized centres in Catalonia. As far as First Certificate, Certificate in Advanced English and Certificate of Proficiency are concerned this is in effect either in Barcelona (Palau Victoria Eugenia) or in Lleida (University of Lleida). Other students may have sat for the Preliminary English Test in one or other of the examining centres spread throughout Catalonia.

Almost 7,000 candidates were examined in Barcelona this year. Now that the Olympic Games are behind us, last June's accommodation difficulties (which made it absolutely impossible to find a hall of the necessary dimensions anywhere at all in Barcelona) have disappeared and exams are now being held again in one of our usual Montjuïc sites. Entries for the December FC, CAE AND CPE session reached over 2,500, 15% more than last December, which with the 4,350 entries in June gives a total annual increase of 16.3% while P.E.T. entries in Catalonia alone for the whole of 1992 (P.E.T.) has five possible examining dates -- one each in March and May, two in June and one in December) were 38% up on last year with a figure approaching 3,000.

Candidates for UCLES exams for the whole of Spain are now in the region of 30,000 per year, which means that about a third are examined here in Catalonia.

Registration Dates for First Certificate, CAE and Proficiency for the summer 1993 session are from February 22 to March 5 (Monday to Friday) in Barcelona. Further details of fees (and registration dates for Lleida and other projected examining centres) will be available later from the Examination Unit of the British Council (tel: (93) 209 24 66). Teachers interested in submitting candidates for the Certificate in English for International Business and Trade should telephone the same number for details of dates and fees. The CEIBT exams is usually held in late May or early June and has all the appearances of becoming a popular exam.

It is P.E.T., however, that is showing the largest increase in popularity and it will not be long before it equals First Certificate in numbers in Spain. This is due to a large degree to the hard work put into the organization of the exam all over Catalonia and the rest of Spain by supervisors and helpers in over 60 towns. Eighteen of these are in Catalonia and plans are in hand for opening further centres in remoter areas of its geography. Existing P.E.T. centres in Catalonia are to be found based on Barcelona, Baix Llobregat, Figueres, Granollers, L'Hospitalet de Llobregat, Igualada, Lleida, Manresa, Maresme, Penedès-Garraf, Reus, Ripoll, Tàrraga, Tarragona, Tortosa, Valls and Vic. The P.E.T. exam is taken at different times of the year and information about dates for any specific centre is available again from the Examinations Unit of the British Council.

UNIVERSITAT DE BARCELONA ESCOLA D'IDIOMES MODERNES

L'EIM anuncia el començament dels següents cursos:

CURSOS ORDINARIS INTENSIVS:

Alemanys (nivell 1),
Anglès (nivells 1 a 4),
Francès (nivell 1).

CURSOS EXTRAORDINARIS:

Anglès:
-Preparació per als exàmens de FCE i TOEFL
-Per estudiants d'Econòmiques, Empresarials i Dret.
-Manteniment (nivell intermedi alt).

Italià:
Introducció a la gramàtica.

Grec:
Curs d'introducció.

L'EIM anuncia la convocatòria dels següents exàmens:

PRIMERA ACREDITACIO DE CONEXEMENTS DE LLENGÜES:

Alemanys, Francès, Italià, Rus: dia 2 de febrer.
Anglès: dia 1 de febrer.

DIPLOMA DE SUFICIENCIA

Alemanys, Francès, italià, Rus: dia 2 de febrer
Anglès: dia 1 de febrer

Termini d'inscripcions: fins el 25 de gener.

Especialment destinats a participants de programes d'intercanvi universitari, estudiants i becats de 3r Cicle.

Titulació mínima requerida: COU.

Per a més informació
adreceu-vos a la
Secretaria de l'EIM



(Gran Via de les Corts
Catalanes 585, Edifici Central, planta baixa) o
truqueu al telèfon 318.42. 66, ext. 2501.

Horari de finestreta:
de 10 a 13 i de 16,30 a 19,30.



APAC agenda 1993

January - March events.

By the time you read this, some of these events will be history. However, it is useful to have our bulletin record as much APAC activity as possible.

APAC ELECTION (20th of January at the Escola Oficial d'Idiomes (Drassanes, s/n -Saló d'Actes). We made a call for candidates during our last Jornades (February 92) and in the last issues of the bulletin. So far, nobody has volunteered. So, the present committee (plus a few new members) have decided to step in for two more years (instead of the usual four), hoping that in the meantime some new blood will come to the rescue. A round table has been organized on election day around the topic "Hi ha una política de llengües a Catalunya?", so that we can combine election, intellectual exercise and a glass of Cava in just one single meeting -plus the pleasure of being together. If you cannot attend it, please send your vote to our Apartat de Correus before the 15th of January.

JORNADES -APAC ELT CONVENTION (February 25th to 27th): *"Modular Thinking: Catering for different needs and different contexts"*. We have invited speakers from the UK (Universities of Reading, Essex, Nottingham, London, etc), and other countries (Germany, Austria, Canada, France) plus a great number of Spanish colleagues. Our best Jornades so far. 200 lectures /workshops on every topic of interest. Pre-programmes + registration forms are in the post.

PROF. KATHLEEN BAILEY from California will give a workshop in the Aula Magna of the Facultat de Lletres (Universitat de Barcelona) on "Teachers' decision making processes". Date: JANUARY 12th (18 h.) *All APAC members are heartily invited.* All APAC members are heartily invited. Our thanks to the Institut d'Estudis Nord-Americans and to the Dep. de Filologia Anglesa of the Universitat de Barcelona,

APAC LANGUAGE COURSE FOR EGB TEACHERS. We have organized it with the Escola d'Idiomes Moderns (Universitat de Barcelona) at less than half the normal cost. APAC will finance the rest. See APAC of NEWS No. 15 for details.

LOGISTIC PROBLEMS are cropping up. They are many times as big as they were four years ago. We not only publish a bulletin and organize events all over Catalunya, but our February Jornades Pedagògiques rest squarely on our shoulders. This means the pedagogical planning of about 200 lectures / workshops, getting in contact with speakers in our country and abroad, negotiating institutional sponsoring and premises, typing preprogrammes and programmes, sending things to print, organizing mailings, booking tickets and hotel accommodation, printing handouts, coping with financial problems, endless meetings, etc. We do it happily. However, this requires a new style of organization.

So far, the committee members have put in voluntary work to cope with the problems of our growing mailing list. To solve any future problems, we are now using part-time secretarial work. We are also on the lookout for an office in the centre of Barcelona, at a price we can afford. That means possible telephone contact. It also implies a slight raise in our yearly 'quotes', as we voted in our general assembly in 1990.

APAC PEDAGOGICAL WEEKENDS organized thanks to the cooperation of **Heinemann Iberia**, include the following for Spring 1993:

Tarragona	12-13 February
Lleida	19-20 February
Girona	12-13 March
Barcelona	7-8 May

If you are interested, phone Heinemann (93) 2379000-2379105 or Ma. José Lobo -CR- (93) 3103456

CONCURS APAC 1993. We are rethinking this kind of APAC activity. Soon we may have announcements to make. We will keep you informed.

APAC

Associació de Professors d'Anglès de Catalunya

ACTES
3a part

APAC ELT-CONVENTION
1992



Barcelona
27-29 February, 1992

"Towards Autonomy.
Opening New Paths."

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Updating folklore: towards "La Reforma"

by Fernanda Rodríguez Torras
Universitat Rovira i Virgili. Tarragona.

1. Introduction: the use of literature in the teaching of the foreign language.

The use of literature in the teaching of the foreign language, has gained a new dimension in the 1980s, searching for creative inspiration conducive to communication. The publications on its usage and applications in the classroom have been copious (Widowson, 84), (Barker, 85), (Brumfit, 85), (Rodríguez, 85), (Brumfit and Carter, 86), (Collie and Slater, 87), (Stern, 87), as have anthologies for intermediate and advanced students which introduce the newest methodological innovations (Gabriel, 81 and 83), (Maley and Moulding, 85), (Gower and Pearson, 86), (Clarke, 89). The new curriculum in its first and second level of development, currently being published by the Generalitat of Catalonia dedicates a separate section under the heading of "Culture".

Among others, the reasons for its use are the following:

- A) Literary texts offer a large body of written materials that deal with human values and help to realize the individual's potential and to value others.
- B) Literature is an authentic material, that is, in the majority of cases the texts are not written with language teaching in mind, and are neither adapted nor simplified.
- C) They provide a cultural richness which, as regards what concerns us: Folklore, offers a wider perspective of customs, traditions and myths of the native speakers of that language.
- D) Protects and stimulates the student's linguistic development, starting with rhymes, which generally, use alliteration, repetition, and easily memorized rhythms, and which often use questions and answers. Of course, familiar language and simple repetitive structures help to memorize the narration almost perfectly.

2. Selection of popular literature in English for the teaching of different levels.

When using popular literature in teaching English we are not teaching language alone, but teaching language through content, be it humorous, purely narrative or fantastic. If we achieve a good selection from this deep well of folklore, we will bring to the classroom a wide spread of customs and traditions which will complete the educational content of the pupil's curriculum.

Rhymes, riddles, tongue-twisters, limericks and tales form the base of British Folklore.

I would recommend that the criteria to be taken into account in your selection be (Rodríguez Suarez, 90):

- A) That the content be stimulating and attractive.
- B) That it lends itself to communication.
- C) That linguistic difficulty be Input + 1 (Krashen, 85).
- D) That it brings knowledge to the integral training of the pupil.
- E) That the materials be varied in order to be able to delve more deeply, time and the pupil's interests permitting.
- F) That it stimulates the creativity of the pupil, which will make him use the language and hence, learn it.

3. Nursery rhymes.

This term includes a large variety of short poems which are accompanied by handgames, infant songs, rhymes of counting, days of the week, months of the year, and seasons. Those about festivals and nonsense rhymes are also numerous.

Rhymes offer a good opportunity to extend and revise vocabulary. They use a familiar and restricted lexicon suitable to the oral language. The following very simple example, helps not only to learn how to pronounce the alphabet but to acquire many verbs in the simple past (regular and irregular). These past tenses include daily actions.

A was an apple-pie,	M mourned for it,
B bit it,	N nodded at it,
C cut it,	O opened it,
D dealt it,	P peeped in it
E ate it,	Q quartered it,
F fought for it,	R ran for it,
G got it,	S stole it,
H had it,	T took it,
I inspected it,	U upset it,
J jumped for it,	V viewed it
K kept it,	W wanted it,
L longed for it	X, Y, Z, and ampersand,
	All wished for a piece in hand. (1)

The exploitation of this rhyme could be as follows:

A) Purpose

1. To learn the alphabet.
2. To learn the past tense of the verbs.

B) Development

1. Audiovisualization of the rhyme on video or tape accompanied by visual back up.
2. To listen to and perform the action. (2).
3. To listen to and to draw in a schematic sequence.
4. To listen and to repeat.
5. To answer questions along the lines of: What did B do? -B- bit it, etc. etc.
6. The pupils can replace these verbs with others that they know or that they need to know to be able to create a new rhyme. They can use a dictionary or ask for the teacher's help.

The example I am going to illustrate, deals with abnormal growth, a theme which is abundant in folklore everywhere. Let us recall the Castilian nursery rhyme: "Quisiera ser tan alta como la luna ¡ay!, ¡ay!, como la luna ..." Also the central theme in the tale of "Jack and the Bean stalk" has as the main protagonist, a vegetable that grows constantly. In the classic "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland", we again face this problem which is a recurrent theme, especially in Catalonia.

There was a maid

There was a maid on Scrabble Hill.
And if not dead, she lives there still:
She grew so tall, she reached the sky,
And on the moon, hung clothes to dry. (3)

A) Purpose.

A text of relative simplicity to give rise to treatment of the theme of growth or shrinkage with medium level pupils. (4)

B) Development

1. Reading and comprehension of the text accompanied by visuals.

2. Word games:

a. What if your fingers shrank to the size of maggots?.

What if your baby sister shrank to the size of a hippopotamus?.

What if your grandmother shrank to the size of a pea?.

The question gives rise to possible replies, discussions and to a later dramatisation. The possibility of orally creating the story of the grandmother reduced to the size of a pea, can be prompted by the reading of a recent story. "The shrinking of Treehorn" (5). This is about a man who shrinks ceaselessly and does not receive the help he expects from adults. The subject of growth in adolescence is important at this age.

b. "I went shopping and I bought". It is begun by mentioning something small and then the next pupil has to continue, by naming something big, and so on.

The third example to consider for a higher level presents the theme of the differences between men and women. Its treatment via four assigned tasks according to the number of pupils, can foster a debate whose level will be determined by the linguistic competence of the members of the group.

Men and women.

1. Presentation: Preliminary verbal introduction by the teacher to the topic of: "Are men and women different?".

2. Four different, but interrelated tasks are allotted, each of which deals with different aspects of the subject.

3. Task I is on preconceived attitudes, or "cliches", about the appearance and behaviour of the male and female.

Task II prompts a discussion about whether it always has to be the woman that stays at home and the male that goes out to work.

Task III uses a questionnaire to discuss the suitability of the sexes to different types of job.

Task IV seeks a discussion about the supposed ideal picture of the ideal secretary.

It needs all four groups to arrive at an agreement or summarize what they have discussed, for a later oral presentation, followed by a general discussion.

*** Task I - Men and Women: *What are little boys made of?***

What are little boys made of, made of?

What are little boys made of?

Frogs and snails, and puppy-dogs' tails.

That's what little boys are made of.

What are little girls made of, made of?

What are little girls made of?

Sugar and spice, and all things nice;

That's what little girls are made of. (6)

This is a very traditional poem.

Up to what an extent does this concept still prevail?

1. Discuss this point in your group. You could consider for example:

What people think women should look like.

What people think men should look like.

How women are expected to behave.

How men are expected to behave.

Be prepared to tell the class about your discussion. If you have finished write the main points down.

*** Task II - Men and Women.**

"These days it is not enough for the woman to stay at home and the man to go out to work. Women, too, should be able to carry on working after they get married. Why should it be the woman who brings up the children and carries out domestic duties?"

Individually make some notes on why you agree or disagree with the point of view expressed and then discuss the topic as a group.

Be ready to tell the class about your conclusions.

*** Task III - Men and Women.**

The list below shows twelve occupations.

A. Study the list and discuss the importance of the sex as it relates to each occupation.

B. Compare your preferences with the preferences of others in your group. Discuss the differences.

C. In your opinion, what are the reasons that certain occupations are only for men or for women?.

D. Make a list of other occupations for men only, and then for women only.

Be prepared to tell the class about your conclusions as a group.

OCCUPATION	WOMEN	MEN
1 .- Elementary School Teacher		
2 .- Fisherman		
3 .- Surgeon		
4 .- Salesperson		
5 .- Zoo Keeper		
6 .- Housekeeper		
7 .- Soldier		
8 .- Farmer		
9 .- Politician		
10.- Social Worker		
11.- Pilot		
12.- Secretary		

*** Task IV - Men and Women**

Do you agree or disagree with the following statements?.

1. A secretary should be a woman.

2. A secretary should be sexy and attractive.

3. A secretary should be young and enthusiastic.
4. A secretary should be mature and experienced.
5. A secretary should be independent and make decisions on his or her own.
6. A secretary should always ask for his or her boss's permission before acting.
7. A secretary should be loyal to his or her boss.

After having discussed these statements, come to conclusions within your group. Please write them down and be ready to report to the class.

After the presentation and discussion of the three previous examples, the following rhymes are handed in to the class, to be worked on in groups for later presentation. Specifically these will be:

1. The level of linguistic knowledge of the pupils with whom you intend to use the rhyme.
2. The purpose that the exploitation seeks.
3. Possible activities for development.

-Sing a song of sixpence

Sing a song of sixpence,
A pocket full of rye;
Four-and-twenty blackbirds
Baked in a pie.
When the pie was opened
The birds began to sing;
Wasn't that a dainty dish
To set before the King?

The King was in the counting-house,
Counting out his money;
The Queen was in the parlour,
Eating bread and honey;
The maid was in the garden,
Hanging out the clothes;
When down came a blackbird
And snipped off her nose

-Doctor Faustus

Doctor Faustus was a good man,
He whipped his scholars now and then;
When he whipped them he made them dance
Out of England into France,
Out of France into Spain,
And then he whipped them back again!.

