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ÁREA DE LA EDUCACIÓN EL ARTE, Y LA COMUNICACIÓN

ENGLISH LANGUAGE CAREER

**METHODS APPLIED IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE
LEARNING TEACHING PROCESS AND THEIR INFLUENCE
ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RECEPTIVE SKILLS
WITH THE STUDENTS OF THE SECOND AND THIRD
YEARS OF "BACHILLERATO" SCIENCE BASIC,
AFTERNOON SECTION AT "PIO JARAMILLO ALVARADO"
HIGH SCHOOL ACADEMIC YEAR 2010 - 2011**

Thesis previous to obtain the
Licentiate's degree in Sciences
of Education, English
Language

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CERTIFICATION

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To have directed and corrected this thesis, previous to obtain the Licentiate's degree with the title: **METHODS APPLIED IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING TEACHING PROCESS AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RECEPTIVE SKILLS WITH THE STUDENTS OF THE SECOND AND THIRD YEARS OF "BACHILLERATO", SCIENCE BASIC, AFTERNOON SECTION AT "PIO JARAMILLO ALVARADO" HIGH SCHOOL ACADEMIC YEAR 2010 – 2011.**, under the responsibility of the undergraduate Students: Diana Ximena Sarango Jimbo and Fanny Jhesenia Samaniego Calvachy. It is ready to be submitted and continue with the next steps.

Loja, Mayo del 2012

Dra. Marcia Criollo V. Mg. Sc.

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AUTORSHIP

All the criteria, analysis and definitions presented in this research work, are of their authoresses' absolute responsibility. They can be used as a consultant bibliography.

Diana Ximena Sarango Jimbo

Fanny Jhesenia Samaniego Calvachi

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And specially way to God Who guided our to finish work.

THE AUTHORESSES

DEDICATION

I WANT TO DEDICATE THIS WORK
TO FIRST GOD, BECAUSE HE GAVE
ME THE STRENGTH TO GO ON, AND
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ADMIRABLE MOTHER FANNY WHO
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ME AND SHE HAS GIVEN ME ALL
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SCHEMA

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a.TITLE

METHODS APPLIED IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING TEACHING PROCESS AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RECEPTIVE SKILLS WITH THE STUDENTS OF THE SECOND AND THIRD YEARS OF BACHILLERATO, BASIC SCIENCE, AFTERNOON SECTION AT “PIO JARAMILLO ALVARADO” HIGH SCHOOL. ACADEMIC YEAR 2010 – 2011.

b. SUMMARY

The present research work entitled:METHODS APPLIED IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING TEACHING PROCESS AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RECEPTIVE SKILLS WITH THE STUDENTS OF SECOND AND THIRD YEARS OF BACHILLERATO. BASIC SCIENCE.AFTERNOON SECTION, AT PIO JARAMILLO ALVARADO” HIGH SCHOOL. ACADEMIC YEAR 2010-2011.,has been developed in order to know the methodology that the teachers apply to develop the reading and listening skills inside the English Language Teaching learning process.

In the development of the present work we have used the scientific method as the main one, which has helped us to carry out a systematic process with the research object. And we have also used as particular methods the explicative, descriptive, analytical synthetic and deductive methods.

To develop the field work we applied the instrument of the survey to the teachers as well to the students, to process the information we have used the descriptive statistics which had helped us to represent the information in a descriptive way.

Among the main results of the research we have found that there is little application of methodological strategies which does not help students to improve the listening skill, neither teachers apply techniques to support the development of the reading skill with students of 2ndand 3rd years of High School curriculum at Pío Jaramillo Alvarado High School.

Therefore in the researched institution we have been able to find out that there is not enough practice to improve the receptive skills so that the learning of the English Language by part of the students is regular and limited with the researched students.

c. INTRODUCTION

English is the subject that face many trouble at secondary school because it has not been taught using effective methodology, that is to say using the right strategies and techniques to develop the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Every skill needs a hard process that requires a series of methodological strategies to help students increase their abilities. But reading and listening are the receptive skills that support the other two writing and speaking which are the productive ones. Moreover teachers should apply the most suitable techniques if they want to enable students to become proficient readers and listeners.

All the before mentioned reasons surrounded the development of the present research work, that has been made in the “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School of the Loja city and which is about methods used by the teachers and its influence on the receptive skills in the English Learning Process.

The general hypothesis states that the methods applied the teachers influence the development of the receptive skills in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School. Academic period 2010-2011.

As specific objectives we want to find out the methodological strategies that teachers use to develop the listening skill and to establish the relation between the techniques used by the teachers and the development of the reading skill in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School.

Academic period 2010-2011.

In order to do the present research work, it has been necessary to use the scientific method, because it let us follow an ordered and complex process which guided the whole work. We also used the descriptive method to describe the methods that teachers use in the teaching process. The analytic-synthetic method was used to analyze the data obtained in the field work and finally the explicative method was the one used to explain the results compared with the theoretical referents.

Among the techniques used we have applied a survey which let us get the most reliable data with teachers and students in the researched High School.

This work has been developed by a group of undergraduates of the English Career of the National University of Loja, as a previous requirement to obtain the degree of Licentiate in Sciences of Education, English Language Specialization. We hope, that contributed to solve in part the problem statement about the application of reading comprehension and writing skill in the English Learning process.

The present report in its structure is organized in the following way:

In the first part, the summary that describes briefly, clearly and an effective way the pertinence of the research and it summarizes the main conclusions and outcomes that we got through this thesis work.

Next, it has the introduction that presents the thesis work in its whole parts and it also describes the contextual frame of the problem that got us to develop this research.

Then, it includes the revision of the Literature where we synthesize the main variables of our hypothesis and which serve as indicators to prove through a logical analysis the stated hypothesis.

It also contains the materials and methodology used during the research process where we describe the methods techniques, procedures and instruments that have been used in the research process, and it also gives a reference about the researched population.

It presents the results of the instruments that were applied as to the teachers as well to the students and the respective interpretation and analysis of every question.

After that, it describes the discussion of the questions with the more representative and the verification of the stated hypothesis through a logical descriptive analysis.

It also explains the conclusions which the group has arrived after we have contrasted the information of the different instruments applied, establishing the logic relation among them with the specific objectives stated in the project.

Finally, it presents the recommendations or possible solutions to the problematic found and which the justifies the whole process of research developed in the researched institution and which can serve to improve their weaknesses regarding to strategies and techniques applied to develop reading and writing skills.

d. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

LISTENING SKILL

The ability to listen is essential for success in all relationships. Listening carefully can open the door to help you understand information and discover insight for certain situations. Listening deeply involves much more than merely utilizing your sense of hearing.

Good listening skills involve a person paying full attention to what someone else is saying and ignoring distractions surrounding you. Listening skills also involve asking questions about what the other person has said and not prejudging the other person's message.

SIGNIFICANCE

Mindtools reports that people only remember an average of 25 to 50 percent of what they have heard. This means we often miss out on up to half of our conversations. Not having proper listening skills causes your relationships to suffer and hinders your decision-making ability.

FEATURES

Having good listening skills means using nonverbal cues and eye contact to demonstrate that you are paying attention. A sign of good listening skills is when a person asks clarifying questions during a conversation. This indicates that the person wants to make sure he heard you and understood what you communicated. Paraphrasing or summarizing after conversing for a few minutes is also a sign of good communication skills. It is

important to understand that basic listening skills do not involve providing advice or opinions; the objective is primarily to understand what someone else is saying.

BENEFITS

Having good active listening skills can help you understand what you are supposed to do at work and thus increase your opportunities for promotion. Good listening skills can also help you establish a positive rapport with your colleagues and co-workers. In educational situations, listening skills can help you understand and apply complicated concepts and increase your likelihood of answering questions correctly or most appropriately. Listening skills can also help you understand the underlying meaning behind what other people communicate. They can also help you build trust in your relationships, because whoever you listen to will feel understood and respected¹.

REASONS TO IMPROVE LISTENING SKILLS

- To avoid saying the wrong thing, being tactless
- To dissipate strong feelings
- To learn to accept feelings (yours and others)
- To generate a feeling of caring
- To help people start listening to you
- To increase the other person's confidence in you
- To make the other person feel important and recognized
- To be sure you both are on the same wavelength
- To be sure you both are focused on the same topic.

¹BIRNES Heidi, 1998, Modules for the Professional Preparation of Teaching Assistants in Foreign Languages.

TECHNIQUES FOR IMPROVING LISTENING SKILLS

“Communication involves listening, as well as speaking. But listening involves more than merely hearing the words directed at us. Good listening is active. It means focusing on verbal and nonverbal cues and interpreting the message. While some people are better listeners than other, most people can develop the skills to be a good listener

Focus on the Speaker

For best listening, sit where you can see the other person clearly. If you're in a classroom or lecture hall, sit near the front. This will eliminate distractions and help you to focus on the speaker.

Study Nonverbal Cues

Pay attention to the speaker's body language and facial expressions. They can give you clues about what she's trying to express.

Ask Questions

Stay involved in the conversation by asking questions. This helps you stay focused and clarifies any vague points. It also shows the speaker that you're paying attention.

Make Encouraging Comments

You can also provide encouraging comments such as "I understand" or "I'm sorry to hear that." This lets the speaker know you're paying attention.

Don't Interrupt

Wait for natural breaks in the conversation to ask your questions. Give the speaker plenty of time to express herself. Interrupting may cause her to shut down before she has delivered her entire message.

Empathize

Even if the speaker is telling you something you don't want to hear, try to see the situation from her point of view. Try to set aside your own emotions for the moment.

Repeat Salient Points

Show you understand the speaker's message by repeating the main points when it's your turn to speak. This gives the other person the opportunity to clarify if you've misinterpreted.

Use Appropriate Body Language

Appropriate body language can reinforce your verbal message or reflect your mood. There are some conscious methods you can utilize to show the listener you are actively listening.

When someone is speaking to you, be aware of your facial expressions. Smiling, for instance, will reveal to your listener that you are pleased. Avoid showing unconscious signs of disapproval, such as crossing your arms in front of you. A simple nod of the head shows approval.

Acknowledge Your Audience

Acknowledging your audience is one of the principle techniques of effective interpersonal communication. The person you communicate with needs to know he is understood.

Make eye contact with the speaker throughout the conversation. Ask questions to prove you are listening and for clarification. If you don't have specific questions, you can paraphrase what you heard back to your listener.

Listen and Wait for Your Turn

Being an effective listener requires you to sometimes remain silent. Some people feel they can listen and talk at the same time. However, they find while they are talking they only hear some words or sounds being communicated to them. This results in failed communication or at least lost messages and inappropriate responses. Being quiet will enable you to not only hear out the person, but allow you to think about how you want to respond.

Be Reactive

As you listen to a person, some form of response should be evident, whether it is with a verbal and/or non verbal cue. Such cues include reflective and/or paraphrasing statements, statements of support, a nod of head, eye contact and leaning forward. Being reactive is just as important as being quiet because it assures not only that the

person knows you are listening but also presents accountability for staying attentive and comprehending.

Be Responsive

After actively listening to a person, how you respond determines not only the quality of your listening skills but the outcome of that interpersonal communication. Giving an inappropriate response can cause conflict, mistrust and difficulty forming relationships. In order to be responsive you have to be able to provide a verbal and/or behavioral response appropriate to the conversation at hand”²

WHAT IS A READING STRATEGY?

A strategy is an activity used to help students increase reading abilities. Once the educator has diagnosed the problems and challenges that individual student, as well as classes, are having, it is time to decide what methods of instruction will enable the students to become proficient readers. In other words, what will the teacher do in the classroom to meet the needs of all levels of readers?

WHY ARE READING STRATEGIES USED?

We use strategies for the following reasons:

- Reading makes more sense for struggling readers when strategies are used
- Good readers use strategies naturally
- The use of strategies aides struggling readers to become proficient

²RIXON, S. (1981). *The teaching of Listening Comprehension*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 258 465).

- Strategies make reading more fun

WHEN ARE READING STRATEGIES USED?

To assist students in

- Predicting outcomes in a reading passage
- Summarizing material which has been read, both fictional and informational
- Questioning material being read
- Determining important ideas while reading
- Monitoring their reading
- Searching for clues
- Rereading

STRATEGIES BEFORE, DURING AND AFTER THE READING.

ANNOLIGHTIN STRATEGY

What is it?

We have all had the experience of suggesting that students highlight the text that they are reading, only to watch them indiscriminately highlight nearly every word on the page. It is clear that learning how to highlight a text as a part of a reading strategy requires some instruction, including some modeling and guided practice. If done well, highlighting can become a very effective reading tool; if done poorly, it is most likely a waste of a student's time, energy and ink. "Annolighting" a text combines effective highlighting with marginal annotations that help to explain the highlighted words and phrases.

Purposes/Goals of Annotating

- Capture main ideas / key concepts / details of a reading
- Target, reduce and distill the needed information from a text
- Cut down on study and review time when you return to the material increasing your effective and efficient use of time and effort
- Strengthen your reading comprehension

What does it look like?

- ◆ Choose a focus or framework for your highlighting. Ask yourself: What is the purpose or intended goal of this particular reading?
- ◆ Then skim the section again and highlight on the second reading. If you try to highlight on the first reading, you may not have a clear sense of the key ideas/concepts or important/relevant details.
- ◆ *Eliminate every single unnecessary word* in a sentence by using a "telegraphic" approach to highlighting. "Telegraphic highlighting" should still allow you to make sense of a sentence or section when you reread it.
- ◆ You may want to use multiple colors in your highlighting process. For instance, choose one color for main ideas and another color for supportive detail that may help in sorting the information when you study the material or collect information for a paper, exhibition or project

ANNOTATING A TEXT

What is it?

Reading and constructing meaning from a text is a complex and active process; one way to help students slow down and develop their critical analysis skills is to teach them to annotate the text as they read. What students annotate can be limited by a list provided by the teacher or it can be left up to the student's discretion.

Suggestions for annotating text can include labeling and interpreting literary devices (metaphor, simile, imagery, personification, symbol, alliteration, metonymy, synecdoche, etc.); labeling and explaining the writer's rhetorical devices and elements of style (tone, diction, syntax, narrative pace, use of figurative language, etc.); or labeling the main ideas, supportive details and/or evidence that leads the reader to a conclusion about the text.

What does it look like?

The way a reader chooses to interact with a text will vary from reader to reader.

How could I use, adapt or differentiate it?

- Have students complete this activity individually or with a partner as a way to prepare for a discussion and/or a writing prompt.
- To differentiate, teachers can annotate some of the more difficult parts of a text to aid the students, begin the annotation with the entire class to get them started, or form heterogeneous or homogeneous groups based on skill levels and the teacher's discretion for the best way to proceed.

CHECKING OUT THE FRAMEWORK

(It used before, during and after the reading)

What is it?

The skilled reader knows that different types of texts are organized in different ways and having an understanding of the various structures provides a solid foundation for the reading experience. Many of the suggestions below may seem basic to us, but many of our students do not use these strategies; they simply open the book and start reading (or not) on page one. Helping our students to consciously develop these simple strategies will give them some very important building blocks.

What does it look like?

All of the lists that follow will only add any variations or new ideas that are specific to that type of text or genre; the intent is to create an extensive reference tool for teachers to “cross-over” or “mix and match” many of the items. Teachers can then choose the items off the various lists for their appropriate grade level, focus and chosen text to customize the framework template to the left.

Poetry

In addition to *The Basic Reference List*, consider the following:

- ◆ What is the format or structure of the poem? One or more stanzas?
- ◆ What type of poem is it? epic? sonnet? lyric? elegy? ode? epitaph? etc.
- ◆ Skim all of the last words in each of lines; do any of them rhyme?
- ◆ After the first reading, has one or more speakers emerged?

- ◆ Are there any footnotes that help explain pieces of the text? allusions? challenging vocabulary? etc.

Drama

In addition to *The Basic Reference List*, consider the following:

- ◆ How is this play structured; how many acts are there? Are the acts divided into scenes? What is the length of the play?
- ◆ Check out the cast list at the beginning of the script: How many characters are there? Did the playwright provide any kind of personality description? What are their ages, gender, ethnicity, etc.?
- ◆ Are there plot summaries and/or stage directions in the beginning of each of the scenes to help the reader understand the text?
- ◆ Did the playwright, editor, or publisher provide footnotes to help the reader with the text? If so, how are they organized and what is the best way to approach using them? (Shakespearean texts often contain them and students need to know how and when to use them)
- ◆ How are the stage directions and emotional reactions (examples: *lovingly*, *angrily*, *with defeat*, etc.) of the characters set up and indicated in the play?
- ◆ Does this play have a prologue and/or an epilogue?

Essays

Essays consider the following:

- ◆ What is the historical context of this essay? When was it published and by whom?
Do these answers indicate a possible bias?
- ◆ Is it part of a larger collection or series of essays?
- ◆ If it is contained in an anthology, check out the framework of the anthology.
How is it organized? common theme? writer? chronological? other?

Periodicals and Newspapers

They consider the following:

- ◆ Who owns this publication and does that suggest any particular bias?
- ◆ What is the circulation of this text? How popular is it? Who is the primary audience?
- ◆ How is this text organized and in what ways is the organization conventional or unconventional?
- ◆ What seems to be the average length of the typical article? Can the length be characterized as: in-depth analysis? Short and to the point? The “fast food” version of the facts?
- ◆ How heavily does the publication rely on visuals? What might this mean?

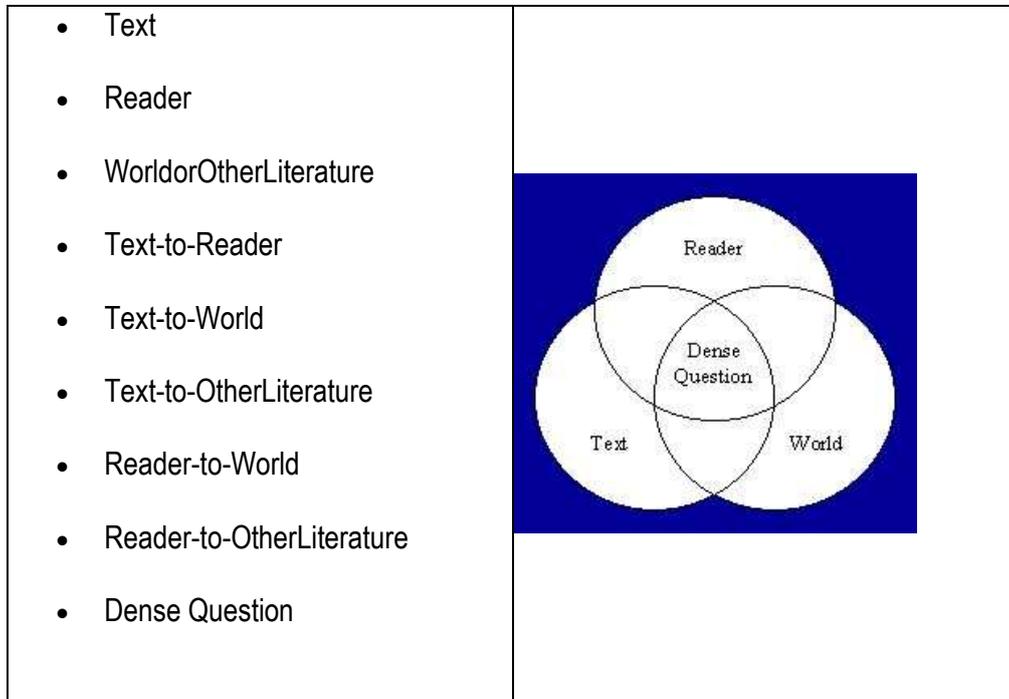
DENSE QUESTIONING

(It is used before, during and after the reading)

What is it?

Leila Christenbury (1998) suggests using this strategy to teach students to ask different types of questions. Students develop a series of questions that get increasingly more

sophisticated. It begins with the reader posing a question about the text and then moving through each of the categories listed below:



When students pose questions about a text using these multiple perspectives it is bound to make their interaction with and understanding of the text deeper and richer.

What does it look like?

The dense questioning strategy can be organized in chart form or in overlapping circles

How could I use, adapt or differentiate it?

Students can develop these questions during the reading process for one or more of the purposes listed below:

- To pose questions for a partner, small group or class discussion

- To interact with each of the chapters in a text as a way to gain multiple perspectives of questions, and then students can be reconfigured to share their question.

INFERENTIAL READING

(It is used before, during and after the reading)

What is it?

The problem with comprehension, it appeared, was that kids couldn't make an inference."

What we need to keep in mind is that our students certainly *do know how* to make inferences; they continually make inferences throughout the school day. They make inferences based on their peers' physical appearance, actions, speech, or based on their teachers' facial expressions, body language and room arrangement.

What does it look like?

And so, how do we teach this seemingly elusive skill? In her book, Beers provides two excellent resources that will help both students and teachers. She provides a list of thirteen types of inferences that skilled readers make, an excellent list to provide for your students to keep in their notebooks. Her second list is a series of comments teachers can make to help students make certain types of inferences.

Types of Inferences Skills Readers Use

Skilled readers . . .

- ❖ Recognize the antecedents for pronouns
- ❖ Figure out the meaning of unknown words from context clues
- ❖ Figure out the grammatical function of an unknown words
- ❖ Understand intonation of characters' words
- ❖ Identify characters' beliefs, personalities, and motivations
- ❖ Understand characters' relationships to one another
- ❖ Provide details about the setting
- ❖ Provide explanations for events or ideas that are presented in the text
- ❖ Offer details for events or their own explanations of the events
- ❖ Understand the author's view of the world
- ❖ Recognize the author's biases
- ❖ Relate what is happening in the text to their own knowledge of the world
- ❖ Offer conclusions from facts presented in the text

How could I use, adapt or differentiate it?

- ❖ Design an activity that uses an inductive approach to identify the types of inferences that they constantly use in their daily activities.
- ❖ After identification, they need to examine the process by which they arrived at their inferences and create a working list of types of inferences that skilled readers use. Post this list in your classroom for easy reference.
- ❖ Try to read short passages aloud on a regular basis, and use a "think aloud approach" to focus *only on the inferences* that you are making as you read.
- ❖ A constant refrain in English classes is, "How do you know the writer meant this?" Beers suggests that we "remind students that authors don't expect readers

to create inferences out of nothing. Authors provide information (that's the external text); readers use that information in a variety of ways to create their internal text. When authors aren't providing literal information, then they are implying something.

INTERACTIVE NOTEBOOK.

(It is used before, during and after the Reading)

What is it?

Generally, the way it works is that each student has a spiral notebook that he/she uses for recording information for the class; each pair of pages is designated for different purposes. The right side of the notebook is used to record notes on a mini-lesson, lecture, reading, class discussion, etc. The left side of the notebook is used solely for the purpose of the student's *individual* interaction with the information on the right page.

How could I use, adapt or differentiate it?

- If you have used interactive notebooks before, you probably already have several options to add to the lists.
- These interactions can be done at the end of class as a closure activity or as a great way to engage kids in a homework assignment that is individualized and practical.
- It may be a useful tool to help each student examine and reflect on their metacognitive skills in relation to processing information.

LISTENING TO VOICE

(It is used before, during and after the reading)

What is it?

Voice can be defined as the writer's awareness and effective use of such elements as diction, tone, syntax, unity, coherence and audience to create a clear and distinct "personality of the writer," which emerges as a reader interacts with the text.

This process should be carefully scaffolded; depending on the grade and skill level, it is not necessary to have your students understand *all* of the particulars of each of the elements given below before they can begin to interact with a text and "listen to a writer's voice." For instance, under *Diction*, you may only introduce tone; under *Tone*, you may only use characterization, you may not introduce *Syntax* until later on; you can then build on these basics as your students' understanding grows and develops.

Diction refers to a writer's word choice with the following considerations:

- denotation / connotation of a word
- degree of difficulty or complexity of a word
- level of formality of a word
- tone of a word (the emotional charge a word carries)

* all of the above will often create a subtext for the text

Tone refers to a writer's ability to create an attitude toward the subject matter of a piece of writing; the tools a writer uses to create tone:

- diction
- figurative language
- characterization
- plot
- theme

Syntax refers to the arrangement--the ordering, grouping, and placement--of words within a phrase, clause, or sentence. Some considerations:

- type of sentence
- length of sentence
- subtle shifts or abrupt changes in sentence length or patterns
- punctuation use
- use of repetition
- language patterns / rhythm / cadence
- how all of the above factors contribute to narrative pace
- the use of active and/or passive voice

Unity refers to the idea that all of the ideas in a written piece are relevant and appropriate to the focus. Some considerations include:

- each claim (assertion, topic sentence) supports the thesis
- each piece of evidence is important and relevant to the focus of the paragraph or the piece of writing as a whole

- occasionally, a writer may choose to purposely violate the element of unity for a specific effect (some humorists / satirists will sometimes consciously do this)
- it is important to consider what has been omitted from a piece and examine the writer's intent in doing so

Coherence refers to the organization and logic of a piece of writing; some considerations include:

- precision and clarity in a thesis and supportive arguments
- the arguments ordered in the most effective way for the writer's intent
- the sentences and paragraphs "flow smoothly" for the reader; there should not be any abrupt leaps or gaps in the presentation of the ideas or story (unless the writer makes a conscious choice for a specific and appropriate effect)

Audience refers to the writer's awareness of who will be reading his / her piece of writing; some considerations are:

- Who are the targeted readers?
- How well informed are they on the subject? What does the writer want the reader to learn as a result of this piece?
- What first impression is created for the reader and how does the author's voice shape this first impression?
- How interested and attentive are they likely to be? Will they resist any of the ideas?

- What is the relationship between the writer and the reader? Employee to supervisor? Citizen to citizen? Expert to novice? Scholar to scholar? Student to teacher? Student to student?
- How much time will the reader be willing to spend reading?
- How sophisticated are the readers in regard to vocabulary and syntax?

What does it look like?

No matter what grade level, one of the best ways to begin and develop an exploration of writer's voice during the reading process is to begin with very short piece: poetry, short nonfiction or fiction texts, or an excerpt from a longer text that your students are currently reading.

How could I use, adapt or differentiate it?

- Ask students identify the elements of voice with which they are familiar and make predictions or pose questions based on the selections.
- Collect examples that illustrate a clear and strong writer's voice and use an inductive process to have students identify the elements that constitute voice.
- After covering the elements of writer's voice, have students find an example of a piece of writing they feel has a strong voice and annotate the piece by highlighting and labeling the words and phrases that contribute to the voice.

Have students choose two characters from the novel they are reading and have them compose a piece of writing in each character's voice.

Use this Strategy: Before Reading, During Reading and after Reading

What is it?

Teaching our students the four basic question-answer relationships is a valuable strategy that will help them to understand the different types of questions and know how to effectively and efficiently approach the text based on the different question types.

What does it look like

Helping students to analyze the question-answer relationships will enable them to become skillful at analyzing these types of questions that they are typically asked to respond to when reading a text.

Think and Search Questions: “Think and Search” questions usually require you to think about how ideas or information in the passage relate to each other. “Right There” questions sometimes include the words, “According to the passage...”

You will need to look back at the passage, find the information that the question refers to, and then think about how the information or ideas fit together. “The main idea of the passage...” “What caused...” “Compare/contrast...”

Author and You Questions: “Author and You” questions require you to use ideas and information that is not stated directly in the passage to answer the question. These questions require you to think about what you have read and formulate your own ideas or opinions. “The author implies...” “The passage suggests...” “The speaker’s attitude..,”

On My Own Questions: “On My Own” questions can be answered using your background knowledge on a topic. Questions sometimes include the words, “In your opinion...”, “Think about someone/something you know...”

RESOURCES AND METHODOLOGY

RESOURCES

HUMAN

Research Group:

- Diana SarangoJimbo
- Fanny SamaniegoCalvachi

Informants

- Teachers on the English Area of “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School
- Students 2nd and 3rd Years of Bachillerato, Basic Science
- Authorities of the researched institution

Institutional

- U. N. L.
- “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado ” High School

MATERIALS

- Office material
- Books
- Computer

- Printer
- Scanner

METHODS

TYPE OF STUDY

The group has identified the present research work as a descriptive one because the researchers did not manipulate the variables of the stated hypotheses, but they described the facts as they happened in the reality.

METHODS, TECHNIQUES AND INSTRUMENTS

The Scientific Method.- Any scientific research follows an ordered and complex process which needs a strict procedure to describe the events during a period of observation, so we have selected the scientific method because their characteristics seem to be the most suitable.

This methodletus, to identify the characteristics of the problem, and research in the theoretical reference the variables that guided ourtheme and which also permitted to prove the hypotheses.

This method was used in the searching of the theoretical- scientific fundaments to explain the relation of the variables of the present work, and also to state the most pertinent recommendations according to the conclusions that we researched, the same that served to contribute with some ideas to improve the reading and listening skills with the students of 2nd and 3rd years of bachillerato years at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School inside the

English language process.

Descriptive Method.- We also used the descriptive method because it guided us to demonstrate the main purpose of the research, to describe the problematic that the group found in this educative institution, to describe the variables of the stated hypotheses as cause and effect. It also was used to describe coherently all the research work presenting the results and supporting the conclusions. This method served to describe the strategies and techniques that the teachers use to develop the receptive skills during the English Language teaching learning process.

Analytic- Synthetic Method.- This method served to analyze the main results that we get through the instruments applied in the field work and which helped us to prove our hypotheses based on the results of major tendencies. It also was helpful to analyze the fundamentals of the theoretical frame which supported the verification of the stated hypotheses.

Explicative Method.- It was used, in the explanation of all the results that we get in the field work contrasting them with the theoretical referents. It let us identify the strategies and techniques that the teachers apply to work on the receptive skills into the English Language teaching learning process.

We used the descriptive statistics which served to represent the data in tables, and graphs to get a better comprehension of the information.

TECHNIQUES, INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

To obtain the empiric information we applied the following techniques and instruments:

A **Survey** was applied to obtain information about the English Teaching Learning process and to know what kind of strategies and techniques the teachers apply to develop the listening and reading skills with the students of 2nd and 3rd years of bachillerato in the researched High School. It was applied to teachers and students with a previously elaborated questionnaire which contained closed questions with indicators that helped to prove the stated hypotheses.

After we applied the research instruments we processed the data through the following steps:

We tabulated the collected data, using the descriptive statistics for the closed questions and unifying criteria for the questions that include reasons.

Then we **organized** the empiric information taking into account the questions that proved the first hypothesis and the ones that helped to prove the second one so that we described them orderly.

After that we **represented** the obtained data in statistic tables and graphs which showed the data in frequencies and percentages that allowed to **analyze** and **interpret** the empiric information contrasting it with the theoretical referents which helped us to prove the hypotheses.

To prove the hypotheses we used the descriptive statistics with tables and percentages which helped to analyze the results and to state some valuable recommendations based on the obtained conclusions keeping in mind the objectives that guided this research.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The teacher's population was formed by 4 English teachers who work with 2nd and 3rd years of "Bachillerato" at the researched High School.

The students' population is formed by the total of students who receive education in the first and second years of the High School curriculum, Basic Science, afternoon section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School who were 48. It is a small population for that reason we worked with the whole population.