-Spanish lad

Spanish lad, Spanish lad, whence did you come?
From a far-distant, sunny and much-love home.
I was born, little maid, in the sweet orange grove,
And I wish I was back with the friends that I love.

-Peter, Peter

Peter, Peter, pumpkin eater,
Had a wife and couldn't keep her;
He put her in a pumpkin shell,
And there he kept her very well.

-Three blind mice

Three blind mice!. Three blind mice!
See how they run!. See how they run!
They all ran after the farmer's wife;
She cut off their tails with a carving knife.
Did you ever see such a sight in your life
As three blind mice? (7)

4. Limericks.

These are characteristic forms of popular Anglo-Saxon literature, normally four stanzas of five lines apiece. Their purpose is to make one laugh, but at times their humour is cruel. In the majority of cases, they begin with the set phrase: "There was an old man...", "There was an old woman..." "There was a young lady...".

The fate of the main character is always allied to the sound of his name or his place of birth. The content is varied in theme, which supports its usage as reinforcement and revision of vocabulary and, at other times, as input to introduce new content. The following examples should be noted, as they are, stanzas with an absurd content and simple structure.

-There was an old man on the border
There was an old man on the Border,
Who lived in the utmost disorder;
He danced with the Cat, and made tea in his hat,
Which vexed all the folks on the Border. (8)

-There was an old man with a beard
There was an old man with a beard,
Who said, "It is just as I feared!-
Two Owls and a Hen, four Larks and a Wren,
Have all built their nests in my beard!". (9)

The possible exploitation of these limericks might be as follows:

A) Purpose

1. The acquiring of correct pronunciation rhythm and intonation.
2. Understanding with the help of visual aids and dictionary.

B) Development

1. Simple questions and answers

For example one:

Where did he live?.

How did he live?

What did the folks say about him?.

For example two:

What happened to an old man with a beard?.

Do you think that this story is possible?.

Can you invent a similar one?.

2. Tell the story among several students.
3. Construct a similiary absurd little story, whether in a narrative or rhymed form.

The following four limericks that I present are useful for an intermediate level class, not so much for the structure (which is simple), as for the purpose that they aim to achieve namely a discussion about the characteristics of this type of writing.

A)Purpose

1. To make the pupil familiar with this type of rhyme.
2. To discuss whether some of them are serious and if they are, to reason why. If they are humorous, to define the type of humour.

A .- There was a young lady from Riga
Who smiled as she rode on a tiger,
They returned from the ride
With the lady inside,
And a smile on the face of the tiger.

B .- There was a young man from Devizes
Whose ears were of different sizes
The one that was small
Was no good at all.
But the other won several prizes.

C .- There was a young man from Bengal
Who went to a fancy-dress ball.
He went, just for fun.
Dressed up as a bun,
And a dog ate him up in the hall. (10)

D .- There was an Old Man of Cape Horn,
Who wished he had never been born;
So he sat on a chair, till he died of despair.
That dolorous Man of Cape Horn. (11)

5. Riddles.

The puzzle a riddle poses offers a motivating way of acquiring a foreign language while favouring the cognitive development of the pupil. It has a long tradition in English, owing to the fact that, among other things, it is precise, and although it can confuse, it must not lie. Of course, it must not be too obvious, and although rhyme is not essential, it does help correct pronunciation. In addition, making students create riddles, is a good means of introducing the use of metaphors. (12)

The following are examples of the form, some of which rhyme and others which do not. Their exploitation could be as follows:

A) Purpose

1. To aid comprehension and oral expression.
2. To widen knowledge of the language and simultaneously, creative and cognitive skills.

B) Development

1. Silent reading for comprehension and a later reading led by the teacher.
2. Creation of riddles in groups and a later exchange between the pupils.

As I was going over London Bridge
I heard something crack:
Not a man in all England
Can mend that!

(-Ice)

Two brothers we are, great burdens we bear,
On which we are bitterly pressed;
The truth is to say, we are full all the day,
And empty when we go to rest.

(-Pair of shoes-)

As I was going to St. Ives
I met a man with seven wives,
Each wife had seven sacks,
Each sack had seven cats,
Each cat had seven kits;
Kits, cats, sacks and wives,
How many were there going to St. Ives?.

(-Just I-)

What gets wet when drying.

(-A towel-)

What goes up but never comes down?

(-Smoke / your age-)

What goes up when the rain comes down?

(-An umbrella-)

Riddle me, riddle me, what is that,
Over the head and under the hat?.

(-Hair-)

What holds water yet is full of holes? (13)

(-A sponge-)

6. Conclusions.

The view presented throughout this session has had as its objective to stimulate the English teacher into using popular literature in the classroom. Folklore, especially the tale, gains in importance in the acquisition of English as a first language as much in Great Britain as in USA, it being a medium which fosters creativity, imagination and linguistic development.

Current trends in foreign language teaching have again given literature the credit it deserves. With a multifaceted communicative methodological treatment which is appropriate to the different levels of the class. Popular literature because of its oral tradition, which was born to be told and communicated, is suitable to favour the speaking skill.

I should like to finish with some didactical suggestions which put into practice some of the theories about foreign language teaching and which might be able to be taken into account in the sessions in which popular literature is used.

1. To create a relaxed atmosphere.
2. To use authentic material where possible.
3. To choose topics which are motivating for the pupils.
4. So that the input be stimulating, its presentation should always be varied.
5. Frequent interaction between pupil and teacher.
6. Interaction between pupils via work in groups, debates, etc.
7. The teacher must not make overt correction of sentences that are created by the pupil, but to repeat after him with the purpose of presenting the class with a correct input.
8. In each session, the vocabulary that the teacher feels may be needed, will be provided. This basic vocabulary, will be written either on the blackboard or on the overhead projector. Throughout the development of the session, the teacher will provide the pupil with the vocabulary that he needs. Later on, according to level, the student can be provided with a more comprehensive semantic map on the topic.
9. The teacher will try to stimulate previous knowledge of the subject, via different techniques, to activate knowledge already known to the pupil in his L1. Thus he will use questions and answers and audio-visual elements to "jog" the memory and let them use this content.
10. The input given must be on the index input + 1, which is to say that the material must be slightly above the linguistic capacities of the students. (Krashen, 85).
11. In the same way, output must be slightly above their linguistic capacity: output + 1 (Swain, 85). From this, we can deduce that it is necessary to foster situations which compel the students to express new meanings.
12. The use of separate tasks on the same topic within a session, is a helpful factor in linguistic production and activates dormant knowledge on the topic.
13. The writing, editing and illustrating of a limerick, a tale, etc. that might already been altered or invented is a task which completes and strengthens the audio-oral introduction of the literary content.

I should like to conclude, trusting in having stimulated the use of a content that, in order to be motivating for the student, demands that the teacher himself must feel attracted by the charm of popular wisdom told in English.

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Investigación en el aula de segunda lengua.

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1. Introducción.

Sin duda existen profesores de segundas lenguas (L_2) a quienes les gustaría realizar una investigación, en su propia aula o en la de algún compañero, pero desconocen como llevarla a cabo. Nuestro propósito es describir someramente los métodos de investigación educativa y las etapas necesarias para hacer la investigación. Para ello hemos dividido nuestra exposición en seis partes: métodos de investigación educativa, diseño de la investigación, instrumentos de recogida de datos, análisis de los datos, presentación de resultados y conclusiones.

2. Métodos de investigación educativa.

Antes de abordar el diseño de la investigación, nos parece necesario hacer un breve repaso de los métodos de investigación educativa existentes.

En la figura 1 podemos ver los diferentes métodos de investigación educativa representados en una línea continua, en cuyo extremo izquierdo aparece el paradigma exclusivamente cualitativo y en el derecho el paradigma exclusivamente cuantitativo. En el medio, de izquierda a derecha, la introspección, la observación participativa, la observación no participativa, la descripción, el experimento previo, el cuasi-experimento y el experimento.

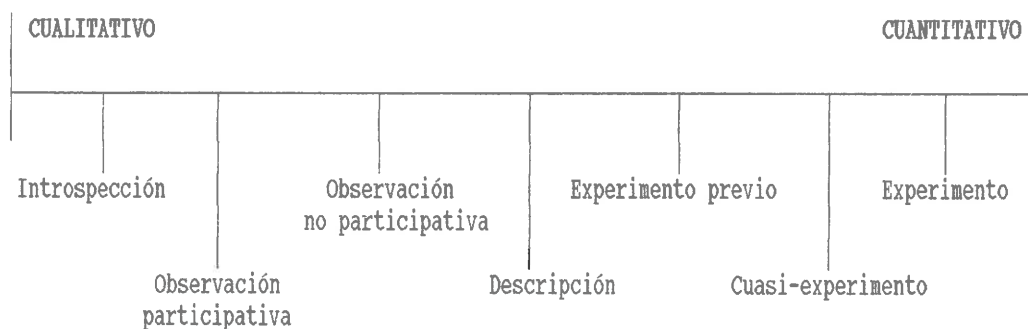


Fig. 1. Relación entre los diversos métodos de investigación
(Larsen-Freeman y Long 1991:15)

Al paradigma cualitativo pertenecen los estudios etnográficos, en los que el investigador observa el desarrollo de los eventos lingüísticos (en un marco formal o informal) y describe un aspecto concreto de los mismos o relata todo lo que observa. En este método no se parte de ninguna hipótesis. Por tanto, sus hallazgos son difícilmente generalizables.

Introspección.

Es un método utilizado tradicionalmente en el campo de la psicología y en el que los aprendices, guiados

por el investigador, reflexionan sobre lo que experimentan durante el proceso de adquisición de una segunda lengua. Este método es adecuado en estudios en los que intervengan variables afectivas como la actitud, la motivación o en estudios de estrategias de aprendizaje. Se duda de la validez de este método al no poder estar nunca seguros de la veracidad de las respuestas de los aprendices.

Observación participativa

El investigador participa en el estudio que lleva a cabo tomando minuciosas notas de lo que observa y experimenta. No se parte de ninguna hipótesis y la observación se desarrolla durante un largo periodo de tiempo con un número pequeño de sujetos.

Observación no participativa

El investigador únicamente toma notas detalladas de las observaciones que realiza a un número reducido de sujetos durante un largo periodo de tiempo. A esta metodología pertenecen los llamados estudios de casos. No se parte de ninguna hipótesis y los resultados no son fácilmente generalizables.

Descripción

El investigador que adopta este método, llamado también observación sistemática, acota el objetivo de su estudio. Después cumplimenta un instrumento de observación que contiene categorías de interacción en el aula que se registran cada cierto intervalo de tiempo. Finalmente busca relaciones del aspecto específico tratado a través de la clasificación, ordenación y correlación de los datos obtenidos. La observación sistemática tiene las características de no consumir demasiado tiempo y sus resultados poder ser generalizables. A veces sus resultados no son suficientemente significativos dado que este método ignora el hecho de que la adquisición de una segunda lengua es un fenómeno multidimensional.

Experimento previo

El investigador, al utilizar la técnica de experimento, pretende establecer una relación causal entre el tratamiento aplicado a los sujetos del estudio y algunas de las consecuencias que les produce. Para ello hay que contar con, al menos, un grupo de control, al que no se le aplica ningún tratamiento, y con un grupo experimental, al que se le aplica el tratamiento. Los sujetos del estudio deben elegirse al azar y debe aplicarseles, al menos, una prueba al principio y al final del tratamiento.

Cuasi-experimento

Si se elige esta metodología, se deberá contar con, al menos, un grupo experimental y un grupo de control, pero los sujetos del estudio no tendrán que escogerse al azar.

Experimento

La idea básica de un experimento es la siguiente: si se trata a un grupo de una manera, y a otro de otra, y no hay otros factores que influyan de modo distinto en ambos grupos, puede establecerse una relación de causa-efecto entre el tratamiento y sus consecuencias. El investigador, si adopta este método, deberá controlar todas las variables menos una, el tratamiento. De esta forma la diferencia de resultados entre el grupo de control y el grupo experimental será debida al tratamiento, pudiéndose generalizar las conclusiones. Si se escoge este método, se deberán formular una o varias hipótesis, diseñar un experimento y con los datos obtenidos a través de los instrumentos pertinentes, llevar a cabo un análisis estadístico y sacar las conclusiones oportunas y generalizables.

3. Diseño de la investigación.

Lo primero que tiene que hacer el investigador es elegir el tema de la investigación e identificar sus

objetivos.

En cuanto al diseño de la investigación, si el investigador se decanta por el método cuantitativo, deberá formular una o varias hipótesis y tener en cuenta las variables que, según el papel que desempeñan en la investigación, se clasifican en dependientes, independientes, moderadoras, de control y extrañas. Las variables dependientes son aquellas que se observan con objeto de determinar el efecto del tratamiento en ellas; las independientes se seleccionan para determinar su efecto sobre las variables dependientes; las variables moderadoras se eligen para comprobar si la relación entre las variables dependientes e independientes viene condicionada por ellas; las variables de control se controlan a fin de neutralizar su efecto sobre la relación entre variables dependientes, independientes y moderadoras y, por último, las variables extrañas se controlan a fin de que el estudio sea válido. Asimismo, las variables se clasifican de acuerdo a las escalas nominal, ordinal y de intervalo. Se usa la escala nominal para denominar y asignar categorías a una variable, identificando luego la categoría que se asigna a un individuo; la escala ordinal se utiliza para ordenar o clasificar datos según un criterio de "más que" o "menos que" y la escala de intervalo se emplea para ordenar y señalar la distancia entre los puntos de la ordenación.

Una vez realizado el diseño de la investigación cuantitativa, se pasa a la confección o adaptación de los instrumentos de recogida de datos.

4. instrumentos de recogida de datos.

No existen instrumentos de recogida de datos específicos de un método concreto. Entre los instrumentos más utilizados en investigaciones en aulas de segunda lengua están los siguientes:

Cuestionarios

El objetivo del cuestionario es la obtención de los valores de las variables intervinientes en el estudio y la confirmación de la aplicación del tratamiento. De acuerdo con Cohen y Manion (1980) un cuestionario ideal debe reunir entre otras las siguientes características: diseño sencillo, instrucciones claras, evaluación fácil, cumplimentación rápida, formato atractivo y personalizado, contenido acorde con la experiencia de quienes lo contestan, orden natural y psicológico y nota final de agradecimiento por la colaboración. Sus ventajas son: la aplicación fácil y la realización rápida, la comparación posible entre grupos o individuos, la información que proporciona en cuanto a actitudes, adecuación de materiales y metodología y la cuantificación de los datos. Sus inconvenientes son: el mucho tiempo que se invierte en su preparación y el análisis de los datos, así como la incertidumbre sobre la veracidad de las respuestas.

Diarios

El uso del diario como instrumento de recogida de datos no es nuevo en los estudios de investigación educativa pero sí algo restringido. Bailey (1980) y Schumann & Schumann (1977) han utilizado esta técnica para estudiar los factores que influyen en el aprendizaje de una segunda lengua. La ventaja del diario es la valiosa información que proporciona al investigador. Como inconvenientes señalamos el largo tiempo que consume su realización y la difícil comprobación de que se está llevando a cabo correctamente.

Instrumentos de observación

Una de las técnicas de describir lo que ocurre en el aula de segunda lengua y de identificar los procesos que conducen a su adquisición es la observación sistemática. Según Chaudron (1988) se han publicado un total de 26 instrumentos que difieren en el tipo de variables que incluyen, el modo y la frecuencia con la que se codifican; su enfoque y el tiempo y el entrenamiento necesarios para familiarizarse con ellos.

La ventaja de la observación sistemática estriba en el hecho de que sus instrumentos son en general fáciles de utilizar. Los inconvenientes son que registran el habla del profesor sin tener en cuenta el del alumno e ignoran la comunicación no verbal y no pública en el aula.

Tests

El investigador puede optar por aplicar uno o varios tests al principio y final del tratamiento para comprobar, por ejemplo, el nivel de conocimientos de la L₂ de sus alumnos. Los tests pueden evaluar un solo componente de la L₂ y sus resultados compararse a los del grupo estándar o valorar el uso global de la L₂ y sus resultados medirse de acuerdo con un criterio previamente establecido. Cualquiera que sea el tipo de test escogido, éste se debe fiabilizar y validar.