CHART N° 1

POPULATION	POPULATION	%	SAMPLE
SECOND YEAR OF THE HIGH SCHOOL	23	100%	23
THIRD YEAR OF THE HIGH SCHOOL	25	100%	25
TOTAL			48

f. RESULTS

TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' SURVEY

➤ Hypothesis No. 1

There is little application of the methodological strategies to develop the listening skill with the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School. Academic period 2010-2011.

1. Match the option, which you work on the listening skill

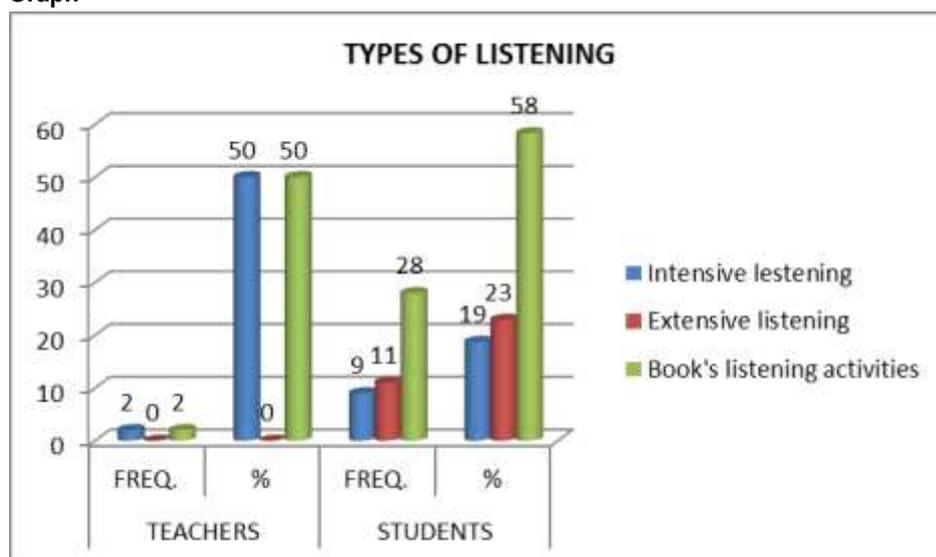
a. Statistics Table

TYPES OF LISTENING	TEACHERS		STUDENTS	
	FREQ.	%	FREQ.	%
Intensive listening	2	50	9	19
Extensive listening	0	0	11	23
Book's listening activities	2	50	28	58
TOTAL	4	100	48	100

Source: Teachers and students' survey

Responsible: Research group

b. Graph



c. Interpretation and Analysis

50% of teachers answered that they practice listening through intensive activities with their students while the other 50% said that they work with the activities from the book.

Regarding the students we got that 58% matched the book's activities, 23% pointed out the extensive listening and 19% the intensive listening.

Listening deeply involves much more than merely utilizing your sense of hearing. Good listening skills involve a person paying full attention to what someone else is saying and ignoring distractions surrounding you. Listening skills also involve asking questions about what the other person has said and not prejudging the other person's message. It is said that, people only remember an average of 25 to 50 percent of what they have heard. This means we often miss out on up to half of our conversations. Not having proper listening skills causes your relationships to suffer and hinders your decision-making ability. So that, it is important to practice not only intensive listening in class but extensive listening activities also are necessary if we want to improve the listening abilities with the students.

How often do you practice the listening skill?

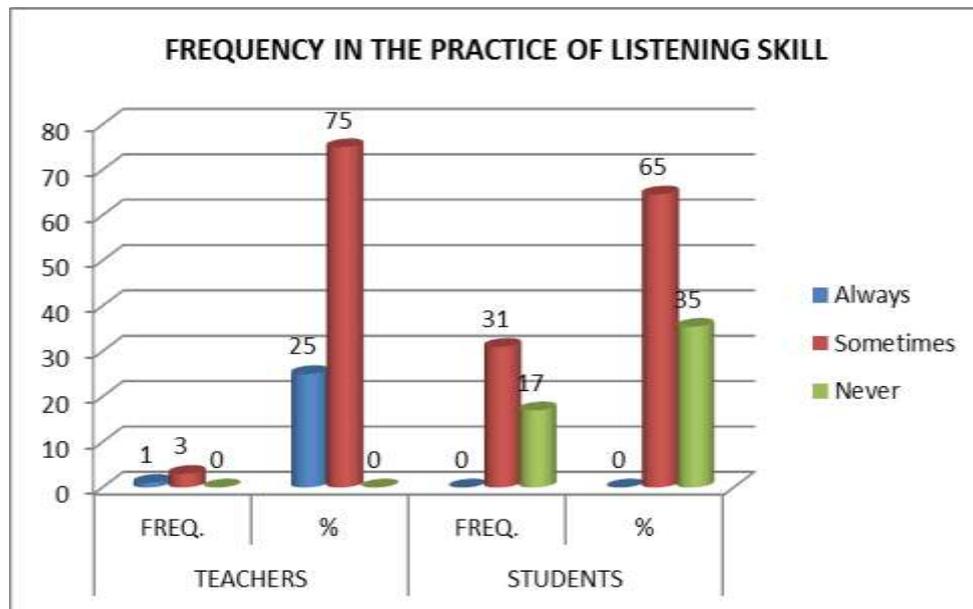
a. Statistics Table

FREQUENCY IN THE PRACTICE OF LISTENING SKILL	TEACHERS		STUDENTS	
	FREQ.	%	FREQ.	%
Always	1	25	0	0
Sometimes	3	75	31	65
Never	0	0	17	35
TOTAL	4	100	48	100

Source: Teachers and students' survey

Responsible: Research group

b. Graph



c. Interpretation and Analysis

75% of teachers answered that they sometimes make students practice the listening skill while 25% told us that listening is always practiced in class.

On the other hand 65% of students also said that they just sometimes practice listening and 35% answered that they never practice this skill.

Listening is a skill that can be learned, practiced and perfected through the daily practice. It begins by educating oneself on the techniques, and practicing these in day to day interactions. However the results show us that teachers just sometimes make students practice the listening skill and in this way they do not acquire enough abilities to communicate by using the English language.

2. Do you have didactic material to work on the listening skill?

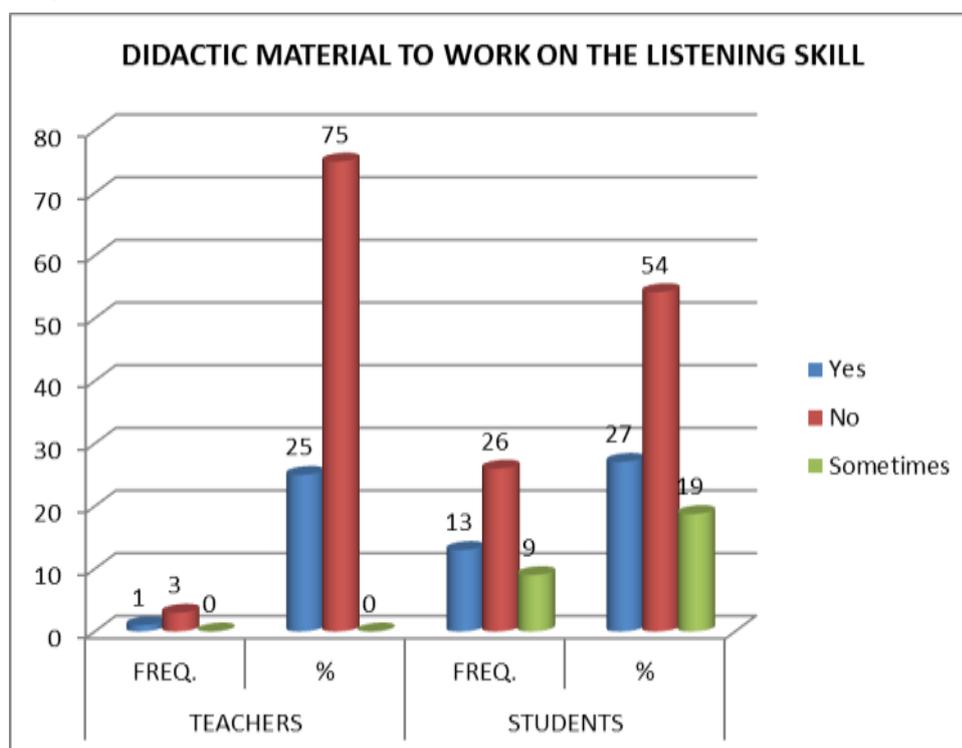
a. Statistics Table

DIDACTIC MATERIAL TO WORK ON THE LISTENING SKILL	TEACHERS		STUDENTS	
	FREQ.	%	FREQ.	%
Yes	1	25	13	27
No	3	75	26	54
Sometimes	0	0	9	19
TOTAL	4	100	48	100

Source: Teachers and students' survey

Responsible: Research group

b. Graph



c. Interpretation and analysis

75% of teachers answered that they do not have didactic material to work on the listening skills and 25% said that they have material to develop the listening skill.

54% of students also matched that they do not count with didactic material, 27% indicated that yes and 19% pointed out sometimes.

Listening is the most frequently used communication skill, but many of us are poor listeners. We lose interest, we concentrate on the speaker's appearance instead of his words and our thoughts tend to drift simply because we can think faster than people speak. Having didactic material is necessary because students need to be familiarized with many accents not only the teacher's input, but if they do not have enough didactic material they are not helping students to become good listeners.

3. Which or the following strategies help the students to improve the listening skill?

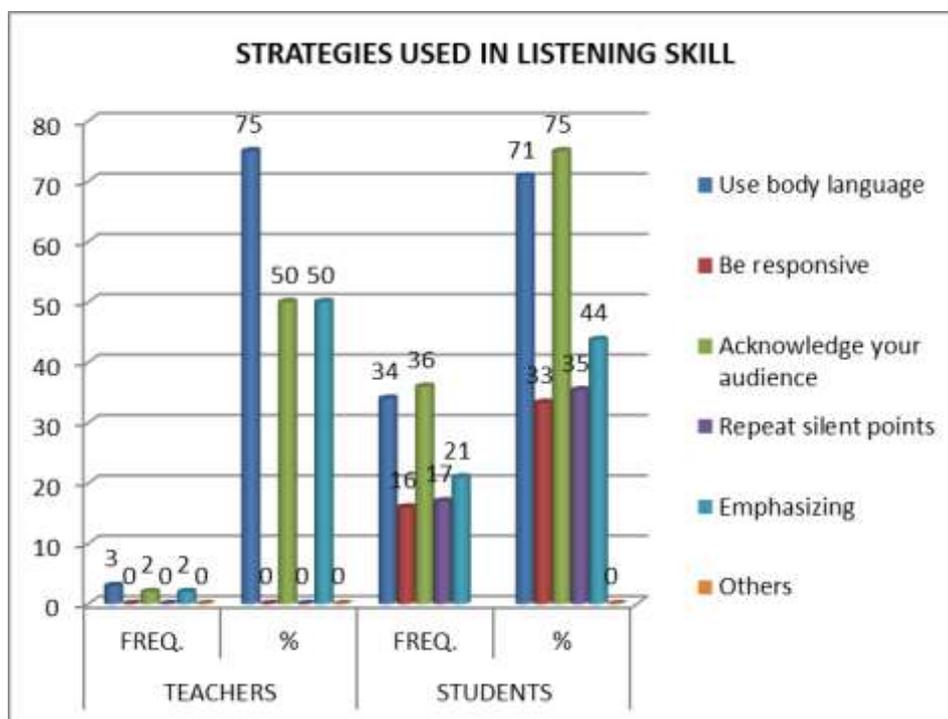
a. Statistics Table

STRATEGIES USED IN LISTENING SKILL	TEACHERS		STUDENTS	
	FREQ.	%	FREQ.	%
Use bodylanguage	3	75	34	71
Be responsive	0	0	16	33
Acknowledgeyouraudience	2	50	36	75
Repeatsilentpoints	0	0	17	35
Emphasizing	2	50	21	44
Others	0	0		0

Source: Teachers and students' survey

Responsible: Researchgroup

b. Graph



c. Interpretation and analysis

75% of teachers said that they teach students how to use body language, 50% matched acknowledge your audience and 50% emphasizing.

On the other hand 75% of students answered acknowledge their audience, 71% use body language, 44% emphasizing, 35% repeat silent points and 33% be responsive.

There are many strategies that help students to improve their listening skill such as: use the body language can reinforce your verbal message or reflect your mood, facial expressions reveal to your listener that you are pleased or a simple nod of the head shows approval; be responsive how you respond determines not only the quality of your listening skills but the outcome of that interpersonal

communication; acknowledge your audience is one of the principle techniques of effective interpersonal communication. Make eye contact with the speaker throughout the conversation. Ask questions to prove you are listening and for clarification. If you don't have specific questions, you can paraphrase what you heard back to your listener; Repeat salient points show you understand the speaker's message by repeating the main points when it's your turn to speak. This gives the other person the opportunity to clarify if you've misinterpreted; emphasizing helps to set aside your own emotions for the moment. For that reason, it is necessary that teachers teach the students how to use all the strategies that can help them how to become a good listener trying to develop a process that support and enhance the listening skill but if they do not have enough practice neither they teach the different strategies to listen, it would be impossible to improve it.

4. Which of the following techniques do you use to develop the listening skill?

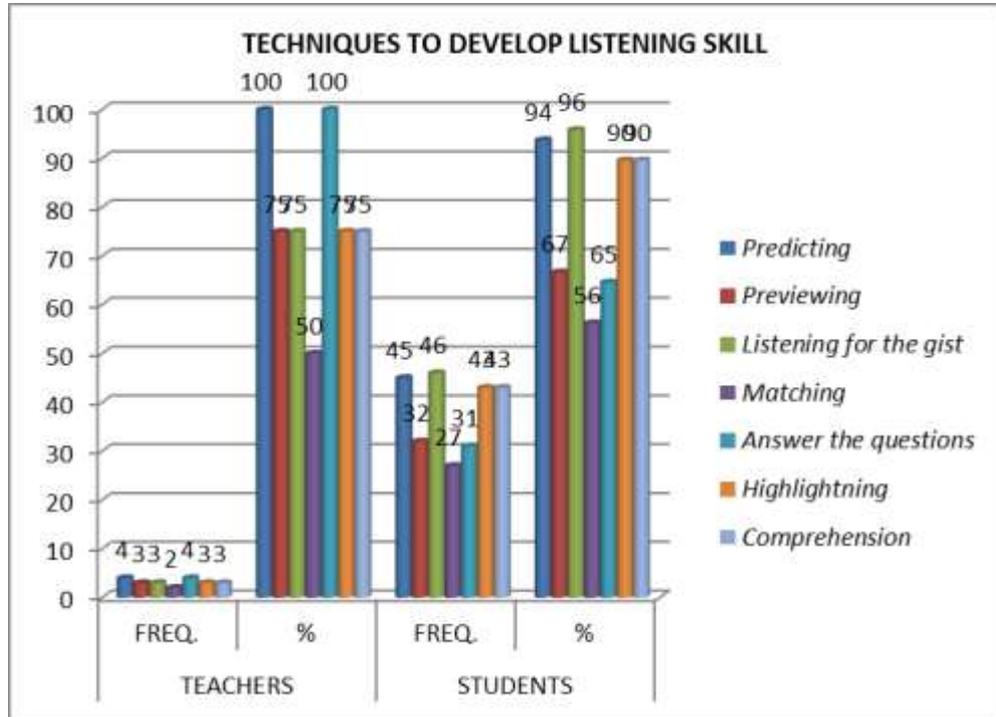
a. Statistics Table

TECHNIQUES TO DEVELOP LISTENING SKILL	TEACHERS		STUDENTS	
	FREQ.	%	FREQ.	%
Predicting	4	100	45	94
Previewing	3	75	32	67
Listeningforthe gist	3	75	46	96
Matching	2	50	27	56
Answerthe questions	4	100	31	65
Highlightning	3	75	43	90
Comprehension	3	75	43	90

Source: Teachers and students' survey

Responsible: Researchgroup

b. Graph



c. Interpretation and Analysis

100% of teachers answered that they practice listening by predicting and answering questions, 75% matched previewing, and listening for the gist, highlighting and comprehension and 50% pointed out matching.