4. Análisis de los datos.

Con los datos recogidos el investigador puede realizar un análisis descriptivo en el que hallará magnitudes como la media, varianza, desviación estándar, asimetría y dispersión correspondiente a un grupo que permiten resumir los resultados, haciéndolos más legibles y pudiendo sacar conclusiones de ellos. Mediante un análisis deductivo se compararán dos a más grupos. Algunos de los análisis deductivos más utilizados son el test t, el de varianza y multivarianza, de correlación y de frecuencias.

5. Presentación de los resultados.

Los datos se pueden representar de diversas maneras entre las que destacaremos las formas gráficas (histogramas, diagramas de barras o poligonales, diagramas de línea y de caja, diagramas de sectores y gráficos de normalidad para variables individuales y diagramas de dispersión para parejas de variables) y la forma numérica (tabla de datos de entrada con indicación de sujetos y variables, agrupación de datos en una distribución de frecuencias, tablas de valores medio, mínimo, máximo, rango y desviación estándar de cada variable, tablas de test de significación y de correlación e índices de fiabilidad).

6. Conclusiones.

Por último el investigador dará cuenta de las conclusiones a las que ha llegado con su investigación así como propondrá una serie de recomendaciones y sugerencias para futuros estudios.

7. Epílogo.

Conscientes de la brevedad de esta introducción a la investigación en el aula de segunda lengua, incluimos a continuación una bibliografía fundamental para que el futuro investigador pueda familiarizarse con los temas expuestos y profundizar en aquellos que más le interesen.

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Lenguaje organizativo de aula y adquisición de segunda lengua.

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1. Introducción.

Entre la extensa tipología de actividades que lleva a cabo el profesor de una segunda lengua en el aula para promover su adquisición, vamos a centrarnos en la que tiene finalidad organizativa. En ella el alumno tiene la oportunidad de poner en práctica recursos y estrategias de comunicación lingüísticas y extralingüísticas. Para realizar esta actividad el profesor utiliza, en mayor o menor medida, la segunda lengua (L_2) o la lengua materna (L_1) de los alumnos, que puede o no coincidir con la suya.

En el resumen del estudio experimental que presentamos a continuación se pretende demostrar la repercusión positiva que tiene el uso intensivo de la lengua inglesa por parte del profesor en la adquisición de dicha lengua por parte de los alumnos. El resumen lo hemos dividido en tres partes: Planteamiento, Procedimiento y Resultados.

2. Planteamiento.

El problema surge al plantearnos el papel del "input" en la adquisición, concretamente el "input" en segunda lengua procedente del habla del profesor con fin organizativo y la adquisición de esta lengua por el alumno.

Para verificar la relación entre "input" y adquisición se procede de la siguiente forma:

- Se parte de una teoría de adquisición de segundas lenguas: La teoría del monitor de Krashen.
- Se extrae la hipótesis del estudio basándonos en la importancia del factor "input" comprensible en la adquisición de una segunda lengua.
- Se decide llevar a cabo una investigación para probar la hipótesis anterior.

La teoría del monitor fue presentada por su autor S. Krashen en una serie de artículos a finales de los 70 y difundida en los 80 (Krashen 1985). Parte de un número de supuestos de los que se derivan cinco hipótesis.

Hipótesis de la adquisición-aprendizaje

Hipótesis del orden natural

Hipótesis del monitor

Hipótesis del "input"

Hipótesis del filtro afectivo

De todas ellas, nos hemos basado principalmente en la hipótesis del "input". Esta hipótesis afirma que los seres humanos adquieren el lenguaje cuando comprenden los mensajes, es decir, cuando el "input" es comprensible. Progresamos según el orden natural entendiendo "input" que contiene estructuras situadas un poco más allá de nuestro nivel actual de competencia, sirviéndonos del contexto, del conocimiento del mundo y de la competencia lingüística adquirida previamente. El "input" comprensible es el ingrediente esencial para la adquisición de una lengua. Si hay "input" comprensible, la gramática necesaria se facilita y el habla surge.

Enunciamos seguidamente la hipótesis de nuestro estudio: El "input" comprensible en segunda lengua (en

nuestro caso la inglesa) procedente del habla del profesor con fin organizativo incrementa el ritmo de adquisición de dicha lengua por parte de los alumnos de 1º de BUP de Institutos de Bachillerato.

Para probar esta hipótesis se diseña un estudio experimental en el que colaboran dos profesores que imparten inglés durante un curso académico a dos grupos de 1º de BUP de Instituto. Cada profesor utiliza con uno de los grupos de 1º de BUP mayoritariamente la lengua inglesa como vehículo de comunicación en el aula y con el otro minoritariamente. Al primero de los grupos le llamamos grupo experimental y al segundo de control. Al principio y al final del tratamiento se aplica a los alumnos de los cuatro grupos una serie de pruebas validadas previamente y durante el mismo se realizan entrevistas, observaciones sistemáticas de clases y se aplica un cuestionario. Tras el análisis de los datos se sacan las conclusiones oportunas que permiten validar nuestra hipótesis.

3. Procedimiento.

Como acabamos de apuntar, se diseñó un estudio experimental para probar nuestra hipótesis y una vez recogidos los datos se analizaron estadísticamente y se interpretaron. El estudio experimental se complementó con otra modalidad del estudio estadístico, el llamado informe global, llevado a cabo mediante un cuestionario administrado a los alumnos.

Con el estudio experimental investigamos el comportamiento (en nuestro caso el lingüístico) de grupos bajo condiciones controladas. Para ello hemos estudiado, mediante la aplicación de pruebas, el efecto del tratamiento en la actuación de los estudiantes. Las pruebas se han llevado a cabo al inicio y al final del tratamiento con los grupos experimental y control. La comparación de las medias de las pruebas permite determinar si ha tenido lugar adquisición. En cuanto a los grupos, se eligen dos grupos de estudiantes de cada uno de los dos Institutos de Bachillerato, asignándose aleatoriamente uno como grupo de control y otro experimental. Al grupo experimental se le da cierto tratamiento (mayor "input" comprensible en L₂ procedente del habla del profesor) mientras que en el grupo de control el "input" es menor. Se comparan las medias al final del tratamiento para determinar si éste hace puntuar más al grupo experimental que al de control.

De hecho, hemos utilizado el método cuasi-experimental, ya que en nuestro caso los grupos aparecen organizados en función de limitaciones como son las asignaturas optativas.

En cuanto a las variables que hemos usado, la variable dependiente (adquisición) está reflejada en la diferencia de puntuación en una serie de tests antes y después del tratamiento. La variable independiente es el tratamiento reflejado en el grupo por dos categorías, experimental y control. Además, se han controlado otras variables (de control, moderadoras y extrañas). En total, intervienen 36 variables representadas en escalas nominales, ordinales y de intervalo. Asimismo, se procedió a realizar las siguientes actividades antes y después del diseño.

Antes del Diseño:

- Búsqueda de información sobre el tema "input"-adquisición de L₂
- Localización de pruebas.
- Contacto con profesores y establecimiento de los siguientes requisitos: impartición de clases cada uno a dos grupos de un mismo curso, realización de pruebas inicial y final y control periódico mediante observación.

Después del diseño:

- Elección aleatoria de grupo experimental y de control.
- Programación del curso, de actividades de comprensión oral, del inglés de clase y confección de pruebas.
- Aplicación de cuestionarios y de tests.
- Realización de observaciones y entrevistas.

Sin embargo, varias incidencias recomendaron la reconducción del estudio obligando a la supresión de un test por baja fiabilidad, a la aplicación de otro de técnica "cloze" para adiestrar en dicha técnica a los alumnos y a la introducción de diarios de clases para substituir la observación sistemática en dos grupos verificando estos diarios con el cuestionario.

En suma, los instrumentos utilizados en la recogida de datos fueron:

- Diarios de clase
- Entrevistas a profesores y alumnos redactores de diarios.
- Instrumento de opinión sobre el nivel de comprensión oral
- Cuestionario a los alumnos
- Instrumento de observación
- Tests
- Nota final de inglés

Diarios de clase

Ocho alumnos de los grupos experimental y de control de uno de los profesores llevaron a cabo diarios de clase basados en un modelo proporcionado por la investigadora. Se justifican por facilitar abundante información sobre el habla del profesor.

Entrevistas a profesores y alumnos redactores de diarios

A los profesores se les hizo una entrevista para conocer su perfil profesional. A los alumnos se les hizo otra para recabar su opinión sobre la redacción de diarios.

Instrumento de opinión sobre el nivel de comprensión oral

El profesor clasifica el nivel de comprensión oral en inglés de los alumnos según los métodos de orden preferencial y de estratificación. Se justifican dichos métodos para relacionar estos datos con el resultado final de tests y la nota final.

Cuestionario a los alumnos

Lo forman 22 preguntas con respuesta dual o múltiple. Se justifica su aplicación para conocer los valores de variables intervinientes, confirmar el tratamiento (habla en L_2 del profesor) y relacionar las variables entre sí.

Instrumento de observación

Adaptamos el modelo de Freudenstein (1977). Tiene diez categorías, se codifica cada 30" y registra múltiples eventos verbales y no verbales en tiempo real. Se justifica la observación sistemática por registrar el porcentaje de tiempo total que el profesor utiliza la L_2 y la L_1 con los grupos de la experimentación y las actividades asociadas con este uso.

Tests

Test 1: Mide la comprensión oral a través de la compleción de espacios en blanco y la elección alternativa o múltiple.

Test 2: Mide la comprensión oral mediante la técnica cloze. Se usó para ensayo de formato y sirvió para la validación externa de otros tests.

Test 3: Cloze de comprensión oral para medir el conocimiento global de la segunda lengua.

Test 4: Cloze de comprensión escrita. Utilizado para validar el test 3.

Test 5: Mide la comprensión oral del lenguaje organizativo del aula. Tiene formato de elección múltiple. Sirve para validar los tests 3, 4 y 6, los diarios, las observaciones y el cuestionario.

Test 6: Mide la comprensión escrita del lenguaje instruccional de tareas mediante la técnica de traducción de L_2 a L_1 . Sirve para validar los tests 3, 4 y 5.

Los tests 1 y 2 se aplicaron una vez y los restantes dos veces al principio y al final del tratamiento.

Nota final de inglés

Los dos profesores de la investigación nos facilitaron la nota final de inglés de los alumnos. Se cotejó luego con el Test 3 final y con la opinión de los profesores sobre el nivel de comprensión oral de los alumnos.

Análisis estadístico

Con el análisis estadístico se determina en qué medida ha contribuido cada una de las variables a la variable dependiente, en nuestro caso la adquisición. La relación esencial es la que liga tratamiento y adquisición.

Se realizó un análisis descriptivo y otro deductivo. Con el análisis descriptivo calculamos las magnitudes representativas de los grupos (media, desviación estándar, normalidad, asimetría y dispersión) y con el deductivo comparamos si dichas magnitudes difieren significativamente entre sí con el nivel de probabilidad requerido a fin de extraer conclusiones. Los análisis deductivos empleados en este estudio son:

- Test t emparejado para verificar la adquisición de cada grupo.
- Test t doble para comprobar si la adquisición del grupo experimental es significativamente superior al del grupo de control.
- Análisis de varianza que permite relacionar la adquisición media con algunas variables nominales (grupo, sexo, etc).
- Análisis de multivarianza que relaciona la adquisición media con dos variables independientes (grupo y profesor).
- Análisis de correlación que permite validar los tests (r de Pearson para la validez externa o concurrente y la interna o predictiva) así como para fiabilizarlos (fórmula de Kuder Richardson 21).
- Análisis de frecuencias utilizado para establecer la relación o independencia de las variables nominales mediante el estadístico Ji-cuadrada.

4. Resultados.

La comparación de los datos del estudio, procedentes de los grupos experimental y de control, y la aplicación a los mismos de las técnicas estadísticas mencionadas nos llevan a las siguientes conclusiones:

- Hay una diferencia significativa en el ritmo de adquisición de lengua extranjera entre los alumnos de 1º de BUP de Institutos de Bachillerato que han estado expuestos durante un curso escolar a un "input comprensible" y mayoritario en L_2 procedente del habla del profesor con fin organizativo y los que lo han estado con carácter minoritario.
- La adquisición está relacionada con: grupo, nota final de inglés de 1º de BUP, opinión de los profesores sobre la comprensión oral de sus alumnos al final de 1º de BUP, la nota de inglés en 8º de EGB y el uso de la L_2 por parte del profesor.
- La adquisición no está relacionada con: el profesor, el sexo de los alumnos, la edad de los alumnos, el tipo de centro de EGB al que fueron, la correspondencia mantenida en inglés por los alumnos, la

estancia en países anglófonos y el libro de texto de inglés de 8º de EGB.

- La nota final de inglés de 1º de BUP está relacionada con: el grupo, el profesor, la nota de inglés de 8º de EGB, las clases extraescolares de inglés y el resultado de los tests.
- El uso de L₂ en el aula por parte del profesor está relacionado con el uso de L₂ por parte de los alumnos y el nivel de conocimiento de los alumnos.
- La actitud de los alumnos ante el uso de L₂ por parte del profesor está relacionada con: la nota final de inglés de 1º de BUP de los alumnos y la opinión de los profesores sobre el nivel de comprensión oral de los alumnos.

5. Conclusión.

Esperamos que de los resultados alcanzados se desprenda la incidencia del "input" en lengua extranjera, procedente del habla del profesor, en la adquisición de esta lengua por parte de los alumnos. La investigación queda abierta a nuevos marcos educativos, siendo deseable que se realizara con más sujetos, más profesores y más centros escolares, para así generalizar la validez de la hipótesis del presente estudio.

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The class library: aims and benefits

by Albert López-Guindal

The class library is the perfect environment to develop:

- language acquisition at the lexis, structure and text organization levels,
- the student's learning strategies and reading capacity,
- increasing knowledge of the language and awareness of how language is used in written texts,
- competence and confidence in reading in a foreign language,
- the ability to deduce the meanings of words and phrases from clues in the context, through silent reading at their own pace,

and, through reading practice, it also helps students:

- to see how the grammar and vocabulary they have learned actually work in communication, i.e. how it is used to express ideas, etc., even in spoken language, and
- reinforce the structures learned, through a balance between a challenging and a frustrating reading task.

as reading provides:

- the students the means to use their ideas and opinions communicatively through the grammar and vocabulary previously learned in class,
- more opportunities to work more autonomously, within a self-learning framework,
- wider exposure to English than the more limited material of a general course book and help to mastery of vocabulary,
- the beginner level, unnaturally restricted language,
- an experience for the language learner which builds confidence and encourages independence in reading --- > autonomous learning.

Features of reading

- Reading is the language skill the students have more chances to practice, outside the classroom framework.
- The reading of texts, mainly dialogues, helps to speak the language more fluidly.
- The teacher's interest is that the student enjoys reading, since it is the only way to get the habit of reading, which is so beneficial and creative. This goal entails spending an incredible amount of time, which the students can do only on their own, outside the school timetable.
- Through reading, the students learn the language without their awareness, automatically. Extensive reading, therefore, develops language competence and reliability in the language. At low levels of language learning, this can be achieved through illustrations, and captions.
- Reading should be by all means motivating - the students read for pleasure, i.e. what they are interested in and understand - otherwise, they will put the book aside before finishing it.

Readers are to be:

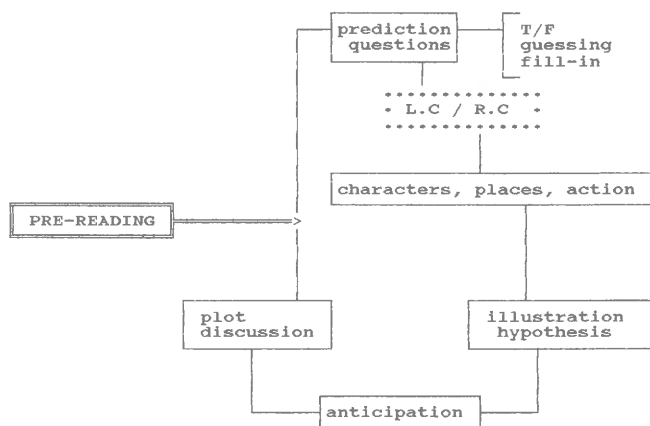
- attractive**, enjoyable and interesting, not only for the theme, but for the illustrations and presentation,
- easy**, one way to achieve the students' interest is to train them to read as a whole, rather than decipher every single word - otherwise, they will soon get demotivated,
- short**, so that it prevents the student from getting bored,
- varied**, for the number of titles, for the range of subjects, and for the language and intellectual maturity.

- the subject matter should be **motivating**
- The **level of language** should be **appropriate** to the student's competence in English
- will only be useful if the teacher is able to **exploit them fully**
- Reasons for reading:** Reading for **information** and for **pleasure**
- At the beginning, texts should contain relatively **little unknown language**
- The shortened versions of the **classics** had better be recommended to **upper levels**
- subject matter should be **compelling** to a student in order to know what it says.

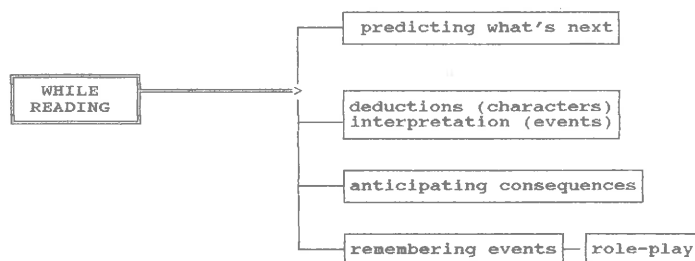
Helpful tips

- Before starting out a class library consider ways to promoting, displaying, classifying and organizing a borrowing system of books.
- Don't forget that an adapted monolingual dictionary, should be recommended to students when reading on their own.
- The ideal situation is that of students together deciding on a book they want to read with advice and guidance from their teacher.
- A student shouldn't always be discouraged from picking up books which are written at a language level above his supposed competence. However, a student who reads a lot of books at a slightly lower level than he is capable of is developing fluent reading in English and engaging in a positive language learning experience. Besides, a student who begins with a book which he finds very easy, can easily choose something higher. On the contrary, it can be very frustrating.

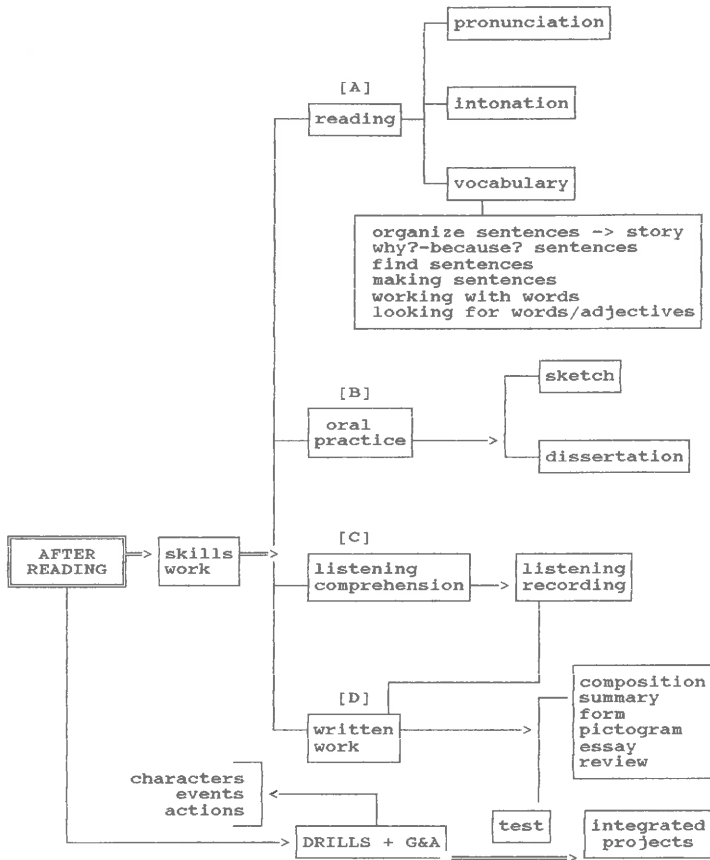
CLASS WORK



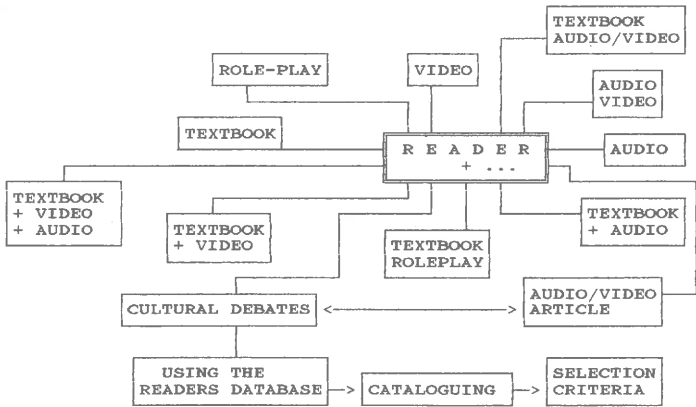
CLASS + HOME WORK



CLASS WORK



INTEGRATED ACTIVITIES



Using the same book at different levels

Fortunately many of the best known or popular literary masterpieces have been published by several publishers at different levels. The teacher may also want the whole group to read the same book on their own. Now then, even though the students in a language class are supposed to have roughly the same level of knowledge, in practice the situation is actually a long way from there.

When the teacher sets a book for class work it will cause trouble to more than one student. For this reason, the teacher can choose one of the titles published at different levels if he wants to avoid that the student keeps behind the rest of the group. This procedure will enable the students with the lowest English levels to follow

the class work at their pace.

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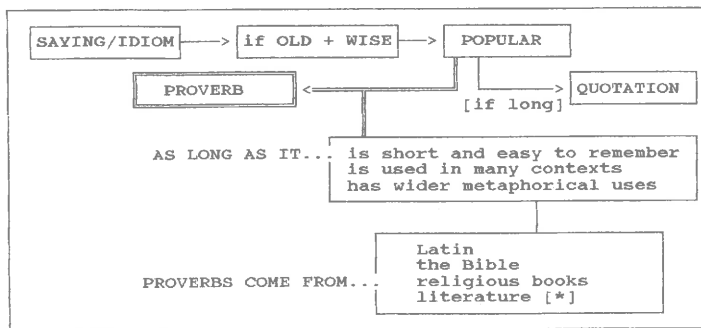
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EFL classroom activities with proverbs.

by Albert López-Guindal



* The more sophisticated proverbs, coming from literature, most likely made their first appearance fully developed.

Proverbs, which are used occasionally in familiar and informal conversation, tend to come up when the speaker is stumped, unable to utter the right word. The actual meanings of proverbs is not always plain, they then must be [explained and] learnt. Consequently, proverbs are an excellent channel:

- to practice the spelling of difficult words
- to guess the meanings of words
- to interpret illustrations, cartoon stories, tales, fables, allegories, myths and parables

1. Working out the *moral* of the story.

In pairs or groups, the ss try to find the moral of the story or proverbs from a cartoon story.

Tick off those examples which you think are not proverbs at all.

2. *Find a suitable match*

a) Find a match [identical or not] for each proverb in your own language, Spanish, for instance.
e.g. 'Es más poderosa la pluma que la espada.'

b) *Match* the proverbs with their definitions or explanations.

- Mix up a score of proverbs and their corresponding shortened explanatory notes.
- Hand out explanations and ask the ss to sort them out.
e.g. The written word is more effective and fearful than physical force. In spite of the power of the pen, the television and the wordless images can be even more dangerous and sharper weapons.

c) Hand out a *score of proverbs*, and the same amount of *pictures* for the ss to match.

d) Choose *20 proverbs*, [about one for each student].
e.g. 'The Pen is Mightier than the Sword.'
Cut and scramble their halves.

The Pen is Mightier |
| than the Sword.

Tell the ss - individually, in pairs or groups - to match them.

3. Using proverbs as *conversation «triggers»*.
Discuss the meaning of the proverb and say when you think you could use it.

Riches are for Spending
A Little Learning is a Dangerous Thing
God made the Country, and Man made the Town
East, West, Home's Best
Every Man is the Architect of his own Fortune
What is Everybody's Business is Nobody's Business
Fools Rush in where Angels Fear to Tread
Necessity Knows no Law
Our Country is the World: Our Countrymen, Mankind
Your Real Education Begins when you leave School
The Pen is Mightier than the Sword

4. *Pair-work Questionnaire*
Ask the ss questions like these:
- Do you know any proverbs used in English? If you do, say how often, When? Why?
 - Could you use proverbs in spoken or written English?
 - Do you know any Spanish proverbs that can be used in similar situations to these, in a Spanish-speaking context? Which?
5. Hand out sets of questions
e.g. 'The Pen is Mightier than the Sword.'
- Do you agree or disagree?
 - Can you think of any people who have made a conquest?
 - What happened to them and their conquests later on?
 - What examples can you think of people who have been strikingly influential, as a result of their speeches or written work?
 - What happened to these people and their influence in the end?
6. *Devise comparable questionnaires*
Hand out a set of proverbs and ask the ss to make up a questionnaire [as above] for each of the proverbs of the set.
7. *Expressing agreement or disagreement*
Tell the ss to express their agreement or disagreement on the implied message of a set of proverbs.
8. *Remember*
Ask the ss if they can recall any proverbs which are not in the table, list or set that you have given to them.
9. *Recognize*
Tell the ss to recognize proverbs in a conversation:

- how many can you identify?
- compare your answers with those of a partner and then discuss where and why the conversation occurred.

10. *Predict*

- Split some proverbs, jumble the parts and ask the ss -in pairs or groups- to match the ends.
- Find out how many of the students' predictions were correct.
- Did they recognize any proverbs?

[A]	[B]	
1. Clothes	i	sweetest
2. Forbidden fruit	ii	odious
3. Love	iii	man
4. Comparisons	iv	blind
5. Discretion	v	valour

ANSWERS

- 1/iii 'Clothes do not make the man.'
- 4/ii 'Comparisons are odious.'
- 2/i 'Forbidden fruit is sweetest.'
- 3/iv 'Love is blind.'
- 5/v 'Discretion is the better part of valour.'

11. *Complete*

Find the missing word of the proverb.

- e.g. ◦ All that is not gold.
- or
- All that glitters is not

12. *Similar*

Pair off comparable proverbs and tell your reasons.

- e.g.
- He who begins many things, finishes but few.
 - Don't have too many irons in the fire.
 - If you run after two hares you will catch neither.

13. *Contraries*

Pair them off and give reasons for your classification.

- e.g. ◦ Money makes the pot boil.
- The best things in life are free.

14. *Scrambled proverbs*

Match the pairs, which can be English /Spanish, English/French, English / Italian, English/Arabic, or any other language contrasted with English].

15. *Coin*

Hatch your own proverbs:

- referred to modern technology and aspects of modern life/society- mainly intended for humour.

e.g. To err is human...
...To really louse things up takes up a computer. [It's not mine!]

16. *Hand out*

◦ Distribute some pictures at random.
◦ Tell the ss to think of a suitable proverb, [saying or idiom] of their own to match the picture/s. This can be a good review follow-up activity after some practise with proverbs.

17. *Sort out*

Classify some proverbs into two categories, positive -those which show pleasure, joy, satisfaction- and negative -those which, on the contrary, show dissatisfaction, displeasure and discomfort.

18. *Writing*

Tell the ss to write a composition of about 150 or 200 words, or a long paragraph and to include at least one or two proverbs in the appropriate place.

19. *A Proverbs Game*

Divide the class in small groups, and hand out picture cards so that the ss in each small group think of an associated idea:

e.g. Suppose one student has two pictures: a rose and a patient in hospital. S/he might want to say:
'There are no roses without thorns.'
Perhaps they know the saying in Spanish, but they don't know it in English. That is when you can give them a hand.

To sum up...

The main methodological aspects applicable to the use of proverbs are the gap-filling principle, all kinds of matching activities and the interactive activities which again are thoroughly aimed at the communicative goals.

These exercises also lend themselves towards the students development of their imagination and want to communicate, essential in the EFL lesson.

Of course, these exercises also befit the practice of idioms and other similar activities which every teacher will no doubt find more appropriate to their specific needs.

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Self-learning : theory and practice.

by Tom Maguire
I.B. Vilafranca del Penedès.

I should like briefly, as an introduction, to point out the tradition into which self-learning fits. Self-learning is a development from Self-access learning which is on the belief that many learners can learn on their own. The advantages of self-access learning became apparent when experimentation¹ suggested to us that students working exclusively in a self-access environment obtained better results than students taught by teachers when both groups had a common test. This proved true for several groups in both grammar and creative writing activities. The lead gained by the self-access group was around the order of 14% in each test result. Despite these encouraging results a large proportion of students complained about a lack of knowledge about how to go about learning on their own : no-one had ever taught them to do so.

Ideas in teaching then turned to developing ways of helping learners learn on their own. These efforts come under the general term of Learner Training. This consists in devising different techniques which are then proposed to the students as models of learning methods. The great advantage of Learner Training proposals is that they turn the learning-focus from product to process. In short, teachers and learners begin to perceive the learning of a language not only in terms of end-product, a well-written essay, the understanding of radio news and so on, but also in terms of *how* the teacher and learner attain this goal. However the techniques proposed are usually those which appeared as most efficient to the teacher, the expert or the 'good learner' (as described by J. Rubin in her seminal article)². In Learner Training there's a decided philosophy of teacher/expert knows best. The actual techniques used by individual learners are not ignored but appear only in a second plan.

Self-learning then, carries on the positive aspects of the strategy investigation which Learner Training promotes, but emphasises that individual learning styles are diverse, and develops ways to help the student learn about his/her own learning. The basic belief in Self-learning is that all learners have their own unconscious strategies which the teacher can help transform into conscious techniques. Indeed teachers should be able to expose learners to many different learning techniques because these are discussed in class and learners listen to their classmates' techniques, as well as explaining their own.

In this article we will illustrate self-learning through memory and reading.

Memory

The aim of these exercises is to help learners become aware of the memoristic strategies used by the learners and the techniques best suited to each one.

a. *Write 12 words on the board from a recent reading or lesson done in class.*

- Ask the students to learn them in a certain time.
- Observe the strategies used by several students.
- Stop the exercise and talk about the strategies observed. (To occupy short term memory.)
- Get students to write out as many words as they can.
- Ask how many students wrote out 12 correct words then question them individually on how they did it. If they need prompting discuss how they processed the words, how they established relationships between them, whether they pictured them in their minds and so on.

Discussion of students' memorising strategies is to be encouraged at frequent intervals - research has shown that strategies are only used as techniques if self-investigation occurs over a period of time.³

Other memoristic techniques which may be of use to your students can be quoted to them :

b. Spatial Memory. This is using a well-known path like a trip round your house to collocate objects to be remembered.⁴

c. Visual Memory. If students rely a lot on their 'photographic memory' to retain information then they might test the limits of this memory.⁵

d. Auditive Memory. This consists in a series of sounds on a tape which are heard once. The student is asked to remember the sounds and write them down in the correct sequence after hearing them once.

After each of these tests a communal reflexion is conducted to find out how different students tackled the problem.

After several periodic tests and discussions the reflexion theme can be widened to include the question of whether any student applied a technique learned to memorising other items outside the classroom situation. This quality jump is called transfer and Nisbet⁶ contends it is the touchstone of real self-learning.

Reading

One of the major problems which can guide the teacher in helping students discover efficient reading strategies is the foreign language reader's instinct to process the written text word by word. This linear processing of texts has been called tunnel vision by Smith.⁷ It is probably adopted because of the reader's anxiety when confronted by a text in another language. Possible solutions to this problem are to help the reader dominate the text by giving him/her a wider perspective on the reading material and by encouraging self-confidence to replace fear.

- a. Write the title of the text to be read on the board.
 - Ask the students to brainstorm words which may appear in the text.
 - Ask one student to predict an outline of the text using the words on the board.
 - The students read the text in a given time to see how far their prediction fits the text.
 - Ask one student how far the prediction was correct/incorrect.
 - Ask him/her to say what the text was about.

Promote reflexion through general questions on how students read the text:

Did the prediction help/hinder your understanding of the reading?

Did you refer to any photos on the page to help you understand the text?

Did you refer back to the title during your reading?

Did you guess any words?

Did you feel the need to consult a dictionary?

- For which words?
- Can you guess their meaning now?
- Are they essential to understanding the text?

b. Following the hypothesis that if you have a framework for understanding text structure it can be more easily dominated, we suggest the following exercise:

Prepare four short passages : a narration, a description, a discussion and an informative text. (see ⁵ for examples).