In contrast with the results 96% of students matched listening for the gist, 94% predicting, 90% high lightning and comprehension, 67% previewing, 65% answering questions and 56% matching.

The techniques that help in pre-listening process are: predicting the points about the listening theme and skimming the main points; during the listening we have listening for the gist and emphasizing with the voice and comprehension; after

listening we have, matching and answering questions. But as we can see some teachers are confused about listening techniques because they have pointed out previewing and highlighting which are reading rather than listening techniques.

➤ **Hypothesis No. 2**

The techniques applied by the teachers do not support the development of the reading skill in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pío Jaramillo Alvarado” High School. Academic period 2010-2011.

5. Do your students like reading in English?

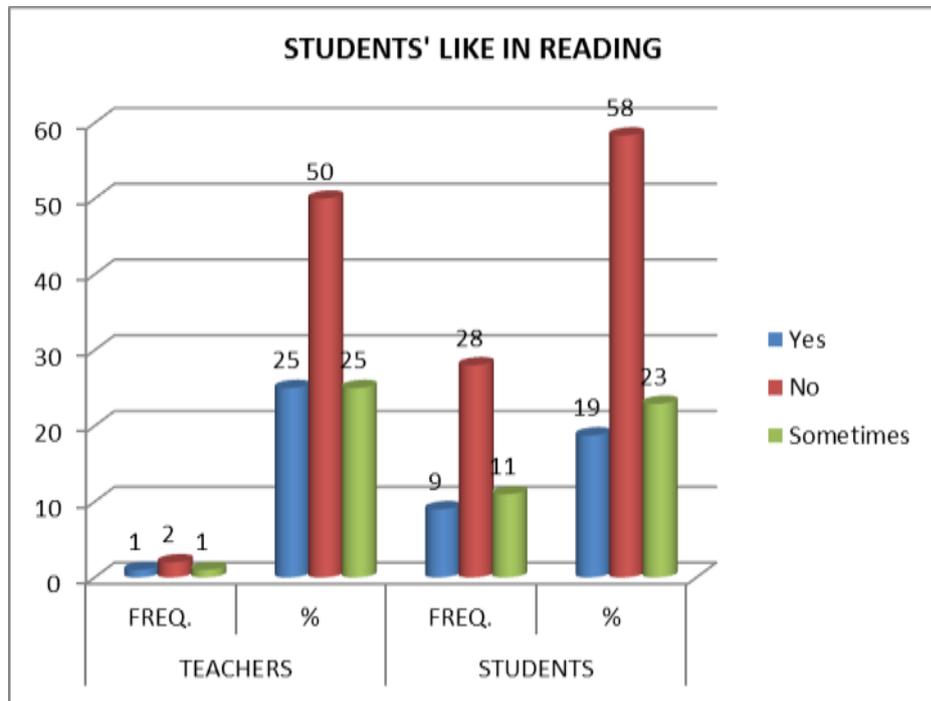
a. Statistics Table

STUDENTS' LIKE IN READING	TEACHERS		STUDENTS	
	FREQ.	%	FREQ.	%
Yes	1	25	9	19
No	2	50	28	58
Sometimes	1	25	11	23
TOTAL	3	100	48	100

Source: Teachers and students' survey

Responsible: Researchgroup

b. Graph



c. Interpretation and analysis

The graph shows us that 50% of the surveyed teachers said that students do not like to read in English, 25% answered that students like and 25% told us that they sometimes like reading.

58% of student also said that they do not like reading, 23% matched sometimes and only 19% pointed out yes.

Reading is a teaching medium that permit us have access to the knowledge in different areas. But not only is access to the knowledge even the way to known, in the intellectual process,that students develops to learn; people are able to persuade,

interpret, transform and understand different situations in a reality. The reading permit us to know the nature, the technology and life of other countries and cultures, the happening in our world, country and it teaches us to have a correct position in front to the future. However, the results show us that most students do not like reading and here we have the teachers' work to encourage students to read, in that way students would develop certain pleasure to read and they will not need to be faced to read in English.

6. How many readings do you develop per unit? Mark with an X

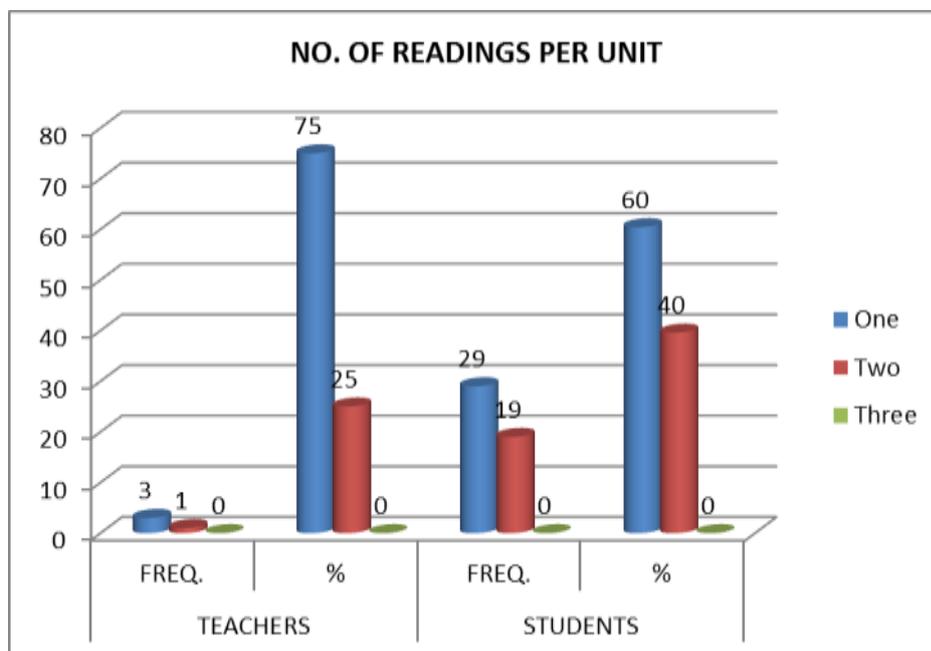
a. Statistics Table

NO. OF READINGS PER UNIT	TEACHERS		STUDENTS	
	FREQ.	%	FREQ.	%
One	3	75	29	60
Two	1	25	19	40
Three	0	0	0	0
More	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	4	100	48	100

Source: Teachers and students' survey

Responsible: Researchgroup

b. Graph



c. Interpretation and analysis

75% of teachers answered that they develop a reading per unit and 25% said that two. Quite the same results we got with students where 60% matched one reading per unit and 40% indicated two readings.

Teachers and students surveys show that they agree in the number of reading per unit and we believe that is not enough two reading as an intensive reading process because they have just five periods of the time per week, which is not enough to work with real reading material such as: magazines, newspapers, travel guides, pamphlets or others. It is a necessity that teachers work in extensive reading getting real readers according to the students' age and level so that they would instruct them and will enable the students to become proficient readers.

6.1. Do you apply specific techniques to teach the students to read in English?

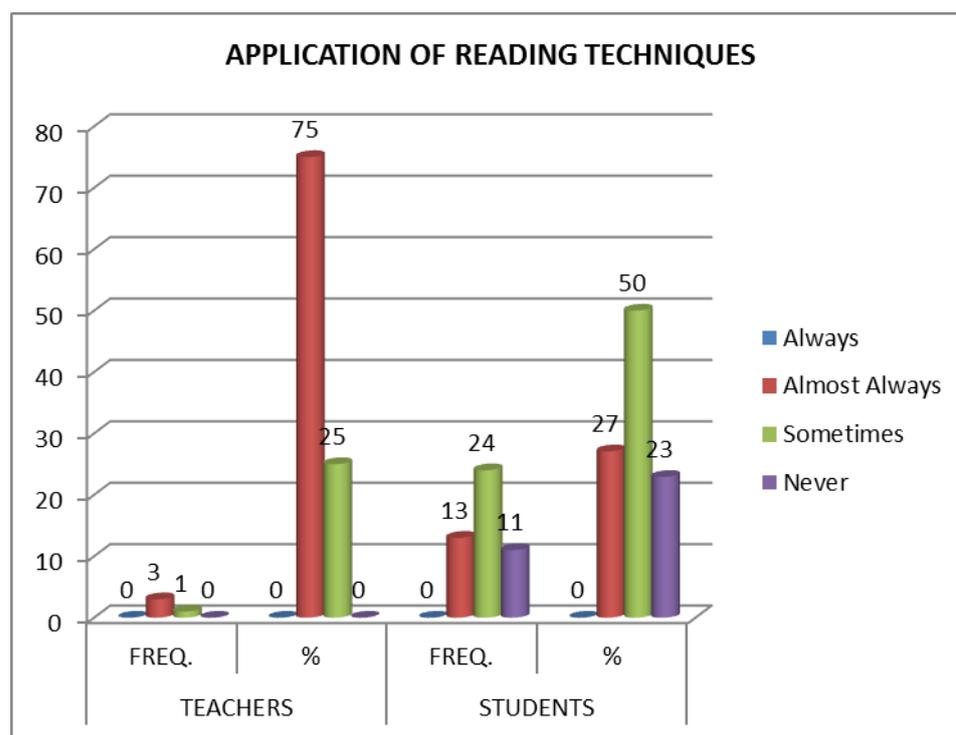
a. Statistics Table

APPLICATION OF READING TECHNIQUES	TEACHERS		STUDENTS	
	FREQ.	%	FREQ.	%
Always	0	0	0	0
AlmostAlways	3	75	13	27
Sometimes	1	25	24	50
Never	0	0	11	23
TOTAL	4	100	48	100

Source: Teachers and students' survey

Responsible: Researchgroup

b. Graph



c. Interpretation and analysis

As we can see, 75% of teachers said that they almost always use specific techniques to teach reading and 25% of them answered that sometimes.

With the students, we got that 50% answered that their teachers sometimes teach them how to read, 27% matched almost always and 23% pointed out never.

For normal reading rates (around 200-220 words per minute) an acceptable level of comprehension is above 75%. Like listening, reading is a receptive skill and learners need lots of exposure to written English before they can produce for themselves. Reading helps learners extend their vocabulary and provides a variety of models for their own written skills. But the results show us that reading is developed strategically just sometimes in class and this is not enough because the frequent practice of it and the application of extensive reading would enable students to become good readers.

9. Do you encourage your students to read extra material in English?

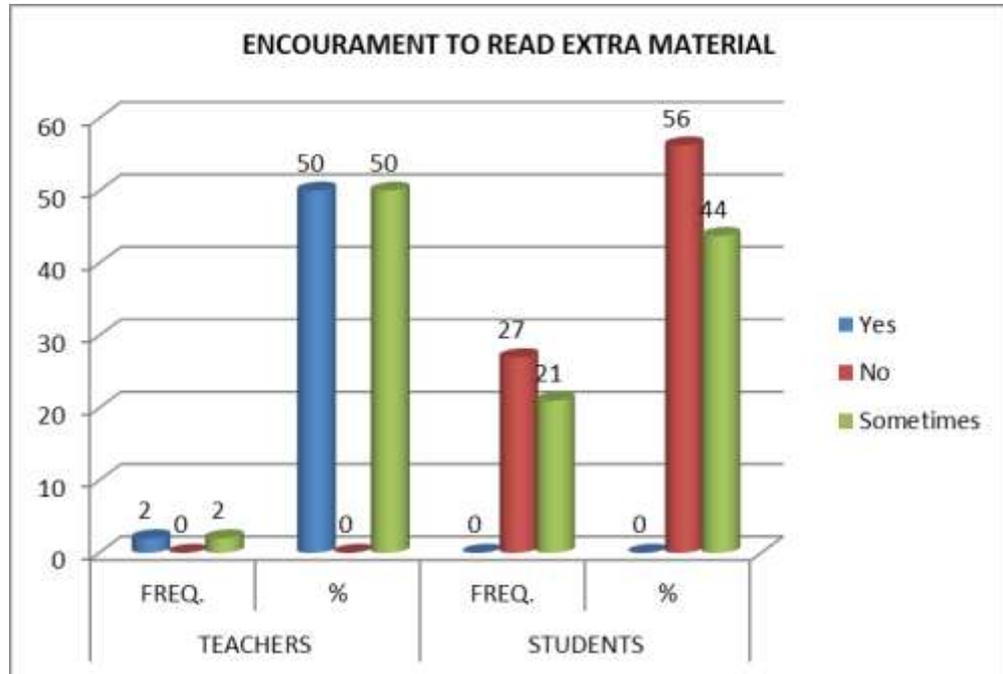
a. Statistics Table

ENCOURAGEMENT TO READ EXTRA MATERIAL	TEACHERS		STUDENTS	
	FREQ.	%	FREQ.	%
Yes	2	50	0	0
No	0	0	27	56
Sometimes	2	50	21	44
TOTAL	4	100	48	100

Source: Teachers and students' survey

Responsible: Researchgroup

b. Graph



c. Interpretation and analysis

50% of teachers answered that they encourage students to read extra material and the other 50% matched sometimes.

Contradictory to this, 56% of students indicated that their teachers do not encourage them to read extra material and 44% pointed out that sometimes they are persuaded to read in English.

More recent research on teaching reading has shown that technology is a good alternative for teachers to help students improve their reading skills in the English language process because by combining interactive techniques through internet students can get reachable skills in reading and teachers can easily work with

graded readers according to their students' needs. But, it is necessary that teachers make students read extra material in English by using technology. It is a good alternative for teachers to send extra class reading activities that can be developed by students through internet.

10. What techniques do you apply to develop the reading skill? Mark with an x.

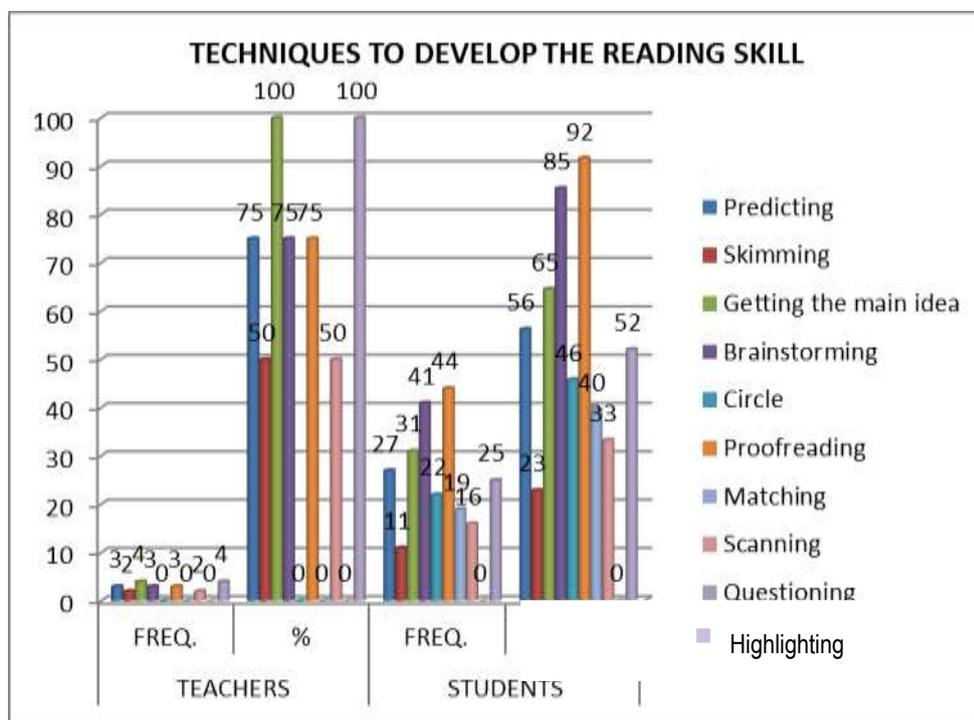
a. Statistics Table

TECHNIQUES TO DEVELOP THE READING SKILL	TEACHERS		STUDENTS	
	FREQ.	%	FREQ.	%
Predicting	3	75	27	56
Skimming	2	50	11	23
Getting the main idea	4	100	31	65
Brainstorming	3	75	41	85
Circle	0	0	22	46
Proofreading	3	75	44	92
Matching	0	0	19	40
Scanning	2	50	16	33
Highlighting	0	0	0	0
Questioning	4	100	25	52

Source: Teachers and students' survey

Responsible: Research group

b. Graph



c. Interpretation and analysis

100% of teachers matched that they work on reading by using the techniques, getting the main idea and questioning, 75% matched predicting, brainstorming and proofreading; and, 50% answered skimming and scanning.

Similar result we got with students where they answered: 92% proofreading, 85% brainstorming, 65% getting the main idea, 56% predicting, 52% questioning, 46% circle, 40% matching, 33% scanning and 23% skimming.

It is important to equip learners with the strategies they need to read widely outside class such as: identifying the reading purpose, use graphemic rules and patterns to aid in bottom-up decoding, use efficient silent reading techniques relatively rapid

comprehension, skim the text for main ideas, scan the text for specific information, use semantic mapping or clustering, guess when you aren't certain, analyze vocabulary, distinguish between literal and implied meanings, guessing meaning from context, finding main ideas among others. But as we can see in the results teachers and students confuse some reading techniques with the writing ones such as: brainstorming, highlighting and proofreading or they use the most superficial like getting the main idea and questioning which do not help students to develop superior levels of comprehension: literal, interpretative and critical comprehension.

11. Teachers: Do you apply post-reading techniques to verify the reading comprehension?

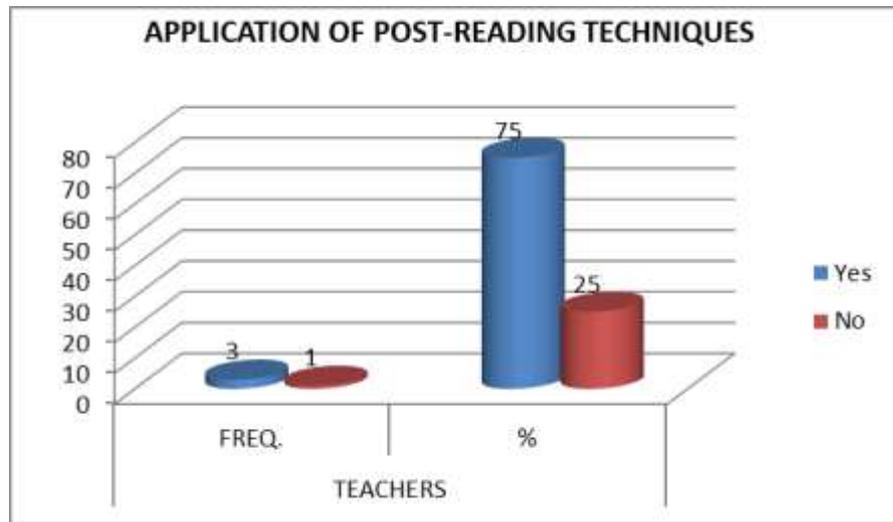
a. Statistics Table

APPLICATION OF POST-READING TECHNIQUES	TEACHERS	
	FREQ.	%
Yes	3	75
No	1	25
TOTAL	4	100

Source: Teachers' survey

Responsible: Research group

b. Graph



c. Interpretation and analysis

75% of teachers said that they do apply post-reading techniques and 25% answered that they do not work with these techniques because they do not have enough time.

We know that reading is a difficult skill especially when it is developed in a foreign language, so teachers need to be aware that there are actually three main levels or strands of comprehension: literal, interpretative and critical comprehension. Therefore teachers should apply post reading techniques so they can identify the level of reading comprehension that students have developed, but if they do not work with these kinds of activities they will not have a clear idea about the level of comprehension that students have.

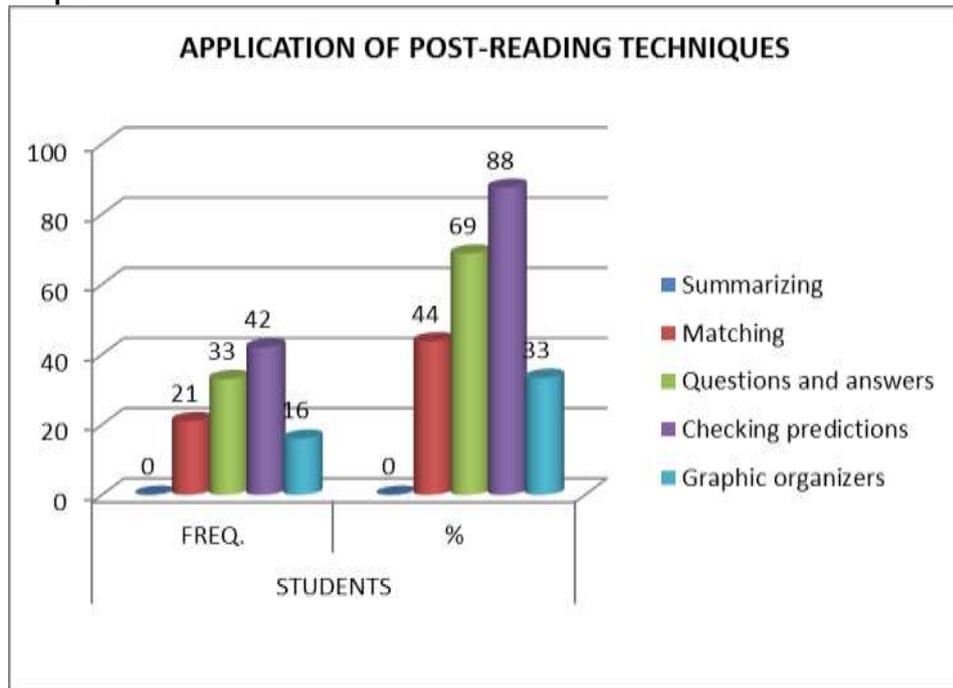
Students: Which of the following post-reading techniques does your teacher apply to verify the reading comprehension?

a. Statistics Table

APPLICATION OF POST-READING TECHNIQUES	STUDENTS	
	FREQ.	%
Summarizing	0	0
Matching	21	44
Questions and answers	33	69
Checking predictions	42	88
Graphic organizers	16	33

Source: Students' survey
 Responsible: Research group

b. Graph



c. Interpretation and analysis

Regards to students' results 88% of them answered that their teachers make them summarize after reading, 69% matched questions and answers, 44% matching and 33% graphic organizers.

Strategies after reading help students to verify their level of comprehension and teachers can be aware about the process to develop the reading skills due to the teacher should know the needs of all levels of readers. There are a lot of techniques that teachers can use after reading, matching, summarizing, checking predictions but the most useful graphic organizers that help students to acquire abilities to synthesize by representing the information in a graph, but if teachers do not use these techniques they are not supporting the reading comprehension process.

12. Teachers: What's the average of a group of your student's in the English Subject in a term? Mark one with an x.

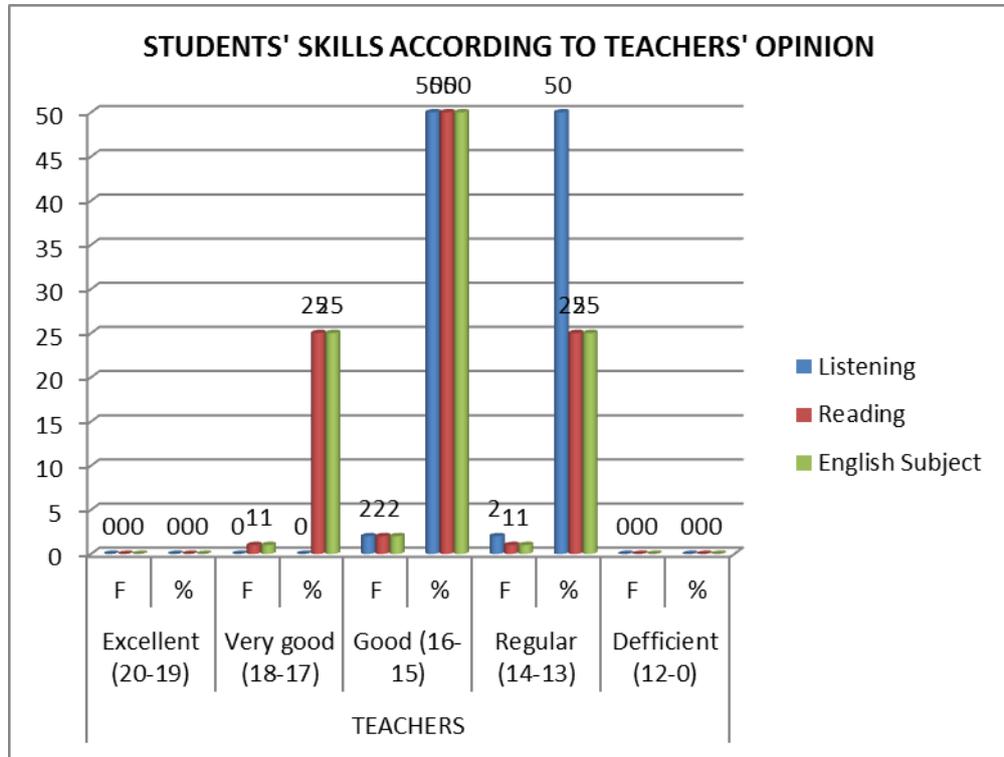
a. Statistics Table

STUDENTS' SKILLS	TEACHERS									
	Excellent (20-19)		Verygood(18-17)		Good (16-15)		Regular (14-13)		Defficient (12-0)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Listening	0	0	0	0	2	50	2	50	0	0
Reading	0	0	1	25	2	50	1	25	0	0
English Subject	0	0	1	25	2	50	1	25	0	0

Source: Teachers' survey

Responsible: Research group

b. Graph



c) Interpretation and analysis

Teachers: 50% of teachers placed the students' skills in a good level in listening, reading and the English subject; 50% regular in listening, 25% regular in reading and English; 25% very good in reading and English subject.

The listening and reading process imply the application of specific techniques that help students to work in extensive activities that support the development of each subskill that is part of bigger process.

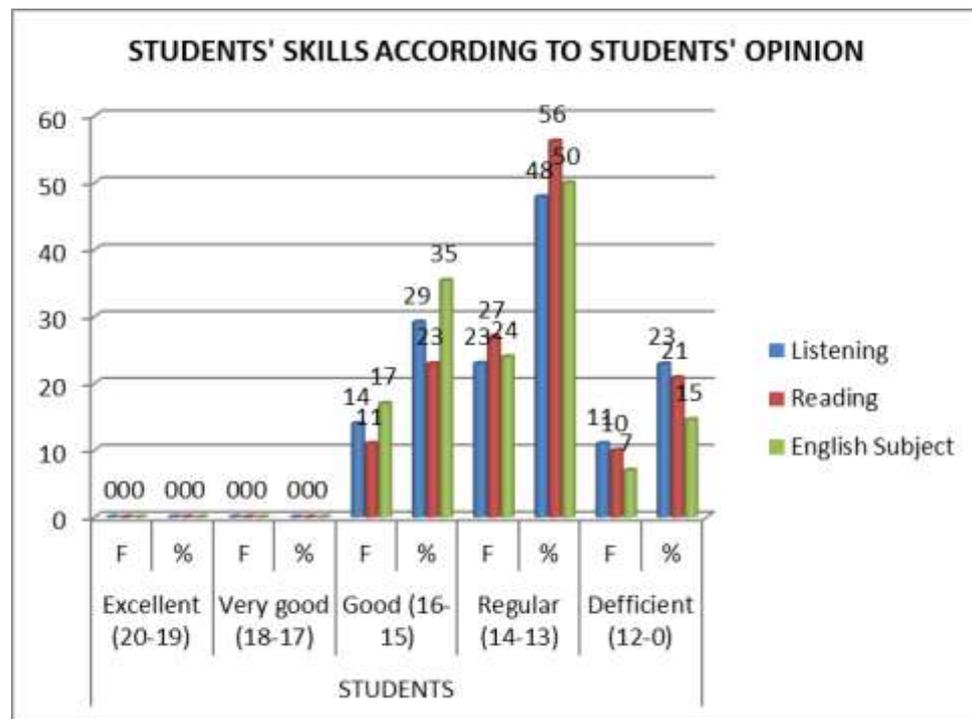
a. Statistics Table

STUDENTS' SKILLS	STUDENTS									
	Excellent (20-19)		Verygood (18-17)		Good (16-15)		Regular (14-13)		Deficient (12-0)	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Listening	0	0	0	0	14	29	23	48	11	23
Reading	0	0	0	0	11	23	27	56	10	21
English Subject	0	0	0	0	17	35	24	50	7	15

Source: Students' survey

Responsible: Researchgroup

b. Graph



c. Interpretation and analysis

According to students opinion the results in regular are: 56% reading, 50% in the English subject and 48% listening; In good 35% in English, 29% in listening

and 23% in reading; and in deficient: 23% in listening, 21% in reading and 15% in the English subject.

As we can see, most of students are placed in a regular level what means that there are problems in listening and reading skills. If the teachers do not apply the right techniques to work on them, students will not be able to improve the receptive skills.

g. DISCUSION

After we have made the exposition, discussion and analysis of the collected data through the surveys applied to the teachers and students of the “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High school, we present the questions that helped us to prove the hypothesis stated in the thesis project.

HYPOTHESIS ONE

- **STATEMENT**

There is little application of the methodological strategies to develop the listening skill with the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School. Academic period 2010-2011.

- **DEMONSTRATION**

We have the independent variable, which refers to the application of methodological strategies by the teachers and the development of the listening skill as dependent variable. The questions that helped us to prove the first hypothesis were:

In the question number ONE, 50% of teachers and 58% of students said that they work on the listening skills just through the book’s activities. That means that they are not practicing intensive neither extensive listening, which limits the development of this skill.

In the question number TWO, 75% of teachers and 65% of students answered that they sometimes practice the listening skill in class because according to their opinion they do not count with enough audio-visual material to work with this skill.

In the question number THREE, 75% of teachers and 54% of students said that they do not have didactic material to work on the listening skill, what means that most of the time teachers can not develop intensive listening skill in the English class.

In the question number FOUR, 75% of teachers and 71% of students matched that teachers apply the use of body language as listening strategy, and 50% of teachers and 75% of students also pointed out acknowledge your audience which means that teachers are not using other strategies that can help students to improve the listening skill in the English language.

In the question number FIVE, which was about the techniques that teachers use to work on the listening skill; we got that 100% of teachers and 90% of students pointed out predicting; and 75% of teachers and 96% of students also answered listening for gist; and, 75% of teachers and 90% of students matched highlighting and comprehension. The results show that teachers are confused because highlighting is a reading technique and they are not applying specific strategies to work on the listening skill.

- **DECISION**

After analyzing the obtained results in the applied survey to teachers as well as students the group accepts the first hypothesis which states that, there is little application of the methodological strategies to develop the listening skill with the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School. Academic period 2010-2011.

HYPOTHESIS TWO

- **STATEMENT**

The techniques applied by the teachers do not support the development of the reading skill in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School. Academic period 2010-2011.