Discuss the schema of each one : its structure, verb tenses, connectors and lexis.

It should become apparent that many texts can be fitted into one of these schema after a quick scan. Hereafter, each time the class reads a text, categorise it, through a brief discussion, into one of the above schema. Ask questions after the reading about whether this pre-categorisation helped students or not to read the text with more ease. These question can be added to those already mentioned in part a. above.

c. To encourage readers to speed up their reading process the following exercise was found useful if repeated two or three times during the year.

- Get the students to start copying out a text placing a stroke(/) after each chunk copied.
- After an interval all students stop copying and divide the number of words by the number of strokes. This calculation will give the average number of words read at each glance or fixation'. (see ⁷) The speeding up process can be made evident if short and long fixation passages are read out by the teacher from the students' work.

- One variation is to do the same exercise making sure everyone has read to the same place in the text. Students then answer multiple-choice questions on the text, from memory, to check comprehension. Speed and Comprehension can thus be compared : similar comprehension levels at higher speed levels can be pointed out as beneficial to those who read more words per fixation since they show equal understanding of the text in less time. This may encourage 'slower' readers to expand their fixations.

The 'gentle persuasion' approach is to be underlined since self-confidence can only be encouraged not taught.

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Racons d'anglès a la classe d'anglès. Jo sol també puc aprendre.

Ester Giannoni i Natàlia Maldonado

La majoria d'ensenyants d'anglès hem trobat al llarg de la nostra història com a tals un seguit de problemes que ens frenaven a l'hora d'avançar en la nostra metodologia. Un d'ells era el fet de treballar amb aules molt nombroses en les quals és difícil:

- Proposar activitats que siguin adients a una majoria.
- Copsar el nivell de cada membre del grup.
- Donar alternatives de treball pels diferents nivells.
- Crear un ambient participatiu i comunicatiu.
- Inhibicions per part dels alumnes pròpies de l'edat i que augmenten quan es tracta d'un gran grup.
- Problemes en el control de la situació per part del mestre.
- Dificultats per adaptar activitats comunicatives que no provoquin eternes repeticions amb la desmotivació que això comporta.

És a partir de l'experiència d'anys, de l'assistència a cursos i seminaris i del contacte amb altres professors que hem anat evolucionant en la nostra metodologia i creiem ha arribat el moment de fer nous plantejaments. A més la Reforma proposa avançar l'aprenentatge de l'anglès als vuit anys. Aixó provoca un replantejament forçós en quant a mètode, paper del mestre, materials i fins i tot consideracions psicolingüístiques.

Els nous corrents d'investigació en aquest camp ens demostren que l'aprenentatge i assimilació profunda d'una nova llengua de comunicació ha de reunir un seguit de condicions:

- L'aprenentatge ha de ser significatiu (partint dels coneixements prèvis dels alumnes).
- Cada individu ha de seguir el seu ritme d'aprenentatge.
- L'aprenentatge s'ha de basar en l'assimilació i no en la memorització.

Cal dir que el material que presentem no és original nostre sino una adequació als nostres objectius de materials ja existents. Creiem que aquest material ha de ser :

- motivador i atractiu tant en la forma com en el contingut.
- adequat als interessos i necessitats comunicatives dels alumnes.
- graduat: diferents nivells per treballar un mateix aspecte.
- autocorrectiu o amb un resultat final que estimuli en l'alumne les ganes de l'èxit.
- tant individual com en parelles o petits grups que promogui l'intercanvi i l'ajud entre ells.
- d'accés voluntari en funció d'una programació pre establerta.

Davant de les dificultats esmentades i recollint experiències similars que s'havien protat a terme en d'altres cursos i àrees (racons cicle inicial, cicle mitjà; self-access centres) vam pensar en la creació d'uns racons d'aprenentatge o més ben dit, d'autoaprenentatge com a possible alternativa dins d'una classe d'anglès a la segona etapa d'EGB.

Aquesta alternativa no vol ser un substitut per totes les hores de llengua anglesa però sí un recurs d'una hora setmanal i que creiem està d'acord amb les consideracions que fa la Reforma respecte a l'ensenyament de l'anglès.

Consideracions generals sobre l'ensenyament de l'anglès

Disseny Curricular (ensenyament primari i secundari)

Departament d'Ensenyament. Generalitat de Catalunya

-Cada un dels alumnes ha de poder participar en totes les activitats del curs i assolir un conjunt d'objectius comú, malgrat ho faci amb graus d'intensitat i de complexitat lingüística diferents.

-L'organització del síl.labus ha de tenir l'alumne com a centre i veritable protagonista, més que no pas el professor (learned-centred) i tendir a afavorir l'autonomia de l'alumne i fer-lo capaç de controlar el seu propi procés d'aprenentatge.

-l'alumne no és solament el veritable protagonista de l'activitat de la classe, sino també un element actiu en el procés organitzatiu i de presa de decisions.

-L'activitat de classe hauria de seguir un model d'independència creixent respecte del professor i portar l'alumne ha treballar més i més pel seu compte individualment i en grup.

-Les tasques fonamentals, pel que fa al mestre, seran crear les condicions adequades per a l'aprenentatge, estimular l'alumne i mantenir el seu interès.

-Les activitats de classe han de ser flexibles a fi d'adapter-se a maneres de treballar diferents i afavorir la participació creativa de l'alumne.

El muntatge d'aquests racons d'autoaprenentatge provoca un canvi en l'organització física de l'espai aula. Els racons han de quedar ben delimitats i el material ha de ser visible, amb un sistema de símbols que indiquin el tipus d'activitat i el grau de dificultat.

El material de treball en els racons d'aprenentatge s'ha d'introduir d'una forma esglaonada a fi i a efecte que els alumnes en la negociació de la feina. Després ja es pot treballar d'una manera autònoma. Per tal de facilitar l'organització del treball, els alumnes tindran una targeta individual on apuntaran l'ordre i les activitats fetes cada mes (cinc sessions).

Això també facilita l'autocontrol per part de l'alumne així com de l'avaluació per part del mestre.

Aquesta organització promou tant la responsabilitat de l'alumne com l'estimulació per a millorar el seu procés d'aprenentatge.

El mestre ha d'aprendre a situar-se dins l'aula ja que no és ell/a qui controla l'activitat de tots els alumnes si no que es converteix en un col.laborador d'aquells que ho sol.lliciten o es mou d'un racó a l'altre participant com a membre actiu de l'activitat que s'està fent (Learned-centred).

L'avaluació contempla tres fases:

-avaluació inicial: es fa conjuntament amb l'alumne. Ell ha de veure on és on ha de començar i on pot arribar.

-avaluació formativa: es fa mentres s'està realitzant l'activitat. El mestre observa, ajuda i pren nota tant dels resultats, el procés i l'actitud.

-avaluació sumativa: l'alumne pren part en aquesta activitat ja que els exercicis són autocorrectius. El mestre valorarà fonamentalment l'evolució.

Què pretenem en els racons d'aprenentatge

Let's play

Activitats lúdiques on s'ha d'utilitzar l'anglès com a llengua de comunicació. El joc exigeix una comprensió i correcte aplicació de les normes perquè funcioni. Aquest racó fomenta l'ajud, la col.laboració i l'esportivitat.

Speakers' corners

El treball en aquest racó és bàsicament de comprensió i expressió oral. L'estímul ve donat pel treball en parelles intercanviant informació per aconseguir un objectiu comú. Aquest racó necessita el control més directe del mestre per assegurar que la comunicació sigui en anglès.

Listen and do

Comprensió de "listenings" que requereixen una resposta de comprovació.

Reading corner

Aquest racó té dos tipus d'activitats:

Reading for pleasure: Preten estimular el plaer per la lectura en una llengua estrangera i fer adonar de la gran quantitat d'informació d'interès per a ells que poden adquirir revistes, llibres...

Reading activities: Comprovar el seu nivell de comprensió escrita.

Test your vocabulary

Activitats que recuperen o incrementen vocabulari específic i practiquin l'expressió escrita.

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Let's play:

revistes Click i Crown (MGP)
Jocs de mercat (Who is Who?)
Material visual de altres àrees

Speakers' corner:

Elementary communication games. Nelson
Bonanza. Longmann
Pair work. Student A Student B. Penguin

Listen and do:

Are you listening? OUP
Row to English. SM
Pop songs

Reading corner: Click/Crown

Start with English readers OUP
More Departures in reading OUP

Test your vocabulary:

Click/ Crown
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Some pronunciation teaching strategies

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Abstract: This talk attempts to show how pronunciation teaching can be made an interesting and entertaining classroom activity through the use of varied exercises based on the domains of both Phonetics and Phonology, disciplines which are now undergoing reconciliation after a long period of artificial separation from each other.

The main point I wish to make in my talk is that we need both Phonetic and Phonological information to teach the pronunciation of a foreign language efficiently and, in any case, the separation of the two disciplines is an unfortunate and artificial one which has only come about during the twentieth century. Before the onset of the twentieth century people studying speech did not classify themselves as either phoneticians or phonologists; such unnatural, watertight categories did not exist, and scholars of language were just scientists, interested in discovering facts. The rift started to appear with the arrival of structuralism, and Phonology developed as an independent science mainly through the Prague School. Trubetzkoy said that Phonetics is 'the study of sound pertaining to the act of speech', while Phonology is 'the study of sound pertaining to the system of language'. Since structural linguistics was supposed to be concerned with the system of language, it followed that Phonetics was not part of this; thus, Phonetics and Phonology drifted apart.

Phonetics, which is not part of linguistics, is divided into three branches: (i) articulatory phonetics, concerned with how the speech apparatus produces sounds; (ii) acoustic phonetics, dealing with the physical make-up of sounds; (iii) auditory phonetics, which provides explanations of how we perceive sounds. The science is useful in the teaching of foreign languages, in the acquisition of good diction, in speech therapy, in helping the deaf and deaf-mutes, and in sound transmission (telecommunications, speech synthesis, Automatic Speech Recognition).

The concerns of Phonology are: (i) the description of sound systems of individual languages; (ii) phonotactics, which tells us which sounds can combine, and in what positions in the syllable or word such combinations are possible, in a given language; (iii) language universals, which deals with the incidence of different sounds in the world's languages (e.g. Which sounds are the commonest? What proportion of languages have a /z/? Does the existence of one particular sound in a given language automatically imply the existence of another particular sound?).

In short, we could say that the main difference between Phonetics and Phonology is that Phonetics tells us how sounds are produced, while Phonology tells us about the linguistic use of sounds - which sounds a language uses, and especially which ones it uses distinctively (cf. *seat* and *sheet* in English), and how they are put together. The importance of Phonology can be seen if we compare [l] sounds in English and Russian. Both languages have an [l] which is like the Castilian one in the word *tal* and another [l] which is similar to the Catalan consonant at the end of the same word, *tal*. However, whereas Russian uses these sounds to distinguish words, English does not. Russian *dal* with a Castilian-type [l] is not the same as *dal* with a Catalan-type [l]: the first word means 'distance', and the second means 'he gave'. The [l] sounds in the English words *lift* and *hill* are also different in the same way (the one in *lift* is the Castilian type) but their use is conditioned by phonetic context. Moreover, as they are not used differentially in English, the ordinary English speaker is oblivious to any different physical properties in them.

It should be apparent from what has been said so far that, despite the different concerns of phonetics and phonology, there is considerable overlapping. It is not natural to study speech sounds in a vacuum with no reference to their linguistic function, and we cannot study the linguistic function of sounds without reference to their articulatory and/or acoustic properties - if only to be able to identify and label the sounds we are referring to. Phonology makes use of Phonetics, especially "taxonomic" Phonetics, through use of terms like voiced, dental obstruent, etc., so Phonetics is an indispensable foundation to Phonology. But Phonology is primarily concerned with the "higher" levels of organization. It deals with systems and patterns of sounds in languages, and there is an emphasis on the relationships between those sounds rather than their substance.

There is a growing feeling among many of those devoted to the teaching of pronunciation today that the phoneme is a red herring and that teaching of speech phenomena ought to be based on features rather than individual segments. Unfortunately, it is still not clear just how to go about this so, for the moment at least, it seems that the phoneme is all we have to fall back on. Before tackling the teaching of individual sounds in a language it is a good idea to give the student some information of a general nature about the sound system he is going to learn.

Such facts as the following might be of interest to the language learner:-

(1) Does the target language make any significant use of nasalization?

The vowel in the English word *man* will be nasalized because of the surrounding nasal consonants, but there is no contrastive nasalization in English as exists in French, Portuguese and Polish. In Portuguese, for example, the words *mudo* and *mun-do* (which have the same meaning as in Spanish) are different in that the second one has a nasalized vowel, while the first has an oral vowel. The difference in the equivalent Spanish words lies in the presence or absence of the consonant [n], which in Portuguese has disappeared in *mun-do* after nasalizing the preceding vowel.

(2) What rôle do the lips play in the production of sounds in the target language?

English is spoken with relatively little movement of lips and jaws, so foreign students may have to practise holding their lips spread. In French, on the other hand, the lips are rounded for about one third of the time a Frenchman is speaking, and the feature labialization often serves to distinguish words such as *pur*, 'pure', and *pire*, 'worse'.

(3) Is any significant use of length made in the target language?

Are there long vowels opposed to short ones, or long consonants opposed to short ones?

English has phonologically long and short vowels: the vowel in *sheep* is longer than the one in *ship*. English also has noticeably different degrees of length in the long vowels themselves, so that the vowel of *leave* is longer than that of *leaf*, although the vowels in this case are phonologically the same. Italian has distinctive consonant length, so that *valle* is distinct from *vale* (same meaning as in Spanish) through having a long consonant. Similarly, compare Italian *cade*, 'he falls', and *cadde*, 'he fell'.

(4) What happens to vowels in unstressed syllables?

English unstressed vowels are characterized by relaxation and centring, so that the vowel that we call schwa is often heard, as in *better*, *occur*, *Saturday*, *attempt*. On account of this common reduction of atonic vowels, the words *gorilla* and *guerrilla* are homophones. Furthermore, unstressed vowels can be lost, as in *pardon*, *garden*, *police*, *vegetable*, *comfortable*. Therefore, unstressed vowels may require different treatment in your teaching from stressed ones.

(5) Do the vowels all occur in any position?

The vowels in the English words *cat*, *bed*, *box*, *luck*, *good* are not found in open syllables in English - they are always followed by a consonant. Therefore, the final vowels of Spanish *tarde* and *como* will be pronounced with the diphthongs [ei] and [ou] by English speakers.

(6) Is there any difference in the "strength" of the vowels and consonants in the target language?

In English the consonants seem to be more stable than the vowels, which tend towards diphthongization and, in unstressed syllables, are inclined to reduce to schwa. In Spanish the opposite is true: the vowels are fairly stable, but the Spanish consonant system shows considerable lenition, with the intervocalic segments in words like *nada* and *cabo* tending to weaken or even disappear.

(7) How do final consonants behave in the target language?

In some languages, like German, Russian and Catalan, final [b, d, g] become [p, t, k] (cf. Catalan *sap*, *mut*, *llac* with Spanish *sabe*, *mudo*, *lago*). English tends towards this, but *bag* is not quite identical with *back*, nor *bad* with *bat*.

(8) Is aspiration an important feature in the target language?

In English, if [p, t, k] are not aspirated, these consonants will sound like [b, d, g] to the English ear. Surprisingly enough, aspiration is still treated in phonetics textbooks as if it were redundant in English. Spanish has no such aspiration with [p, t, k], so it is a feature that Spanish learners of English have to learn to turn on when required, while English learners of Spanish must try to eliminate it to acquire a good Spanish accent.

(9) In what ways are [l, r, j, w] different in the target language to these consonants in your own language?

These consonants are particularly interesting for Spanish learners of English and English learners of Spanish. Earlier a distinction was made between "clear" [l] and "dark" [ɫ]. Now, one very important fact about English pronunciation is that this so-called "dark" [ɫ] is now undergoing the same fate as post-vocalic [r] in Standard British English a couple of centuries ago, that is, it is becoming lost, so that the words *table* and *wild* generally sound more like [teɪbo] and [waɪɔd]. As regards [r] itself, note that Spanish does not have this English consonant at all, but has two rather different-sounding segments, as in *parra* and *para*.