- **DEMONSTRATION**

Regarding the second hypothesis we have the independent variable the techniques applied by the teachers and the dependent variable the development of the reading skill so we would analyze the obtained results in the questions below:

In the question number SIX, which was about students' like for reading and 50% of teachers and 58% of students answered that they do not like to read in English because according to their opinion it is so difficult and they do not count with books to read in the target language.

In the question number SEVEN, 75% of teachers and 60% of students answered that teachers just develop one reading per unit, which is not enough to develop the reading comprehension neither it is sufficient to become a proficient reader.

In the question number EIGHT, 75% of teachers said that they almost always apply reading techniques to develop the reading skill. However, 50% of students answered that teacher just sometimes work with reading techniques, therefore we can say that if teachers do not apply specific techniques to develop reading comprehension it would be impossible to improve the reading skill.

In the question number NINE, 50% of teachers said that they do encourage students to read, 56% of students indicated that their teachers do not encourage students to read extra- material. Therefore with only the classroom activities or intensive reading they will not develop an acceptable reading level of comprehension in the students.

In the question number TEN, which was about the techniques that the teachers apply to develop the reading skill, in the teachers and students' surveys the major percentages 100% show predicting, getting the main idea and questioning. But there is also a big percentage 75% that matched proofreading and brainstorming which are not reading techniques they are writing techniques. Therefore we can say that most teachers are confused in the application of the right techniques to develop the reading skill.

In the question number ELEVEN, we asked about the application of post-reading techniques and even when 75% of teachers said that they apply them after reading; 88% of students pointed out checking predictions and 69% matched questions and answers, which means that teachers are not working with graphic organizers which are the most suitable post-reading techniques to verify students' reading comprehension.

In the question number TWELVE, 50% of teachers said that their students are good in reading and the English subject while 50% indicated that students are regular in listening. Regards to students' opinion between 48-50% placed themselves in a regular level of knowledge in listening, reading and the English subject and this evidence the low English proficiency that they get during their high school life.

- **DECISION**

Based on the analysis of the obtained results the group accepts the second hypothesis which states that The techniques applied by the teachers do not support the development of the reading skill in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School. Academic period 2010-2011.

h. CONCLUSIONS

- There is not enough practice of listening skill; neither teacher make students develop extensive listening because teachers just work with the book's listening activities which are not enough to develop the listening skill. Not having proper listening techniques causes that students do not have enough input to be able to produce the language effectively.
- Teachers do not count with enough audio-visual material to practice the listening skill in the English class so that they do not work on a process that let students improve listening subskills which involves not only receive enough input but, it also helps students to identify the different types of accents of the target language.
- Most teachers do not apply the right strategies to work on the listening skills because they use "acknowledge your audience" and "use the body language". So that, it is important to know that there are many strategies that can help students improve the listening skills
- There is little application of specific techniques to practice the listening skills because most teachers just work with predicting and answering questions which are not enough if they want students to become expert listeners through day to day interactions.

- Most students of the researched High School do not like reading in English because teachers do not encourage them to practice extensive reading as an extra class activity that let students become proficient readers and consequently improve their level of comprehension in the target language.
- Most teachers just work with the book's reading activities which are not enough to develop reading skills with the students and this is because it involves a process that needs a lot of practice and it also implies a lot of exposure of the students to authentic material in English.
- Most teachers do not work with post reading techniques which means that they do not verify the level of understanding of their students through activities that facilitate students represent in a graphic way, the main points of a specific reading.
- The level of knowledge that students have got in the receptive skills is placed in regular due to the lack of practice and application of the right strategies and techniques that help students to be involved in the listening and reading process.

i. RECOMMENDATIONS

- That, teachers implement a new way of practicing extensive listening by using the internet because, listening is a skill that can be learned, practiced and perfected. It begins by educating oneself on the subskills, and practicing these in day to day interactions.
- That, authorities of the High School manage some audio-visual resources for the English teachers because communication involves listening, as well as speaking. So that, teachers need to work on listening skills by using different types of audiovisual resources in their classes such as: TV, Cd, players, videos and others to enable students to recognize different accents of English Language
- That, teachers get some training about listening strategies that they can use into the English teaching learning process such as: make eye contact to show that you are receiving the message, being responsive to demonstrate that your are involved in the theme, paraphrasing in a concise manner to clarify topics for both the speaker and the listener, asking questions to reveal interest in conversation among others that can help students to improve listening skills.

- That, teachers apply post listening techniques to verify comprehension and amount of language understood by students. They can be graphic organizers, role plays, drawing, summarizing, asking questions among others that can be useful to improve the levels of communicative listening skills.
- That, teachers work on extensive reading by extra class activities through internet, due to there is a lot of graded resources according to the students' level of proficiency in the language. This will avoid students get bored and face them with authentic reading material.
- The teachers must take training in specific techniques to develop reading comprehension. They should know that reading involves practice and the application of techniques during the whole reading process, that is to say, in pre-reading: skimming, scanning, predicting, previewing; During the reading: guessing meaning form context, main idea, making inferences; Post-reading techniques: a summary, graphic organizers, collages among others.
- That teachers check reading comprehension through post-reading techniques such as: comparison organizers, hierarchical organizers, flow charts, continuum charts, diagrams, collages, drawings and so on, which will help students to organize the information, interpret and represent the reading in an illustrative way.

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k. ANNEXES



1859

UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE LOJA

**ÁREA DE LA EDUCACIÓN EL ARTE, Y LA
COMUNICACIÓN**

ENGLISH LANGUAGE CAREER

**METHODS APPLIED IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE
LEARNING TEACHING PROCESS AND THEIR INFLUENCE
ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RECEPTIVE SKILLS
WITH THE STUDENTS OF THE SECOND AND THIRD
YEARS OF "BACHILLERATO" SCIENCE BASIC,
AFTERNOON SECTION AT "PIO JARAMILLO ALVARADO"
HIGH SCHOOL ACADEMIC YEAR 2010 - 2011**

Project previous to
obtain the Licentiate's
degree in Sciences of
Education, English

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LOJA – ECUADOR

2012

a. THEME:

METHODS APPLIED IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING TEACHING PROCESS AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RECEPTIVE SKILLS WITH THE STUDENTS OF THE SECOND AND THIRD YEARS OF BACHILLERATO, BASIC SCIENCE, AFTERNOON SECTION AT “PIO JARAMILLO ALVARADO” HIGH SCHOOL. ACADEMIC YEAR 2010 – 2011.

b. PROBLEM STATEMENT

BACKGROUND

The present research work is going to be developed in the “Pío Jaramillo Alvarado” High School of the Loja City, Afternoon Section, which educates to female students who work during the day and for any other reason they are not able to attend class in the morning.

This High School was founded by *Pío Jaramillo Alvarado*, who was a famous Doctor in Jurisprudence was born in Loja City on May 17, 1884. Along his life he got some honours and dignities in our country and abroad. He died on July 24, 1968 in Loja, but for his constant dedication to the education, the Ministry of Education decided to create a High School with his name.

This High School began to work with the basic cycle on November 18th in 1967, after obtaining the permission by the Ministry of Education. Its education was addressed exclusively for the female sector; it was inaugurated in a big place located at Sucre between Quito and Imbabura streets.

“On October 7, 1970 the “Pío Jaramillo Alvarado” High School Night Section is authorized by the Ministry of Education to work with the then called, first course and the High School

Curriculum in Modern Humanities, Social Sciences, Physical- Mathematics, and Chemical – Biological specialties.

The authorities of the Institution with the help of the Ministry of Education, got another place to work at Bolivar and Catachocha Streets, because it became too small. Since June 22, 1994, this High School has worked there with basic cycle and the high school curriculum.

“Six years later, it offers new specialties such as: Business and Management, Computing and Accountancy. Then it implemented a new Project in order to improve the education quality, which is called: SIAT (Sistema Integrado de Teorías e Investigación). It began to work in an experimental way, starting since the year 1999 to 2000”³.

The project continued working by 5 years and it has some advantages such as: changes of Curriculum and implementation and improvement of high school curriculum.

The “Pío Jaramillo Alvarado” High School has the historical mission of the socio - humanist formation of the female students in technical and sciences High School Curriculum. It works developing academic, professional skills and aptitudes to improve different areas such as: business, management, computing and sciences.

³ REVISTA DEL COLEGIO “PIO JARAMILLO ALVARADO” Loja – Ecuador 2001. Pag. 52-64

The “Pío Jaramillo Alvarado” High School has as vision to lead processes to improve the basic education of the South Region with socio-humanistic and technical principals; the institution uses modern technological resources which help the teaching- learning process with an administrative staff and excellent teachers who are able to teach their knowledge to the students through positive and efficient processes.”⁴

Nowadays this Institution in Night Section has a total of 153 students from eighth year of basic education to the 3rd year of High School Curriculum; and they just have the High School Curriculum in Science. Regards to the teachers there are just two English teachers in the Night Section.

CURRENT SITUATION OF THE RESEARCHED OBJECT

Being bilingual or trilingual is nowadays a requirement at any of the functions that the professionals develop in the world. The methodology that teachers use to teach the English language has been the barrier that has determined the learning of the students.

Not long ago, teachers have used different kinds of methods. Some of them have been called traditional or classical whose principles are teaching by grammar rules and using translation. The updated tendency is to teach in a communicative way. However, most of teachers still make use of the traditional methodology due to the low level of knowledge that students reach during their school life studying the English language.

Nowadays we have innovative methods to teach a second or foreign language. The communicative ones, the learning styles, the multiple intelligences and so on. These

methodologies are based on the communicative competence. The main purpose is to manage the language spontaneity and communicatively. However the students do not get a basic level of knowledge of the English Language at high school because of the methods that teachers use to teach them.

Some teachers are trying to use a better methodology sometimes work with the direct method which could be applied in combination with others but they make the students to induce the grammar rules which is not a good idea when the students are in a beginning level due to they do not understand the use of appropriate grammar, especially in the development of the oral skills.

Students finish their high school studies and face serious difficulties specially in what refers to the listening, speaking and writing skills due to their knowledge is not even basic in the English language.

The English language teaching learning process involves a development of a series of methods that offer a set of techniques that if the teacher knows them, could be of great help to reach a good level of knowledge with the students, but students finish their middle school studies without a real management of the listening and reading skills.

It is known that the teachers do not have a clear knowledge about methods to teach English nor the techniques that belong to every method. Most of them are applying traditional methods and techniques and this is affecting the students' learning of the English Language.

Moreover the little schedule charge assigned to the English language learning at high school is also limiting the development of the receptive skills, because most of the high

schools just have four periods per week, which is not enough for the teachers to reach a good level of knowledge with the students.

The book used in the CRADLE project is "Our World through English" which is a book that includes readings about our country reality. However if the teachers do not apply the right techniques to develop every reading and they do not follow the listening process steps the students will not gain speed in reading neither they will be able to understand anything in the different accents of the English Language.

The development of the reading and listening skills involve a complex process that requires the application of specific strategies and techniques that help the students to develop those skills. Nevertheless the teachers have little knowledge of these strategies and techniques for that reason there is not a good development of the reading comprehension and the listening of the English Language in the students of the researched High School.

Another aspect that we have been able to detect is that the teachers only use the students' books to work in class and they don't try to improve the receptive skills by using extra material. Graded readers in English or real listening material could help teachers get better outcomes in the English language learning.

Based on all the before described problematic the group has considered the following research problem:

RESEARCH PROBLEM

How the methods applied by the English Teachers influence on the development of the receptive skills in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School?. Academic period 2010-2011.

DELIMITATION OF THE RESEARCH

- **Temporal**

The present research work will be done during the school period 2010-2011.

- **Spatial**

The project will be carried out at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" Afternoon Section High School.

- **Observation Units**

The people who are involved in this research are:

- Students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato, Basic science. Afternoon Section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School.
- English Teachers who teach to these groups

- **Subproblems**

From the general problem, we have derived the following subproblems:

Which kind of methodological strategies do the teachers use to develop the listening skill with the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science Afternoon Section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School?. Academic period 2010-2011

Which are the techniques that teachers use to work on the reading skill with the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School?. Academic period 2010-2011

b. JUSTIFICATION

The present research work is justified itself if we are aware that there are difficulties specially in the receptive skills with the students in the secondary school because they do not have a habit to read any kind of material in English, and they are not exposed to listen real language.

Since the educative point of view, it is important to develop the present project because in our reality we do not even have any kind of English library or English bookstore which can help us to inculcate in the student reading habits, which are very necessary in the learning of a second language.

Considering the scientific point of view the process for listening involves certain microskills, and we are aware that the secondary students are not able to understand the British and American accents in English, because there is not an application of the right strategies and techniques to help the students to develop these skills.

The education is facing serious trouble and most of the students in secondary High Schools receive little formation in reading and listening comprehension of the English Language, for that reason, they do not get even a basic level of learning the target language. So that it is so important since the social point of view the development of a research about this topic with the students of the selected High School.

We believe that the project is pertinent, because it is an innovative theme, and we count with the economic resources, the necessary time, the bibliography, and the knowledge to analyse with enough arguments the most viable alternatives of solution that will help the High School to improve the found problem.

Finally the research is justified because it is a previous requirement that we as undergraduates of the English career of the National University of Loja, need to obtain the Licentiate's degree in Sciences of Education: English Language speciality.

d. OBJECTIVES

GENERAL OBJECTIVE

To determine the methods applied by the English Teachers and their influence on the development of the receptive skills in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School. Academic period 2010-2011.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

- To find out the methodological strategies that teachers use to develop the listening skill in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School. Academic period 2010-2011.
- To establish the relation between the techniques used by the teachers and the development of the reading skill in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School. Academic period 2010-2011.

e. THEORETICAL FRAME

TRADITIONAL METHODOLOGY IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

As the names of some of its leading exponents suggest (Johann Seidenstucker, Karl Plotz, H. S. Ollendorf, and Johann Meidinger), Grammar translation was the offspring of German scholarship, the object of which, according to one of its less charitable critics, was “to know everything about something rather than the thing itself”⁵. Grammar Translation was in fact first known in the United States as the Prussian Method. The principal characteristics of the Grammar Translation Method were these:

- The goal of foreign language study is to learn a language in order to read its literature or in order to benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development that result from foreign language study. Grammar translation is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language. It hence views language learning as consisting of little more than memorizing rules and facts in order to understand and manipulate the morphology and syntax of the foreign language. “The first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language”(Stem 1983: 455).
- Reading and writing are the major focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening.
- Vocabulary selection is based solely on the reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual words lists, dictionary study, and memorization. In a typical Grammar –Translation text, the grammar rules are presented and illustrated, a list of vocabulary items is presented and illustrated with their translation equivalents.
- The sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice. Much of the lesson is devoted to translating sentences into and out of the target language, and it is this focus on the sentence

⁵RICHARDS Jack and S. ROGERS Theodore.“Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching”. Second Edition, Cambridge Language Teaching Library. Pag. 5.

that is a distinctive feature of the method. Earlier approaches to foreign language study used grammar as an aid to the study of texts in a foreign language.

- Accuracy is emphasized. Students are expected to attain high standards of accuracy which, as well as having an intrinsic moral value, was a prerequisite for passing the increasing number of formal written examinations that grew up during the century.
- Grammar is taught deductively – that is, by presentation and study of grammar rules which are then practiced through translation exercises. In most Grammar–Translation texts, a syllabus was followed for the sequencing of grammar points throughout a text, and there was an attempt to teach grammar in an organized and systematic way.
- The student’s native language is the medium of instruction. It is used to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the foreign languages and the student’s native language.