The consonant [j] (yod) also has a different pronunciation in English and Spanish. To pronounce English words like *yes* and *yellow* correctly, it is best for Spanish people to start with a vowel in the region of [i]; otherwise, the words may come out as something like *jess and *jellow. Note also that English words like *player* and *Brian* have no yod in the middle, whereas Spanish forms like *haya* and *voy* have. Similarly, an English word like *power* or a sequence like *How* are should be pronounced without a [w] in the middle. As far as the pronunciation of English [w] is concerned, Spanish speakers must avoid adding a [g] and pronouncing what as [gwɔt]. Just as you should treat English *y* in *yes* and *yellow* as [i], you will find it helpful to treat the initial segments of words like *what* and *will* as [u].

Vowels and consonants have to be taught differently. There is no contact between the tongue and the other organs of speech in the articulation of vowels, as there is for consonants, so we cannot advise a learner as to where to put his tongue. However, we can refer to relevant features, such as length, jaw opening, labialization, nasalization.

(10) Command of suprasegmental features (stress, rhythm, intonation, and sometimes length) is particularly important for the foreign learner of a language since native speakers will be more tolerant with vowel and consonant errors than with stress and intonation errors, which may give rise to complete misinterpretation. If an Englishman says *No sé Nadar* instead of *No sé naDAR*, his utterance may be interpreted as *No sé*

nada. Similarly, if his intonation is wrong, he may either be misinterpreted or even cause offence.

Are there any generalizations we can make about English word stress? Note that English has a tendency to place the stress further forward than in Spanish: cf. geógraphy, hístory, univérsity, régular, súpermarket with Spanish geografía, história, universidad, regulár, supermerciódo.

Spaniards tend to stress stress-neutral suffixes like -ate and -ize because they contain a long vowel, so they often mispronounce forms like démonstrate, órganize, réalize, óperator, réalizing, cómplicated.

The general tendency to front stress in English also holds for units longer than the word. Note, for example the position of the sentence stress or nucleus in the following sentences:-

You reFUSE to admit your mistakes.

I DON'T refuse to admit them.

(12) Does the target language make any use of tone to distinguish words?

This is not a feature of English and Spanish, but there are languages like Chinese and Vietnamese in which there is lexical tone, so that words may be formally identical but differ in meaning depending on the tone that accompanies them. For example, the syllable ma in Mandarin Chinese means 'mother' if said on a high level tone, but 'horse' if said on a low fall-rise.

However we may teach the pronunciation of a foreign language, some abstract model is called for, as we never pronounce a word exactly the same way twice. It has already been pointed out that the phoneme may not be the ideal starting-point. For one thing, phonemes alone do not account for the perception of native speakers. The locus of a salient parameter may be different from that of a distinctive feature of a sound. For example, perception of voice in English consonants has been found to be dependent on length of the preceding vowel. Moreover, native speakers can often pronounce more sounds than they actually use in their own language system, and they can hear differences that linguists call redundant, as well as the distinctive ones.

One myth which I feel should be exploded is the idea that adult learners of a foreign language learn, or are capable of learning, like native children. However native children may learn their language (perhaps they acquire features rather than segments), it seems unreasonable to suppose that adults learn in the same way, particularly in view of the time factor involved: children develop language skills over a period of many years; adult language learning is more compact and takes advantage of greater experience.

Before offering a list of suggested exercises for use in pronunciation classes, it is worth saying a word about written and spoken language, as teachers often ask me if it is a good idea to delay contact with the written form in order to lay more emphasis on hearing. It seems to me that the spelling of a word can be both a help and a hindrance. In a language like English especially, some letters are silent. However, it is an advantage for the student to know where words begin and end. Moreover, it is good to learn sound-symbol correspondences from the start, otherwise learners construct some kind of mental spelling that has to be undone later. In view of the fact that our acquisition of a foreign language is hindered by our own native speech habits and different aural perception, the spelling of a word can often be a guide and disambiguate for us. Did we hear some kind of [b] or some kind of [g], for example? Note how often these consonants get swapped around in Spanish dialects (gurro for burro, etc.)

Then, there is the fact that sounds change in context: good boy can become something like [gub boi] so, if we know the spelling, it can anchor the word for us.

As a final comment, I would say that it is important to communicate to students that, in pronouncing a foreign language, one must be an actor. We must try and be uninhibited. British people can often put on a reasonable American or Cockney accent; many Spaniards can imitate an Englishman speaking Spanish, or give a reasonable impression of an Andalusian accent. So the reason we often do not pronounce a foreign language well is that we are afraid to make a fool of ourselves. We feel that we are not quite ourselves if we put on an act. But students should make use of the impressions they receive from foreign speech to give them an idea of what they should be aiming at. If an Englishman pronounces the Spanish word pan as [p^han], this means that the Spanish learner of English should attempt to produce this aspiration after the [p] in English words.

The following exercises are merely suggestions for classroom activities or homework, and can be modified as required:-

- 1) Which of the following nonsense words would you accept as a possible English form? (phonotactics): bintlement, tlat, feing, stronk, shroll.
- 2) Contrasts. Which word am I saying?: (1) cat (2) cut (3) cart.
- 3) Same or different? Nonsense syllables. Read out pairs like: /vi:t/, /vit/; /tud/, /to:d/; /zud/, /zu:d/, etc.
- 4) Which one is different? Read out series like: (1) pitch (2) peach (3) pitch.
- 5) Which one does not rhyme? Read out series like: there, were, care, fair.
- 6) Find different spellings for a certain sound, e.g. /i:/: e, ee, ea, ei, ie, i (complete, sweet, eat, receive, field, machine).
- 7) What sounds does a certain letter (combination) represent?
For example, e = /i:/ even, /i/ ticket; s = /s/ sit, /z/ bees.
- 8) Long and short pronunciations of vowel letters. How would the pronunciation change if you added an e to: man, set, bit, not, run?
How would the pronunciation change if you made the double consonants in these words single consonants: manner, better, litter, hotter, runner?
- 9) Rearranging phonemes to produce a word, e.g. /laebt/ = /baetl/, /tfinel/ = /elifnt/.

STRESS and INTONATION

- 10) Putting words in separate lists according to stress patterns.
- 11) De-stressing anaphoric elements: How many times have you ...? THREE times, FIVE times, etc.
Are you thirty-five? No, I'm TWENTY-five.
- 12) Answers with: Of COURSE they do(n't) (Do wasps sting?, etc.) to show fronted sentence stress.
- 13) Reading football results: Arsenal one, MANCHESTER one, etc., to show the different stress patterns when the result is a draw or otherwise.
- 14) Saying address and telephone number with correct stress (remember the word street is unstressed in English: OXford Street).
- 15) Saying common greetings and other everyday expressions without correct intonation: Hello, John; Yes, please; No, thank you; Sorry, etc.
- 16) Saying a sentence with different intonation patterns. Which is a request, query, command? etc. (e.g. Shut the door).
- 17) Interpreting a speaker's attitude. Play a tape-recording. Why did the speaker talk like that? Was he angry/fed up/indifferent?

Vary the tune of Did you?, etc., as a response to I got married last month, or some similar statement. What are the different implications? (Interest, fascination, surprise, indifference? etc.)

18) Falling tune in WH- questions: Where are you from? etc.

19) Correcting someone: You've got two sisters, haven't you? THREE (use of the fall-rise tune).

20) Afterthoughts - said on a rising tune: It won't rain, I hope; He's not here, I'm afraid; That's enough, for the moment.

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Introducing Learner autonomy. Learner and teacher development: a parallel process.

by M^a Isabel Serrano Sampedro.
I.B. Avempace, Zaragoza.

0. Introduction.

The aim of this talk is to share some reflections on how teachers may find the process of helping students develop as learners, a very useful tool for their own development as teachers. However, teacher and learner development can be seen as a parallel process only in the sense that both take place simultaneously, but it is in fact an extremely interactive process.

We shall start by examining the concept of autonomy and what it entails; then we shall proceed to discuss how teachers may develop their knowledge and abilities concerning the teaching-learning process, on the basis of the speaker's experience and that of a group of teachers in Zaragoza.

1. What is autonomy?

Autonomy has to do with learners being willing, and able to take informed decisions on how to organise their learning. Let's start by examining who decides what in our classrooms:

1. Who decides what is to be done?
2. Who decides why that is to be done? (purpose)
3. Who decides who is going to do it and who with?
4. Who decides what materials or information sources (books, recordings, magazines, people, ...) are going to be used?
5. Who decides when that activity is going to be done?
6. Who decides how it is to be done (what procedures, what steps are going to be followed)?
7. Who decides where it is to be done (in class, at home, in a different classroom, in the library, video room,...)
8. Who decides what is going to be the final product of the activity (eg a questionnaire, a written report, an oral presentation, a poster,...)
9. Who decides how is the learner's work and progress going to be assessed (what s/he is going to be required to do, how that is going to be assessed,...) and who is going to do it?
10. Who decides to what extent what has been done in the classroom has been useful, appropriate, has helped pupils to learn, etc.?

All these decisions are usually taken by the teacher, the textbook, the institution, ... with little or no participation of the learner. In an autonomous learning context all those aspects are negotiated and decisions are jointly taken by teacher and learners.

What is autonomy, then? Here are three approximations to what it may or may not be:

1) Autonomy means the ability to learn

- the central aim is autonomy
- each individual is brought to know how to organise his own experience

- the learner learns to learn openly, explicitly and cognitively.

(Leni Dam, Gerd Gabrielsen, Henri Holec, 1988, cit. in Dam, L., 1989, "Autonomy in Practice")

2)

- a. Autonomy is NOT a synonym for self-instruction; in other words, autonomy is not limited to learning without a teacher.
- b. In the classroom context, autonomy does NOT entail an abdication of responsibility on the part of the teacher; it is NOT a matter of letting the learners get on with things as they best can.
- c. On the other hand, autonomy is NOT something that teachers do to learners; that is, it is NOT another teaching method.
- d. Autonomy is NOT a single, easily described behaviour.
- e. Autonomy is NOT a steady state achieved by learners.

(David Little, CILT, 1990, cit. in Dam, L., 1990, "Developing Learner Autonomy in a school Context.")

3)

To say that a learner is autonomous is to say that he is capable of taking charge of his own learning.

To take charge of one's learning is to have the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all the aspects of learning, i.e.:

- determining the objectives;
- defining the contents and progressions;
- selecting methods and techniques to be used; (choosing materials, methods and tasks)
- monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly speaking: rhythm, time, place, etc. (exercising choice and purpose in organising and carrying out the chosen tasks);
- evaluating what has been acquired (choosing criteria for evaluation and using them in evaluation)

(Adapted from Henri Holec, 1981 & 1983: *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning*. Pergamon)

But gradually involving the learners in the process of taking decisions that have traditionally been the realm of teachers is not a simple task, and it is a rather long process.

Learners have to learn how to take those decisions, and also they have to see the benefits derived from taking up responsibility for their own learning. At the same time, teachers have to learn to release responsibilities and to support the learners in their learning process, keeping a difficult balance between giving enough support and leaving enough room for the learners to take decisions.

Learners develop through their involvement in the decision-making process concerning the planning, implementation and evaluation of classroom activity, but how do teachers develop?

2. The teacher's learning process.

In the lockstep situation, uniformed teaching tends to mask most of the processes that take place in the classroom, teaching is equated with learning, and the process of how learners reinterpret what is presented to them, in order to make it theirs, is concealed.

In a classroom situation aimed at the development of learner autonomy, many aspects of the learning process are unveiled. The time usually spent in keeping the learners' attention and solving discipline problems can be used to support learners in their learning process, but what is more important, by observing and analysing with the learners their preconceptions, reactions, ideas, difficulties, abilities, strategies, etc. both teacher and learners may increase their awareness of (1) what is involved in learning, (2) individual learning

processes, (3) alternative ways of enhancing learning, of which the teacher is not always the source. As a result, teachers develop through learning how to help their learners learn better.

3. An experience.

My experience may well illustrate that process. The results of early attempts to pass on to the learners some of the responsibilities usually assumed by the teacher seemed to indicate that learners are usually able to do more than teachers would expect. These first steps consisted of attempting to involve learners in course evaluation sessions, test marking and correction, learner-designed tests, setting objectives, redesigning activities, etc., and led to the conclusion that teachers should not do for learners what they can do for themselves, for both educational and teacher-survival reasons.

Later to a more ambitious objective was attempted: to involve learners in the planning and evaluation of classroom activity, through the design of projects where everything was negotiable, except the aim of the course: to learn English in the best possible way.

In the lockstep situation, teachers find themselves in the position of having to provide all the answers without really knowing what the questions are, i.e. they are supposed to take all the decisions on what is best for their learners often without having an idea of what they may want or need, and, as a result, they feel forced to plan instruction aiming at the "average" learner.

Sharing responsibility for the learning process with the learners proved to be not only a very effective way of catering for learner variety, but also an invaluable research tool. These are some of the aspects that were brought to light through the experience:

- 1) The varying concepts learners may have of what a language/English/learning a language may be.
- 2) The many different ways in which a task/problem can be interpreted and approached by different learners as a result of factors such as their attitude and motivation, expectations, interests, previous knowledge of the language, learning style, preferred modes of working, background knowledge, etc.
- 3) That, as a result, learners obtain different intake and produce different outcomes.
- 4) 14-18 year old learners are perfectly able to set their own goals, choose content, working procedures, evaluate procedures and outcomes, etc., provided that they can see the need for it (feel it as useful) and that they get the necessary support (in terms of information sources, alternatives, etc.) at each stage.
- 5) Project work/the planning of classroom activity offers a framework for real problem-solving (finding out/doing something that they are interested in). From both, a variety of tasks arise (communicative and metacommunicative), some foreseen and planned for, others crop up as the project/plan develops.
- 6) Learning by seeking, sharing information with others, and doing, increases the learner's motivation and involvement. It favours the development of abilities and strategies not only related to language learning but to learning in general, and it provides an opportunity for transferring knowledge and abilities developed in other areas of knowledge.
- 7) In the process of planning and carrying out a task which is not language-focussed learners can develop their communicative competence in the foreign language.
- 8) This way of working can produce a much more relaxed atmosphere since it allows learners to work at their own pace and in their own preferred ways, limitations coming mainly from self-imposed goals.
- 9) Such a situation can leave more space for clarifying meaning, testing hypotheses and obtaining meaningful feedback than the usual classroom setting. As a consequence, the learners' general proficiency in the language may increase and, as this happens, their concept of language learning tends to change, and they

tend to express their progress more in terms of how much/how well they can communicate in speaking or writing, than in terms of command of grammatical features and lexis.

10) By allowing learners to gradually take responsibility for their own learning, they (and their teacher) can become more aware of themselves and their abilities, of ways in which these can be improved, and of the factors involved in the learning process, which can result, among other things, in the lowering of the level of anxiety produced by the unknown (e.g. being judged in relation to what appears as arbitrary criteria) and the dependence on other people's decisions (the teacher's).

11) In being able to work on self-chosen topics and to apply their knowledge and abilities to finding out about them, they can get a sense of intellectual achievement that in many cases seems to counteract the frustration that derives from the gap between their intellectual capacity and being forced to use a necessarily restricted code.

Most, if not all, of this has now already been around for some time, both in theoretical papers and in reports on classroom experiences. However, my point is that it was through an approach aimed at helping learners' develop their potential to organise and control their own learning that those issues were confirmed, or unveiled to me at the time, and that they played an important role in my understanding of classroom learning processes and, as a consequence, in my own development as a facilitator of those processes.

For the last two years I have been involved with a group of five secondary school teachers interested in introducing learner autonomy in their classrooms. The aim of the group was twofold:

- to find ways of helping our students become better learners, and in so doing,
- To develop both personally and professionally through the interaction with our pupils and the other group members.

The approach we have followed was developed along the lines of Breen & Candlin's process syllabus, and of Leni Dam's experience in developing learner autonomy in Denmark.

The group constitutes a forum where interests, ideas, worries, opinions, findings, information, materials, etc. are shared, and it is a valuable source of moral support and feedback.

What follows are some of the questions the teachers asked themselves during the first year, and some notes of how we attempted to answer them:

1. What activities should I introduce?

- Focussed on interpreting and expressing meaning.
- Offering alternative procedures, outcomes,...
- Involving learners in their modification, expansion, ..
- Involving reflection on their purpose.

2. How can I provide all the materials/activities needed?

- Learner contributions.
- Learner-designed tasks.
- Learner-designed follow up.
- Small number of materials, a variety of tasks.

3. How can I cope with learner variety?

- Through more personalised interaction with learners.
- Open ended activities.
- Giving learners choice at different levels: what, how, ...
- Encouraging learner contributions.

4. How do I sequence activities?
 - Learner interests.
 - Current events
 - Learner immediate/long term needs (individual, group, external)
5. How do I deal with grammar?
 - When needed.
 - Through inference: problem-solving approach.
 - As a means to express something
6. How do I deal with errors?
 - As part of the process of learning
 - As something necessary: opportunity for feedback/learning.
 - Feedback from a variety of sources
 - Problem-solving approach
 - Correction as clarification, need for precision..
7. How do I help them develop their listening skills?
 - Through classroom interaction.
 - Individual/group listening when the need is felt.
 - Listening for purposes similar to those in mother tongue listening.
8. How do I assess progress?
 - Reflection on the purposes of assessment.
 - Descriptive assessment aimed at helping learners plan their learning.
 - The teacher is better informed, more evidence of learner performance.
 - Use of work-diaries.
9. How do I test?
 - Is it necessary?
 - If necessary, open tests, similar to classroom activity.
10. How do I evaluate what is being done?
 - Feedback on learning in all directions.
 - Evaluation activities as learning activities.

And a few frequent, recurring questions:

11. Am I going too fast/slow in introducing self-direction?
 - Feedback obtained from the classroom.
 - Progress slowly from limited options to wider choice.
12. Am I doing the right thing?
 - Importance of not being alone: seek the help of the learners, other teachers.
13. Is this what it is meant to be?
 - As many answers as groups of teacher and learners.
 - Only they know what is appropriate/possible in that context.
 - Importance of critical/supporting group.
 - Rushing is not possible, long, complex process,takes time.
 - The teacher is also learning, equally long and complex process.
14. Are they learning anything?
 - No immediate answer possible.
 - Were they learning anything?
 - What were they learning: formulae, to communicate, how to learn,...?

All the teachers in the group seem to have gone through realization processes similar to mine. They coincide in saying that they are now aware of things concerning the learning process that years of teacher-directed classroom activity had not shown to them, including their own learning process, through interaction with their students.

Approaching classroom activity from a different perspective forced them to revise all their previous conceptions: they found themselves formulating the same questions they asked when they began to teach. Trying to answer them from a different angle has proved a healthy and very enriching experience for all of us.

▶ APAC's new address.

We have just rented a small office in the centre of Barcelona. It is a modest starting point, aimed at providing better administrative support to APAC activities and at slowly improving contact with all APAC members. We hope it will be operational from mid-February. From now on, please, send your letters there.

We cannot afford permanent telephone service yet. Our resources are limited. So, please call only when there is a really urgent matter to communicate and on the days quoted below. Otherwise, a letter is still likely to be more effective.

Send your mail to:

▶ APAC
Gran Via de les Corts Catalanes 606, 4rt, 2^a, E
08007 - Barcelona



Tel. (93) 3170137

Tuesdays and Fridays from 16 to 17 h.

An Interactive Approach to the Teaching of English Language

By Professor Magister Renate Gangl
Pädagogische Akademie Graz -Eggenberg

INTRODUCTION • What is the purpose of my talk?

Firstly, I would like to share my experiences in ELT with other people who are themselves teachers and who know that learning is a process which continues for as long as learning opportunities are available.

Secondly, I would like to discuss some important issues of research into first and second languages and their implications for foreign language teaching.

Finally I would like to present a model for language teaching, the focus of which is on activities which young learners enjoy taking part in. Getting the tasks done in the classroom will be a collaborative operation which ensures that language development can take place. As an illustration of this, I will show a video film which was made in a primary school in Austria with pupils who had had approximately fifteen English lessons over a period of four months. The video is intended to demonstrate the pupils' language proficiency as well as the discourse strategies which they had acquired and which they then apply successfully in communication with a native speaker.

I • Teaching Methods Past and Present

When foreign language teaching was first introduced into the primary curriculum in Austria in 1983, teaching focussed on the formal aspects of language - pupils practised speech functions in dialogue patterns embedded in everyday situations. Whilst songs, rhymes and games served to greatly reinforce vocabulary, these were the icing on the cake and a great deal of classroom time was devoted to drilling conversational patterns such as:

Have you got a pet?

Yes. A cat.

What's its name?

Schnurli.

Language learning as such was rote learning which was then of no practical use to the learners. In other words, language was not a means to an end, but an end in itself.

The foreign language was taught by qualified secondary teachers with no experience of or training in primary teaching for fifty minutes (one lesson) per week.

In order that language learning could take place in a relaxed and playful atmosphere, no explicit marking was undertaken, each pupil's performance being individually assessed on the basis of his or her participation.

The quality and nature of this teaching is determined by a series of **critical factors**:

Time. The length of time available for actual learning is crucial to the successful acquisition of any language - a minimum is difficult to define, but in relation to an immersion programme, fifty minutes per week is negligible.

Staffing. Alongside a proficiency in the target language, successful teaching requires the ability to fulfil the personal and social needs of children of primary age.

Language material. It is important that the activities should use genuine interactive structures and not, as has often been the case, simply take the form of various disguises for the same grammar drills.

Assessment. What evaluation there was, was focused on the production of answers which were grammatically correct.

The initially high level of motivation was found to dwindle in the majority of pupils, particularly those less able in the subject. This was caused principally by the realisation that they could actually *do* little or nothing with what they had learned, and that learning a language was just as hard and effort-consuming as learning anything else. This was an experience which I shared. The purposeless learning of model dialogues for all situations demands immense amounts of time, and above all great methodical energy and inventiveness on the part of the teacher, in order that lessons do not become soporific.

In my search for a new context for the goals of communicative language teaching for beginners, I turned to the body of scientific research on the acquisition of first and second languages, also drawing on personal experience.

II Linguistic Background

There follows a brief summary of some of the key points in the linguistic theory of second language acquisition. A comprehensive exposition is outside the scope of this presentation.

Despite the fact that children from eight to ten years of age develop the cognitive characteristics of the concrete operations stage, a systematic approach, although possible, should be avoided. Language development will only take place when the language the pupils hear is meaningful to them - meaningful in as far as the language is context embedded. Context embedded language facilitates comprehension, as the child is able to draw on extra-linguistic information, such as their own knowledge and experience, in order to interpret what has been said. For this reason the foreign language must be used in such a way that the message is understood by the child at all times, even though every word of the message may not be familiar. This is accomplished through the use of gestures, examples, illustrations, etc.

Krashen's Input Hypothesis suggests that the most important factor in the amount of language acquisition is the amount of comprehensible input to which the learner is exposed. Such a view places heavy emphasis on learning through listening - through making sense of what is heard. However there is also learning through speaking - through using the linguistic resources to encode an intended meaning and, in the process, becoming clearer both about the meaning itself and the lexico-grammatical system through which it is realised. Thus conversation itself is the context for the child's developing mastery of the meaning. Extremely important for this development is the formulation of the child's utterances by his adult interlocutors.

Through this practice, the adult is able to remodel the child's meanings in terms of the adult systems of lexis and syntax. This is a very strong claim emphasising the role of the linguistic environment shaped jointly by teacher and learner as the key to foreign language learning. This suggests that an interactive approach to foreign language classroom teaching with the emphasis on the communication of meaning, rather than a formal approach with the emphasis on grammar, is the most effective way of facilitating foreign language learning.

III What is an Interactive Activity ?

The dictionary definition of an *activity* is something that is done or being done especially for pleasure and fun. (Longman)

Frank Smith, in his book *Joining the Literacy Club*, defines an (interactive) activity in this sense as an enterprise which is considerably different from a school activity. He lays down four criteria which an activity must fulfil in order to deserve that name. According to Smith, activities are

- group undertakings whose purpose is self-evident ; they are authentic activities in their own right. -
- enterprises in which nobody gets *marked* for engaging in any aspect. Enterprises are evaluated according to their appropriateness, fitness for function and conformity with bench-marks established by experienced practitioners.
- enterprises in which no one is forced to take part, and from which no one is excluded because of their lesser talent or experience. The role of the teacher is thus to ensure that the spectrum of enterprises available is wide enough, and the enterprises themselves interesting and open enough, that at least one enterprise appeals to each child.
- enterprises in which the distinction between teachers and learners must be erased. There will always be some participants in any enterprise who are more experienced than others, and they may even be managerial and supervisory functions, but these roles must be filled by the teacher not because the teacher is a teacher, but by the teacher as the most experienced person present .

A teaching programme based on such enterprises allows individual pupils to learn at their own paces without the feeling of being *behind the rest*. In fact on the contrary - if the enterprises are carefully selected, every learner type is catered for, and every pupil is allowed the pleasure of using their own creativity to solve a problem with which they are equipped to deal without resorting to a pre-ordained artificial model.

In an activity centred approach, activities provide the opportunity for talking (ie. communication) in the classroom. For example:

- Listening to and discussing a story.
- Watching and discussing a film.
- Singing a song.
- Dramatising and acting out a story.
- Throwing a party.
- Drawing pictures (illustrating a story, for example).
- Compiling (for example) a book or newspaper.

There are undoubtedly many other activities in which young learners will happily engage. With the age and interests of their pupils in mind, every teacher must thus make their own choice. However in setting the task it is important that he or she decides what will constitute a successfully executed task. Depending on the pupils proficiency, the task may be more or less context-embedded to aid comprehension.

An activity consists of a task set by a teacher for a pupil. The teacher is required to tailor the message according to what can be accomplished by the pupil, while for his part the pupil is required to attempt to accomplish the task (decode the message) to the best of his abilities.

The setting of the task requires that the teacher communicates to the pupil what he wishes to happen, and it is here that the interaction is important. In order to assist the pupil, the teacher must employ more than words alone - the words must be supplemented with gestures, emphasised intonation, etc. and repeated in modified forms according to the feedback from the pupil until the message is successfully received by the pupil. It is the quantity of this extra-verbal communication which can then be reduced according to the pupil s abilities - the ultimate being when only those supplements are given which are present in native

speaker speech. This pattern can also be observed in adult-child speech (Learning Through Interaction Gordon Wells, CUP, 1981).

Through this process, the child (a) hears an adult formulate the language correctly, (b) is able to test out his own formulations on an adult and observe their effects, and (c) then modify his own formulations according to the adult's reactions.

In research conducted by me over the whole school-year 1990-91 in Graz, Austria, this theory was successfully proved. Two teachers with parallel classes of eight- and nine-year-olds followed the same syllabus for one year, varying only the nature of the input given to the classes. Teacher A's supportive and interactive teaching style focused on the child's participation in activities in a linguistic environment attuned to the child's individual communicative needs. Teacher B employed a more tutorial style, controlling each child's utterances by furnishing the class with prefabricated dialogues.

In tests of language proficiency (ie. vocabulary, speech functions and listening comprehension) at the end of the year, the listening attainment of class A was, as expected, significantly higher than that of class B. However, both classes scored approximately the same in the fields of speech function and vocabulary. The remarkable difference was to be seen in the readiness to communicate orally. Here, in contact with a native speaker for the first time and with the same input of material, class B demonstrated genuine discourse strategies as are to be seen in native speakers of the same linguistic ability level, while class A was very soon left behind in the communicative process. Thus while class B was able to go ahead in communication, class A became trapped in a downward spiral of incomprehension.

Thus, to return to the critical factors presented above:

Time. Although falling short of total immersion in the Canadian style, an activity-based teaching style represents a distillation of the best elements of total immersion in a form which can be applied in European schools (under the restrictions of, for example, a national curriculum).

Staffing. Currently, the majority of European teachers are not equipped with enough of the necessary kind of English to undertake efficient activity-based teaching (unlike those in Canada, for example). However to achieve this would require a total reorganisation of the teacher training systems, which is unlikely until the theory has been tested further.

Language material. The success of language learning is obviously hampered by the confinement of English to the school, and its absence from the everyday outside world. This is not the case in any country where English is the (or one of the) official language(s). Compared to total immersion programmes, activity based material has the advantage of being dedicated to language teaching, and not subject to the constraints of, for example, *English for Mathematics* where a pupil who dislikes mathematics, will probably not like mathematical English.

Assessment. Although total immersion programmes do not grade the ability in the immersion language, the expressive ability is constantly examined via examinations on subject material *in* English. An activity-based programme avoids this by maintaining the activity of a subject (the activity), but removing the academic pressure on the pupil to succeed, and obviates the problem for teachers of attempting to quantify or measure abilities which are in their earliest stages of development with conventional criteria.

This then demonstrates in practice the truth of Vygotsky's dictum that what the child can do to today in co-operation (interaction), tomorrow he will be able to do on his own!

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Key to Attached Diagrams

- Figure I: This represents the traditional methods of language teaching in terms of the components of any single activity.
- Figure II: This illustrates the multi-faceted and overlapping nature of the tasks used in the interactive teaching of the same topic. All activities are related to the core topic, many making use of the same skills in different ways and at different times.
- Figure III: This illustrates the linguistic breakdown of an interactive teaching activity. Note the stress on the purpose of the activity which gives the *interaction* a contextual meaning.
- Figure IV: This applies the scheme of figure four to a real text -John Carle's picture book for children 'What's for Lunch?'. This analysis makes obvious the didactic uses to which the text may be put.