Grammar Translation dominated European and foreign language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s, and in modified form it continues to be widely used in some parts of the world today. At its best, as Howatt (1984) points out, it was not necessarily the horror that its critics depicted it as. Its worst excesses were introduced by those who wanted to demonstrate that the study of French or German was no less rigorous than the study of classical languages. This resulted in the type of Grammar-Translation courses remembered with distaste by thousands of school learners, for whom foreign language learning meant a tedious experience of memorizing endless lists of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary and attempting to produce perfect translations of stilted or literary prose. Although the Grammar-Translation Method often creates frustration for students, it makes few demands on teachers. It is still used in situations where understanding literary texts is the primary focus of foreign language study and there is little need for a speaking knowledge of the language. Contemporary texts for the teaching of foreign languages at the college level often reflect Grammar-Translation principles. These texts are frequently the products of people trained in literature rather than in language teaching or applied linguistics. Consequently, though it may be true to say that the Grammar-Translation Method is still widely practiced, it has no advocates. It is a method for which there is no theory. There is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it or that attempts to relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory.

THE DIRECT METHOD

Gouin had been one of the first of the nineteenth-century reformers attempt to build a methodology around observation of child language learning. Other reformers toward the end of the century likewise turned their attention to naturalistic principles of language learning, and for this reason they are sometimes referred to as advocates of a “natural” method. In fact, at various times throughout the history of language teaching, attempts have been made to make second language learning more like first language learning. In the sixteenth century, for example Montaigne described how he was entrusted to a guardian who addressee him exclusively in Latin for the first years of his life, since Montaigne's father wanted his son to speak Latin well. Among those who tried to apply natural principles to language classes in the nineteenth century was L. Sauveur (1826-1907), who used intensive oral interaction in the target language, employing questions as a way of presenting and eliciting language. He opened a language school in Boston in the late 1860s, and his method soon became referred to as the Natural Method.

Sauveur and other believers in the Natural Method argued that a foreign language could be taught without translation or the use of the learner's native language if meaning was conveyed directly through demonstration and action. The German scholar Franke wrote on the psychological principles of direct association between forms and meanings in the target language (1884) and provided a theoretical justification for a monolingual approach to teaching. According to Franke, a language could best be taught by using it actively in the classroom rather than using analytical procedures that focus on explanation of grammar rules in classroom teaching, teachers must encourage direct and spontaneous use of the foreign language in the classroom. Learners would then be able to induce rules of grammar. The teacher replaced the textbook in the early stages of learning. Speaking began with systematic attention to pronunciation. Known words could be used to teach new vocabulary, using mime, demonstration, and pictures.

These natural language learning principles provided the foundation for what came to be known as the Direct Method, which refers to the most widely known of the natural methods. Enthusiastic supporters of the Direct Method introduced it in France and Germany (it was officially approved in both countries

at the turn of the century), and it became widely known in the United States through its use by Sauveur and Maximilian Berlitz in successful commercial language schools. (Betitz, in fact, never used the term; he referred to the method used in his schools as the Berlitz Method.) In practice it stood for the following principles and procedures:

- Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language.
- Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.
- Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.
- Grammar was taught inductively.
- New teaching points were introduced orally.
- Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects and pictures.
- Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.
- Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized.

These principles are seen in the following guidelines for teaching oral language, which are still followed in contemporary Berlitz schools:

Never translate: demonstrate

Never explain: act

Never make a speech: ask questions

Never imitate mistakes: correct

Never speak with single words: use sentences

Never speak too much: make students speak much

Never use the book: use your lesson plan

Never jump around: follow your plan

(cited in Titone 1968: 100-101)

The Direct Method was quite successful in private language schools, such as those of the Berlitz chain, where paying clients had high motivation and the use of native-speaking teachers was the

norm. But despite pressure from proponents of the method, it was difficult to implement in public secondary school education. It overemphasized and distorted the similarities between naturalistic first language learning and classroom foreign language learning and failed to consider the practical realities theory, and for this reason it was often criticized by the more academically based proponents of the Reform Movement.

The Direct Method represented the product of enlightened amateurism. It was perceived to have several drawbacks. It required teachers who were native speakers or who had native like fluency in the foreign language. It was largely dependent on the teacher's skill, rather than on a textbook, and not all teachers were proficient enough in the foreign language to adhere to the principles of the method. Critics pointed out that strict adherence to Direct Method principles was often counterproductive, since teachers were required to go to great lengths to avoid using the native language, when sometimes a simple, brief explanation in the student's native language would have been a more efficient route to comprehension.

Although the Direct Method enjoyed popularity in Europe, not everyone embraced it enthusiastically. The British applied linguist Henry Sweet recognized its limitations. It offered innovations at the level of teaching procedures but lacked a thorough methodological basis. Its main focus was on the exclusive use of the target language in the classroom, but it failed to address many issues that Sweet thought more basic. Sweet and other applied linguists argued for the development of sound methodological principles that could serve as the basis for teaching techniques. In the 1920s and 1930s, applied linguists systematized the principles proposed earlier by the Reform Movement and so laid the foundations for what developed into the British approach to teaching English as a foreign language.

What became of the concept of method as foreign language teaching emerged as a significant educational issue in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries? We have seen from this historical survey some of the questions that prompted innovations and new directions in language teaching in the past:

- What should the goals of language teaching be? Should a language course try to teach conversational proficiency, reading, translation, or some other skill?
- What is the basic nature of language, and how will this affect the teaching method?
- What are the principles for the selection of language content in language teaching?

- What principles of organization, sequencing, and presentation best facilitate learning?
- What should the role of the native language be? What processes do learners use in mastering a language, and can these be incorporated into a method?
- What teaching techniques and activities work best and under what circumstances?

Particular teaching approaches and methods differ in the way they have addressed these issues from the late nineteenth century to the present, as we shall see throughout this book. "The Direct Method can be regarded as the first language teaching method to have caught the attention of teachers and language teaching specialists, and it offered a methodology that appeared to move language teaching into a new era. It marked the beginning of the "methods era."⁶

The Methods Era

One of the lasting legacies of the Direct Method was the notion of "method" itself. The controversy over the Direct Method was the first of many debates over how second and foreign languages should be taught. The history of language teaching throughout much of the twentieth century saw the rise and fall of a variety of language teaching approaches and methods, the major examples of which are described in this book. Common to most of them are the following assumptions:

- An approach or method refers to a theoretically consistent set of teaching procedures that define best practice in language teaching,
- Particular approaches and methods, if followed precisely, will lead to more effective levels of language learning than alternative ways of teaching.
- The quality of language teaching will improve if teachers use the best available approaches and methods.

The different teaching approaches and methods that have emerged in the last 60 or so years, while often having very different characteristics in terms of goals, assumptions about how a second language is learned, and preferred teaching techniques, have in common the belief that if language learning is to be improved, it will come about through changes and improvements in teaching methodology. This notion has been reinforced by professional organizations that endorse particular teaching approaches and methods, by academics who support some and reject others, by publishers

⁶RICHARDS Jack and S. ROGERS Theodore. "Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching". Second Edition, Cambridge Language Teaching Library. Pag. 14.

who produce and sell textbooks based on the latest teaching approaches and methods, and by teachers who are constantly looking for the "best" method of teaching a language. Lange comments:

*Foreign language teacher development... has a basic orientation to methods of teaching. Unfortunately, the latest bandwagon "methodologies" come into prominence without much study or understanding, particularly those that appear easiest to immediately apply in the classroom or those that are supported by a particular "guru" Although concern for method is certainly not a new issue, the current attraction to "method" stems from the late 1950s, when foreign language teachers were falsely led to believe that there was a methods to remedy the "language teaching and learning problems"*⁷

The most active period in the history of approaches and methods was from the 1950s to the 1980s. The 1950s and 1960s saw the emergence of the Audiolingual Method and the Situational Method, which were both superseded by the Communicative Approach. During the same period, other methods attracted smaller but equally enthusiastic followers, including the Silent Way, the Natural Approach, and Total Physical Response. In the 1990s, Content-Based Instruction and Task-Based Language Teaching emerged as new approaches to language teaching as did movements such as Competency-Based Instruction that focus on the outcomes of learning rather than methods of teaching. Other approaches, such as Cooperative Learning, Whole Language Approach, and Multiple Intelligences, originally developed in general education, have been extended to second language settings. These approaches and methods are discussed in Parts II and III of this book. By the 1990s, however, many applied linguists and language teachers moved away from a belief that newer and better approaches and methods are the solution to problems in language teaching. Alternative ways of understanding the nature of language teaching have emerged that are sometimes viewed as characterizing the "post-methods era." These are discussed in the final chapter of this book.

The arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach.

⁷RICHARDS Jack and S. ROGERS Theodore. "Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching". Second Edition, Cambridge Language Teaching Library. Pag. 15.

“An **approach** is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught”⁸.

“**Method** is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods”.⁹

“A **technique** is implementational - that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well”¹⁰.

According to Anthony's model, approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; technique is the level at which classroom procedures are described.

THE AUDIOLINGUAL METHOD

The Coleman Report in 1929 recommended a reading-based approach to foreign language teaching for use in American schools and colleges. This emphasized teaching the comprehension of texts. Teachers taught from books containing short reading passages in the foreign language, preceded by lists of vocabulary. Rapid silent reading was the goal, but in practice teachers often resorted to discussing the content of the passage in English. Those involved in the teaching of English as a second language in the United States between the two world wars used either a modified Direct Method approach, a reading-based approach, or a reading-oral approach (Darlan 1972), unlike the approach that was being developed by British applied linguists during the same period, there was little attempt to treat language content systematically. Sentence patterns and grammar were introduced in the textbook writer. There

⁸E. M. Anthony, “Approach, Method and Technique” English Language Teaching. 1963. pag 17.

⁹Idem.

¹⁰Idem

was no standardization of the vocabulary or grammar that was included. Neither was there a consensus on what grammar, sentence patterns, and vocabulary were most important for beginning, intermediate, or advanced learners.

The objective of the army programs was for students to attain conversational proficiency in a variety of foreign languages. Since this was not the goal of conventional foreign language courses in the United States, new approaches were necessary. Linguists, such as Leonard Bloomfield at Yale, had already developed training programs as part of their linguistic research that were designed to give linguists and anthropologists mastery of American Indian languages and other languages they were studying.

Textbooks did not exist for such languages. The technique Bloomfield and his colleagues used was sometimes known as the "informant method," since it used a native speaker of the language - the informant - who served as a source of phrases and vocabulary and who provided sentences for imitation, and a linguist, who supervised the learning experience. The linguist did not necessarily know the language but was trained in eliciting the basic structure of the language from the informant. Thus the students and the linguist were able to take part in guided conversation with the informant, and together they gradually learned how to speak the language, as well as to understand much of its basic grammar. Students in such courses studied 10 hours a day, 6 days a week. There were generally 15 hours of drill with native speakers and 20 to 30 hours of private study spread over two to three 6-week sessions. This was the system adopted by the army, and in small classes of mature and highly motivated students, excellent results were often achieved.

The Army Specialized Training Program lasted only about two years but attracted considerable attention in the popular press and in the academic community. For the next 10 years the "Army Method" and its suitability for use in regular language programs were discussed. But the linguists who developed the ASTP were not interested primarily in language teaching. The "methodology" of the Army Method, like the Direct Method, derived from the intensity of contact with the target language rather than from any well-developed methodological basis. It was a program innovative mainly in terms of the procedures used and the intensity of teaching rather than

in terms of its underlying theory. However, it did convince a number of prominent linguists of the value of an intensive, oral-based approach to the learning of a foreign language.

Michigan was not the only university involved in developing courses and materials for teaching English. A number of other similar programs were established, some of the earliest being at Georgetown University and America University, Washington, D.C., and at the University of Texas, Austin. The format the linguists involved in this project followed was known as the "general form": A lesson began with work on pronunciation, morphology, and grammar, followed by drills and exercises. The guidelines were published as *Structural Notes and Corpus: A Basis for the Preparation of Materials to Teach English as a Foreign Language* (American Council of Learned Societies 1952). This became an influential document and together with the "general form" was used as a guide to developing English courses for speakers of ten different languages (the famous Spoken Language series), published between 1953 and 1956 (Moulton 1961).

The approach developed by linguists at Michigan and other universities became known variously as the Oral Approach, the Aural-Oral Approach, and the Structural Approach. It advocated aural training first, then pronunciation training, followed by speaking, reading, and writing. Language was identified with speech, and speech was approached through structure. If there was any learning theory underlying the Aural-Oral materials, it was a commonsense application of the idea that practice makes perfect. There is no explicit reference to then-current learning theory in Fries's work. It was the incorporation of the linguistic principles of the Aural-Oral approach, with state-of-the-art psychological learning theory in the mid-1950s that led to the method that came to be known as Audiolingualism.

The emergence of the Audiolingual Method resulted from the increased attention given to foreign language teaching in the United States toward the end of the 1950s. The need for a radical change and rethinking of foreign language teaching methodology (most of which was still linked to the Reading Method) was prompted by the launching of the first Russian satellite in 1957. They drew on the earlier experience of the army programs and the Aural-Oral or Structural Approach developed by Fries and his colleagues, adding insights taken from behaviorist psychology. This combination of structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures, and behaviorist psychology led to the Audiolingual Method. Audiolingualism (the term was coined by Professor Nelson Brooks in 1964) claimed to have

transformed language teaching from an art into a science, which would enable learners to achieve mastery of a foreign language effectively and efficiently. The method was widely adopted for teaching foreign languages in North American colleges and universities. It provided the methodological foundation for materials for the teaching of foreign languages at the college and university level in the United States and Canada, and its principles formed the basis of such widely used series as the Lado English Series (Lado 1977) and English 900 (English Language Services 1964). Although the method began to fall from favor in the late 1960s for reasons we shall discuss later, Audiolingualism and materials based on audiolingual principles continue to be used today. Let us examine the features of the Audiolingual Method at the levels of approach, design, and procedure.

Theory of Learning

The language teaching theoreticians and methodologists who developed Audiolingualism not only had a convincing and powerful theory of language to draw upon but they were also working in a period when a prominent school of American psychology - known as behavioral psychology - claimed to have tapped the secrets of all human learning, including language learning. Behaviorism, like structural linguistics, is another antimentalist, empirically based approach to the study of human behavior. To the behaviorist, the human being is an organism capable of a wide repertoire of behaviors. The occurrence of these behaviors is dependent on three crucial elements in learning: a stimulus, which serves to elicit behavior; a response triggered by a stimulus; and reinforcement, which serves to mark the response as being appropriate (or inappropriate) and encourages the repetition (or suppression) of the response in the future (see Skinner 1957; Brown 1980).

Reinforcement is a vital element in the learning process, because it increases the likelihood that the behavior will occur again and eventually become a habit. To apply this theory to language learning is to identify the organism as the foreign language learner, the behavior as verbal behavior, the stimulus as what is taught or presented of the foreign language, the response as the learner's reaction to the stimulus, and the reinforcement as the extrinsic approval and praise of the teacher or fellow students or the intrinsic self-satisfaction of target language use.

Language mastery is represented as acquiring a set of appropriate language stimulus-response chains.

Among the more central points are the following:

1. Foreign language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation. Good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes. By memorizing dialogues and performing pattern drills the chances of producing mistakes are minimized. Language is verbal behavior - that is, the automatic production and comprehension of utterances - and can be learned by inducing the students to do likewise.
2. Language skills are learned more effectively if the items to be learned in the target language are presented in spoken form before they are seen in written form. Aural-oral training is needed to provide the foundation for the development of other language skills.
3. Analogy provides a better foundation for language learning than analysis. Analogy involves the processes of generalization and discrimination. Explanations of rules are therefore not given until students have practiced a pattern in a variety of contexts and are thought to have acquired a perception of the analogies involved. Drills can enable learners to form correct analogies. Hence the approach to the teaching of grammar is essentially inductive rather than deductive.
4. The meanings that the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context and not in isolation. Teaching a language thus involves teaching aspects of the cultural system of the people who speak the language. (Rivers 1964: 19-22)

In advocating these principles, proponents of Audiolingualism were drawing on the theory of a well-developed school of American psychology - behaviorism. The prominent Harvard behaviorist *B. F. Skinner* had elaborated a theory of learning applicable to language learning in his influential book *Verbal Behavior* (1957), in which he stated, "We have no reason to assume . . . that verbal behavior differs in any fundamental respect from non-verbal behaviour, or that any new principles must be invoked to account for it" (1957: 10). Armed with a powerful theory of the

nature of language and of language learning, audiolingualists could now turn to the design of language teaching courses and materials.