Figure I

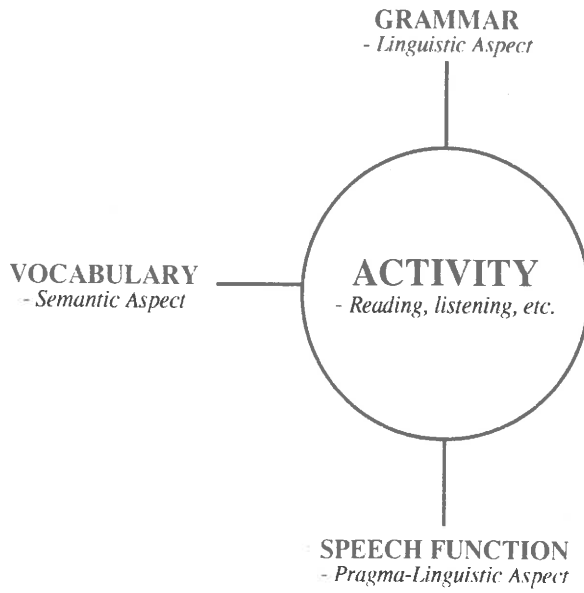


Figure II

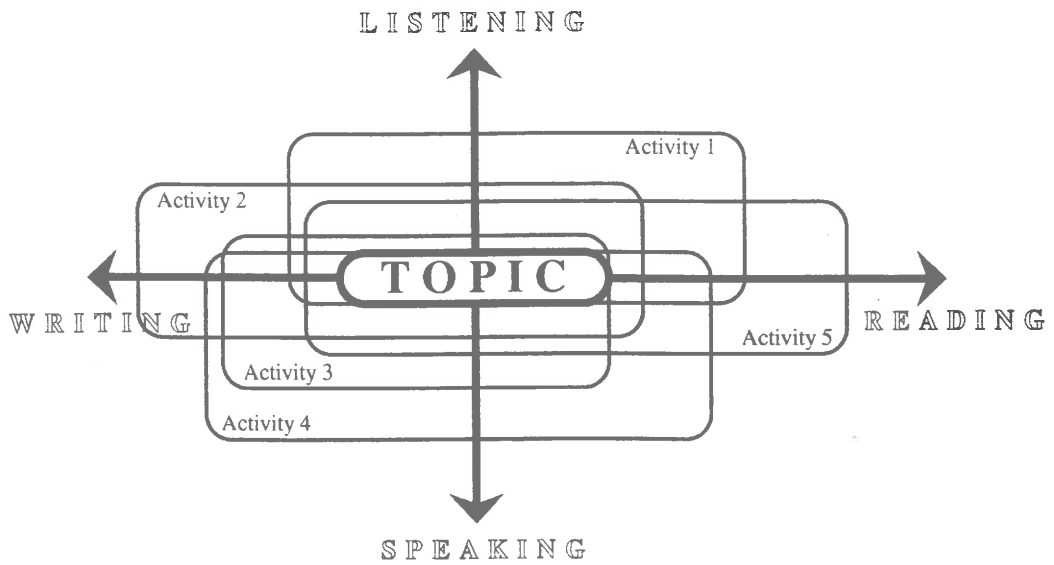


Figure III

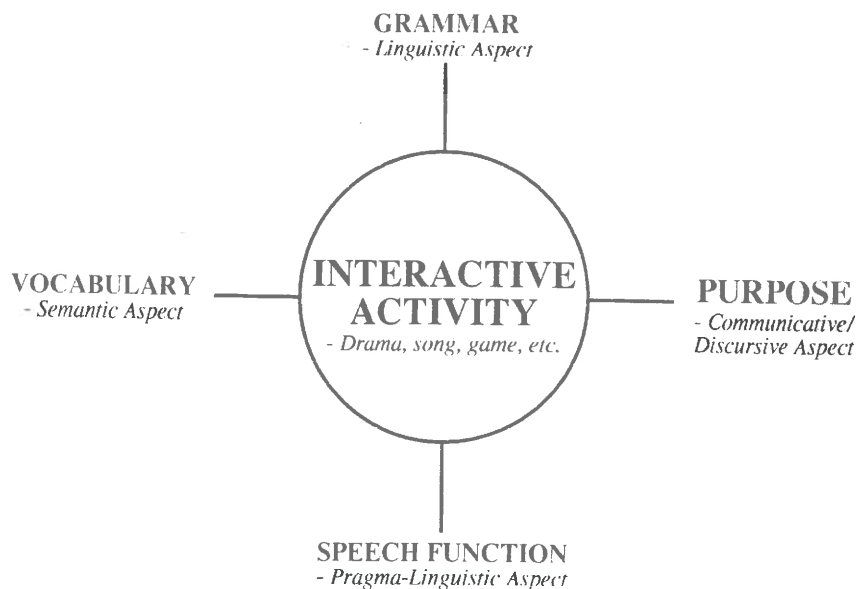
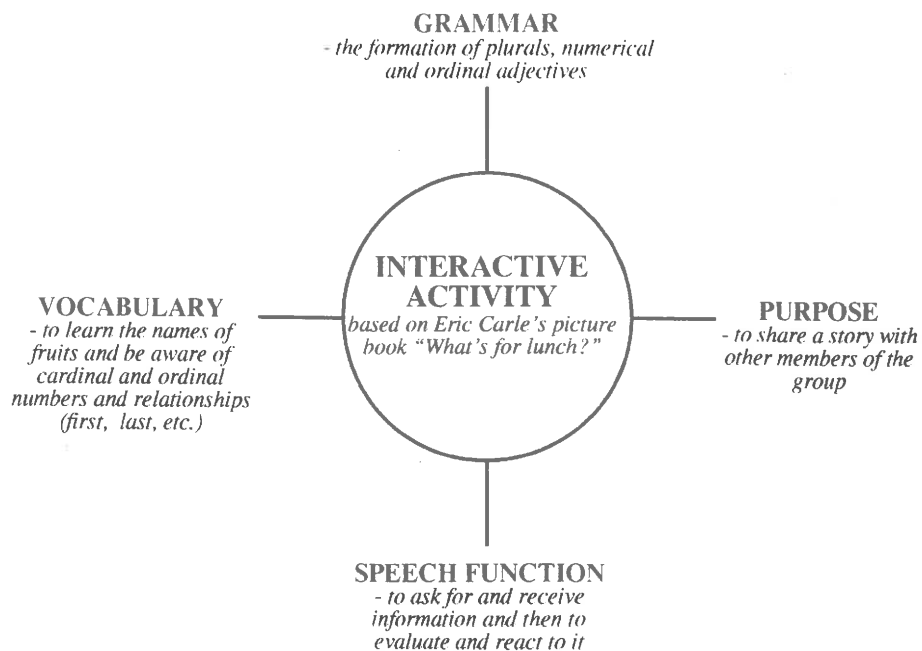


Figure IV



Enjoying English with young learners. Practical implications.

By Maria José Lobo
Barcelona 92.

Introduction

One of the main aspects to bear in mind when teaching English (or any other subject) is the need to motivate the learners. If the teaching is addressed to young learners, motivation should be even more emphasized. We must not forget that teaching English to the young is only the very first step in a broader process that hopefully will develop completely in the following years. Experienced teachers know that a group of unmotivated learners will make teaching a very difficult task. Therefore the teacher must be particularly careful at this very early stage and try to foster motivation by all means so that children develop a positive attitude towards English which is very necessary in the future stages.

What does the teacher of young learners find in his/her class?

Young learners who are beginners look forward to starting learning English. Children, by nature, are extremely curious and motivated towards anything that is new for them. Thus, in a way, the English teacher of young learners should be regarded as a **lucky teacher**, simply because he/she finds in his/her class something that not all teachers find in their classes: a **motivated group of learners**. But because he/she finds this situation in class, the role of this teacher is very challenging: maintaining and fostering the children's motivation so that in the future stages the children are still "willing" to learn English.

Besides, the teacher will find that young learners:

- are less inhibited than adults
- pick up new sounds easily
- love playing and doing things
- do not analyse the language; they understand and use meaningful chunks of language, not just isolated words
- are physically active
- have a short term memory.
- have a short concentration span
- are mainly interested with themselves

How to succeed in a class of young learners?

If we take into account what has been said before, the challenge that the English teacher of young learners faces can only be overcome successfully if the teacher uses the adequate approach, tools and activities that meet the children's expectations and interests. If we assume that at this very early stage of the language acquisition process the main aim is to foster motivation while exposing the children to the maximum of comprehensible input and creating situations in the class in which the children "want" to say things in English, the teacher needs to include in his/her daily lesson plan activities such as:

-**physical activities**, ideal to experience useful new language in a joyful context. For example classroom English (*open the door*, . . .), parts of the body (*touch your ears*, . . .), etc.

-**songs, chants and rhymes.** They provide a wonderful frame to practice sounds and intonation patterns. Children love memorizing them. Actions accompanying the rhythm (clapping hands, etc.) are usually an excellent complement to these activities.

-**games** are a good opportunity to introduce or practise the language. They can be real communicative activities within the class frame.

-**arts and crafts.** Children love colouring, using scissors, gluing and folding paper. Introducing the vocabulary and the instructions for these activities and describing what has been done is an enjoyable way of using English.

-**magic,** a way to expose the children to comprehensible input or to revise language through unusual activities.

-**drama and simulation,** another lovely way of experiencing the language.

-**puzzles, problem solving activities and surveys, etc.**

and use:

-**mime and gesture** to make input comprehensible.

-**puppets.** They can be used in many ways. For example the puppet can act as a monolingual English speaker: it only speaks English in the class. Thus the teacher and the children must speak in English to the puppet.

-**visuals.** Together with mime and gesture, visuals constitute the main tools for the teacher.

-**rods.** They are a nice support for storytelling among other activities.

-**cassettes, videos and any other teaching aid** that can contribute to the aim of fostering motivation.

Ideally none of the activities mentioned should be used in isolation, but always linked to a group of activities, all of them related to a topic and each of them having a purpose. They will complement each other and fulfil all the requirements for an appropriate setting for that very first crucial contact of the children with the new language. Probably one of the best ways to link activities around a topic is **storytelling**, in which the story presented can act as the basis for the rest of the activities.

If the teacher uses such activities and aids, English will be introduced and experienced, practised and memorized in a **relaxed, enjoyable, motivating atmosphere.**

It is important though not to exhaust any of the activities or aids. There must always be a combination of them so that the children do not get tired of any activity in particular. It is preferable to have the children asking to play a game again than having them say *Oh, not again!*

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Effective vocabulary learning.
(Theory and practice)

By Stephen Hampshire
EIM. Universitat de Barcelona.

1. The practice.

The " Crossword Game " is an enjoyable communication activity for your class. Simply photocopy crosswords A and B for your students to do this pairwork activity.

Lesson plan.

Please look at Crossword A, clue 14 across which says " FACTORY ". Student 1 defines this clue for student 2.

Student 1 : " It's a place where you work "

2 : " an office ? "

1 : " No "

2 : " a factory ? "

1 : " Yes! "

Both students endeavour to fill in the spaces in the crossword with clues invented by their partner.

Write these sentences on the blackboard to help your students give each other clues to the words.

It's a PLACE where you buy books. (a bookshop)

It's a PERSON who takes photographs (a photographer)

It's a THING you use to take photographs (a camera)

It's something you DO when you are hungry (to eat)

This word begins with the letter " C " (car)

This expression has two words (have breakfast)

Ask students to identify the word number and direction.

Student 1: " Word number 14 "

2: " Across or down ? "

1: " Sorry. 14 across "

2: " O.K. "

1: " It's a place where you buy petrol "

2: " a petrol station? "

1: " Yes "

The Crossword Game will last at least half an hour. Moreover you can use it with virtually all your classes, whatever their level or age.

Level: False beginners, intermediate, upper-intermediate.

Crossword task: Students collaborate in order to be the first pair in the class to finish their respective crosswords.

Using the Crossword Game as tool to teach students how to learn vocabulary effectively.

Before attempting the Crossword Game, ask students to think of a variety of different ways with which they could explain words to each other. Below, there are seven ways of explaining vocabulary.

Word a: blue

1. Definition: It's a colour
2. Description: It's the colour of the sky.

Word b: interesting

3. Opposite word: It's the opposite of " boring".
4. Similar word: It's similar to " fun "

Word c: car

5. Example: An " Ibiza " is an example of this word.

Word d: calculator

6. Picture: Student 1 draws a picture of a calculator for student 2.
7. Mime: Student 1 mimes pressing an imaginary set of buttons on a calculator.

Now students play the Crossword Game. However each student ought to define at least one word with a mime

(to type), a picture (a hat), an opposite word (young/old) etc for his/her partner. After playing the Crossword Game, tell your class that they will learn vocabulary more effectively if they use one of these seven techniques to illustrate the meaning of a word instead of writing a translation next to the word in Spanish or Catalan.

2. The theory.

Stuart Redman rightly judges, in my view, that "Students ... are more likely to commit new items (words) to long term memory if they are engaged in some kind of meaningful task that involves semantic processing" p 91. Working with Words. Cambridge University Press.

My suggestion is that " processing " vocabulary using techniques 1 - 7 is probably more effective way of learning vocabulary than writing the translation by the side of the word. When a student uses these techniques illustrated in column A (see last page of article) he/she learns the vocabulary effectively. If a student writes a translation,(column B), though this is a reliable record of the words' meaning it may not be an effective way of learning vocabulary.

Word Game.

Here is a list of words from Cambridge 3 Unit 8: Lesson B
(p133)

Words and expressions to learn

<i>Nouns.</i>		<i>Verbs.</i>
brackets	uniform	notice
motorist	fool	tear (torn, torn)
thought	shoe shop	stuff
traffic warden	shade	

Encourage students to draw or write an explanation of these words in their exercise books. Drawing pictures is almost certainly one of the most effective ways of learning vocabulary.

Students need only process vocabulary which they don't know. They should asterix these words and process solely these words. Dictionaries are a valuable tool to enable students to accomplish this task. Ask students to bring a small pocket sized dictionary to class. If this proves impossible to put into practice (!) then either explain the vocabulary yourself or let them explain the lexis to each other in groups of five or six.

Once the words have been processed the word game begins. Students work in pairs. Student A uses techniques 1 - 7 to explain half the words in the list. The game finishes when both partners have correctly guessed the answers to their partners explanations. Once again, like the Crossword Game, the task is for each pair to finish before their classmates do.

Help students to foster the habit of processing vocabulary by (a) giving them lists of vocabulary to process for homework (b) process target vocabulary before or after the lesson by using the Word Game.

There might not be a vocabulary summary at the end of a lesson in your course book ,as there is in Cambridge 1,2 and 3. In this case, select a list of words from the lesson you are teaching and write them on the blackboard

to play the Word Game. This ensures that everybody in class processes the same list of vocabulary.

Effective Vocabulary Learning ideas from " Twenty Topics For Tired Teachers " by S. Hampshire.(Ed. P.P.U.)

Crossword game from an idea by Elisabeth Woodeson in MET Vol 10 and Peter Watcyn-Jones.

Column A.

Effective vocabulary learning.
(processing)

Column B.

Less effective
(translation)
brackets - paréntesis
motorist - conductor
thought - pensamiento

B

				1 →		1 ↓	D													
	4 →	A	2 ↓	T	E		A		3 ↓											
			A			2 →	Y													
		L		4 ↓																
6 ↓		3 →	L	E	A	V	E	5 ↓	H	O	M	E		7 ↓						
		8 ↓																		
						5 →														
														9 →						
														H	A	T				
8 →							6 →	R	E	D										
						7 →	H	A	V	E	D	I	N	N	E	R				
				9 ↓																
										11 ↓	C									
	10 →										O									
		↓	T																	
			Y								M			11 →						
			P								P									
	13 →		E	G	G						A			12 →	12 ↓	C	L	E	R	K
						14 →		13 ↓	C			14 ↓	R	Y						
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A.P.A.C.

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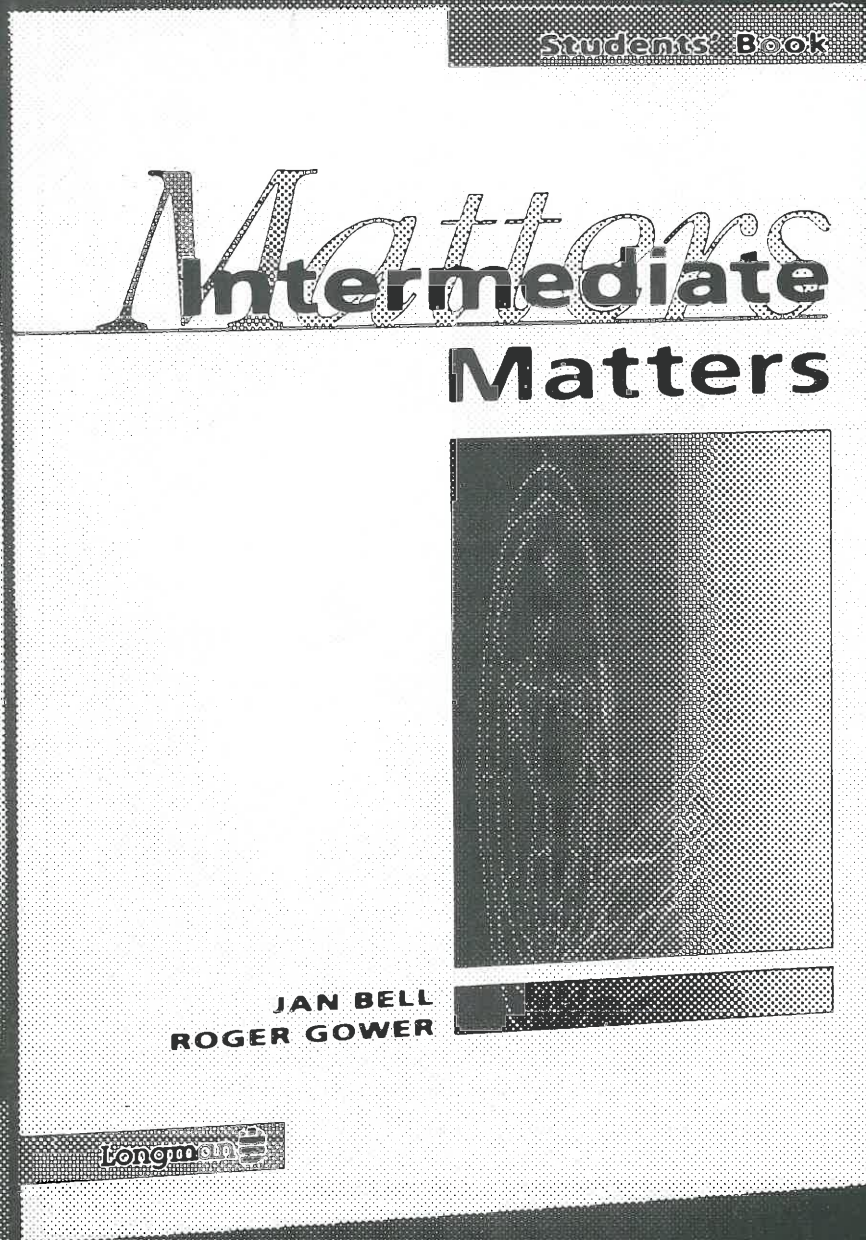
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