Techniques and Learning Activities

Dialogues and drills form the basis of audiolingual classroom practices. Dialogues provide the means of contextualizing key structures and illustrate situations in which structures might be used as well as some cultural aspects of the target language. Dialogues are used for repetition and memorization. Correct pronunciation, stress, rhythm, and intonation are emphasized. After a dialogue has been presented and memorized, specific grammatical patterns in the dialogue are selected and become the focus of various kinds of drill and pattern-practice exercises.

The use of drills and pattern practice is a distinctive feature of the Audiolingual Method. Various kinds of drills are used. Brooks (1964: 156-61) includes the following:

Repetition. The student repeats an utterance aloud as soon as he has heard it. He does this without looking at a printed text. The utterance must be brief enough to be retained by the ear. Sound is as important as form and order. Example: This is the seventh month. - This is the seventh month. After a student has repeated an utterance, he may repeat it again and add a few words, then repeat that whole utterance and add more words. Examples:

I used to know him. -I used to know him.

I used to know him *years ago*. -I used to know him *years ago when* we were in school. . . .

Inflection. One word in an utterance appears in another form when repeated. Examples:

I bought the ticket. -I bought the tickets.

He bought the candy. -She bought the candy.

I called the young man. -I called the young men. . . .

Replacement. One word in an utterance is replaced by another. Examples:

He bought this house cheap. -He bought it cheap.

Helen left early. -She left early.

They gave their 6055 a watch. -They gave him a watch. . . .

Restatement. The student rephrases an utterance and addresses it to someone else, according to instructions. Example:

Tell him to wait for you. -Wait for me.

Ask her how old she is. -How old are you?

Ask John when he began. -John, when did you begin? . . .

Completion. The student hears an utterance that is complete except for one word, then repeats the utterance in completed form. Example:

I'll go my way and you go. ... -I'll go my way and you go yours.

We all have . . . own troubles. -We all have our own troubles. . . .

Transposition. A change in word order is necessary when a word is added. Examples:

I'm hungry, (so). -So am I.

I'll never do it again, (neither). -Neither will I. ...

Expansion. When a word is added it takes a certain place in the sequence. Examples:

I know him. (hardly). -I hardly know him,

I know him. (well). -I know him well. . . .

Contraction. A single word stands for a phrase or clause. Examples:

Put your hand on the table. -Put your hand there. They believe that the earth is flat. -

They believe it. . . .

Transformation. A sentence is transformed by being made negative or interrogative or through changes in tense, mood, voice, aspect, or modality. Examples:

He knows my address. He doesn't know my address. Does he know my address? He used to know my address. If he had known my address.

Integration. Two separate utterances are integrated into one. Examples:

They must be honest. This is important. -It is important that they be honest. I know that man. He is looking for you. -I know the man who is looking for you. . . .

Rejoinder. The student makes an appropriate rejoinder to a given utterance. He is told in advance to respond in one of the following ways:

Be polite.

Answer the question.

Agree.

Agree emphatically.

Express surprise.

Express regret.

Disagree. Disagree emphatically. Question what is said. Fail to understand.

BE POLITE. Examples

Thank you. -You're welcome

May I take one? -Certainly.

ANSWER THE QUESTION. Examples

What is your name? -My name is Smith.

Where did it happen? -In the middle of the street.

AGREE. Examples

He's following us. -I think you're right. This is good coffee. -It's very good. . . .

Restoration. The student is given a sequence of words that have been culled from a sentence but still bear its basic meaning. He uses these words with a minimum of changes and additions to restore the sentence to its original form. He may be told whether the time is present, past, or future. Examples:

students/waiting/bus -The students are waiting for the bus

boys/build/house/tree-The boys built a house in a tree. ...

TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE

Total Physical Response (TPR) is a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action; it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activity. Developed by James Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, California, it draws on several traditions, including developmental psychology, learning theory, and humanistic pedagogy, as well as on language teaching procedures proposed by Harold and Dorothy Palmer in 1925. In a developmental sense, Asher sees successful adult second language learning as a parallel process to child first language acquisition. He claims that speech directed to young children consists primarily of commands, which children respond to physically before they begin to produce verbal responses. Asher feels that adults should recapitulate the processes by which children acquire their native language.

Approach: Theory of Language and Learning

TPR reflects a grammar-based view of language. Asher states that “most of the grammatical structure of the target language and hundreds of vocabulary items can be learned from the skillful use of the imperative by the instructor”¹¹ (1977: 4). He views the verb, and particularly the verb in the imperative, as the central linguistic motive around which language use and learning are organized.

¹¹RICHARDS Jack and S. ROGERS Theodore. “Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching”. Second Edition, Cambridge Language Teaching Library. Pag. 75.

Asher sees a stimulus-response view as providing the learning theory underlying language teaching pedagogy. TPR can also be linked to the "trace theory" of memory in psychology (e.g., Katona 1940), which holds that the more often or the more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be recalled. Retracing can be done verbally (e.g., by rote repetition) and/or in association with motor activity. Combined tracing activities, such as verbal rehearsal accompanied by motor activity, hence increase the possibility of successful recall.

In addition, Asher has elaborated an account of what he feels facilitates or inhibits foreign language learning. For this dimension of his learning theory he draws on three rather influential learning hypotheses:

1. There exists a specific innate bio-program for language learning, which defines an optimal path for first and second language development.
2. Brain lateralization defines different learning functions in the left- and right-brain hemispheres.
3. Stress (an affective filter) intervenes between the act of learning and what is to be learned; the lower the stress, the greater the learning.

Let us consider how Asher views each of these in turn.

Asher's Total Physical Response is a "Natural Method", inasmuch as Asher sees first and second language learning as parallel processes. Asher sees three processes as central:

1. Children develop listening competence before they develop the ability to speak. At the early stages of first language acquisition, they can understand complex utterances that they cannot spontaneously produce or imitate.
2. Children's ability in listening comprehension is acquired because children are required to respond physically to spoken language in the form of parental commands.
3. Once a foundation in listening comprehension has been established, speech evolves naturally and effortlessly out of it.

Parallel to the processes of first language learning, the foreign language learner should first internalize a "cognitive map" of the target language through listening exercises. Listening should be accompanied by physical movement. Speech and other productive skills should come later.

Asher bases these assumptions on his belief in the existence in the human brain of a bio-program for language, which defines an optimal order for first and second language learning.

Asher sees Total Physical Response as directed to right-brain learning, whereas most second language teaching methods are directed to left-brain learning. Drawing on work by Jean Piaget, Similarly, the adult should proceed to language mastery through right-hemisphere motor activities, while the left hemisphere watches and learns. When a sufficient amount of right-hemisphere learning has taken place, the left hemisphere will be triggered to produce language and to initiate other, more abstract language processes.

An important condition for successful language learning is the absence of stress. First language acquisition takes place in a stress-free environment, according to Asher, whereas the adult language learning environment often causes considerable stress and anxiety. The key to stress-free learning is to tap into the natural bio-program for language development and thus to recapture the relaxed and pleasurable experiences that accompany first language learning. By focusing on meaning interpreted through movement, rather than on language forms studied in the abstract, the learner is said to be liberated from self-conscious and stressful situations and is able to devote full energy to learning.

Design: Objectives, Syllabus, Techniques and Learning Activities, Roles of Learners, Teachers, and Materials

The general objectives of Total Physical Response are to teach oral proficiency at a beginning level. Comprehension is a means to an end, and the ultimate aim is to teach basic speaking skills. A TPR course aims to produce learners who are capable of an uninhibited communication that is intelligible to a native speaker. Specific instructional objectives are not elaborated, for these will depend on the particular needs of the learners. Whatever goals are set, however, must be attainable through the use of action-based drills in the imperative form.

Asher also suggests that a fixed number of items be introduced at a time, to facilitate ease of differentiation and assimilation. "In an hour, it is possible for students to assimilate 12 to 36 new lexical items, depending upon the size of the group and the stage of training", (Asher 1977: 42).

A course designed around Total Physical Response principles, however, would not be expected to follow a TPR syllabus exclusively.

Imperative drills are the major classroom activity in Total Physical Response. They are typically used to elicit physical actions and activity on the part of the learners. Conversational dialogues are delayed until after about 120 hours of instruction. Other class activities include role plays and slide presentations. Role plays center on everyday situations, such as at the restaurant, supermarket, or gas station.

Learners in Total Physical Response have the primary roles of listener and performer. They listen attentively and respond physically to commands given by the teacher. Learners are also expected to recognize and respond to novel combinations of previously taught items. They are required to produce novel combinations of their own. Learners monitor and evaluate their own progress. They are encouraged to speak when they feel ready to speak - that is, when a sufficient basis in the language has been internalized. The teacher plays an active and direct role in Total Physical Response. It is the teacher who decides what to teach, who models and presents the new materials, and who selects supporting materials for classroom use. Asher recommends detailed lesson plans: "It is wise to write out the exact utterances you will be using and especially the novel commands because the action is so fast-moving there is usually not time for you to create spontaneously" (1977: 47).

Asher stresses, however, that the teacher's role is not so much to teach as to provide opportunities for learning. The teacher has the responsibility of providing the best kind of exposure to language so that the learner can internalize the basic rules of the target language. Thus the teacher controls the language input the learners receive, providing the raw material for the "cognitive map" that the learners will construct in their own minds. The teacher should also allow speaking abilities to develop in learners at the learners' own natural pace.

In giving feedback to learners, the teacher should follow the example of parents giving feedback to their children. At first, parents correct very little, but as the child grows older, parents are said to tolerate fewer mistakes in speech. Similarly, teachers should refrain from too much correction

in the early stages and should not interrupt to correct errors, since this will inhibit learners. As time goes on, however, more teacher intervention is expected, as the learners' speech becomes "fine-tuned."

There is generally no basic text in a Total Physical Response course.

Materials and realia play an increasing role, however, in later learning stages. For absolute beginners, lessons may not require the use of materials, since the teacher's voice, actions, and gestures may be a sufficient basis for classroom activities. Later, the teacher may use common classroom objects, such as books, pens, cups, furniture. As the course develops, the teacher will need to make or collect supporting materials to support teaching points. These may include pictures, realia, slides, and word charts. Asher has developed TPR student kits that focus on specific situations, such as the home, the supermarket, the beach. Students may use the kits to construct scenes (e.g., "Put the stove in the kitchen").

Procedure

Asher (1977) provides a lesson-by-lesson account of a course taught according to TPR principles, which serves as a source of information on the procedures used in the TPR classroom. The course was for adult immigrants and consisted of 159 hours of classroom instruction. The sixth class in the course proceeded in the following way:

Review. This was a fast-moving warm-up in which individual students were "moved" with commands such as:

Pablo, drive your car around Miako and honk your horn.

Jeff, throw the red flower to Maria.

Maria, scream.

Rita, pick up the knife and spoon and put them in the cup.

Eduardo, take a drink of water and give the cup to Elaine.

New commands. These verbs were introduced.

Wash your hands, your face, your hair.

Look for a towel, the soap. a comb

hold the book, the cup. the soap,

combyour hair. Maria's hair. Shirou's hair,

brushyour teeth, your pants, the table.

Other items introduced were:

Rectangle Draw a rectangle on the chalkboard, Pick up a rectangle from the table and give it to me.

Triangle Pick up the triangle from the table and give it to me, Catch the triangle and put it next to the rectangle.

Slowly walk to me and hit me on the arm.

Toothpaste Throw the toothpaste to Wing, look for the toothpaste

Next, the instructor asked simple questions which the student could answer with a gesture such as pointing. Examples would be:

Where is the towel? [Eduardo, point to the rowel!]

Where is the toothbrush? [Miako, point to the toothbrush.]

Where is Dolores?

Role reversal. Students readily volunteered to utter commands that manipulated the behavior of the instructor and other students. . . .

Reading and writing. The instructor wrote on the chalkboard each new vocabulary item and a sentence to illustrate the item. Then she spoke each item and acted out the sentence. The students listened as she read the material. Some copied the information in their notebooks.

Total Physical Response enjoyed some popularity in the 1970s and 1980s because of its support by those who emphasize the role of comprehension in second language acquisition. Krashen (1981), for example, regards provision of comprehensible input and reduction of stress as keys to successful language acquisition, and he sees performing physical actions in the target language as a means of making input comprehensible and minimizing stress. Asher stressed that Total Physical Response should be used in association with other methods and techniques. Indeed, practitioners of TPR typically follow this recommendation, suggesting that for many teachers TPR represents a useful set of techniques and is compatible with other approaches to teaching. TPR practices therefore may be effective for reasons other than those proposed by Asher and do not necessarily demand commitment to the learning theories used to justify them.

THE SILENT WAY

The Silent Way is the name of a method of language teaching devised by Caleb Gattegno. It is based on the premise that the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom but the learner should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible. Elements of the Silent Way, particularly the use of color chains and the colored Cuisenaire rods, grew out of Gattegno's previous experience as an educational designer of reading and mathematics programs. The Silent Way shares a great deal with other learning theories and educational philosophies. Very broadly put, the learning hypotheses underlying Gattegno's work could be stated as follows:

1. Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned.
2. Learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical objects.
3. Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned.

Let us consider each of these issues in turn.

1. The Silent Way belongs to a tradition that views learning as a problem-solving, creative, discovering activity, in which the learner is a principal actor rather than a bench-bound

listener (Bruner 1966). Bruner discusses the benefits derived from "discovery learning" under four headings: (a) the increase in intellectual potency, (b) the shift from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards, (c) the learning of heuristics by discovering, and (d) the aid to conserving memory (Bruner 1966: 83). Gattegno claims similar benefits from learners taught via the Silent Way.

2. The rods and the color-coded pronunciation charts (called Fidel charts) provide physical foci for student learning and also create memorable images to facilitate student recall. In psychological terms, these visual devices serve as associative mediators for student learning and recall.
3. The Silent Way is also related to a set of premises that we have called "problem-solving approaches to learning." These premises are succinctly represented in the words of Benjamin Franklin:

Tell me and I forget, reach me and I remember, involve me and I learn.

Approach: Theory of Language and Learning

Gattegno takes an openly skeptical view of the role of linguistic theory in language teaching methodology. He feels that linguistic studies "maybe a specialization [that] carry with them a narrow opening of one's sensitivity and perhaps serve very little towards the broad end in mind" (Gattegno 1972: 84). Considerable discussion is devoted to the importance of grasping the "spirit" of the language, and not just its component forms. By the "spirit" of the language Gattegno is referring to the way each language is composed of phonological and suprasegmental elements that combine to give the language its unique sound system and melody. The learner must gain a "feel" for this aspect of the target language as soon as possible.

By looking at the material chosen and the sequence in which it is presented in a Silent Way classroom, it is clear that the Silent Way takes a structural approach to the organization of language to be taught. The sentence is the basic unit of teaching, and the teacher focuses on prepositional meaning, rather than communicative value. Students are presented with the structural patterns of the target language learn the grammar rules of the language through largely inductive processes.

Gattegno sees vocabulary as a central dimension of language learning and the choice of vocabulary as crucial. The most important vocabulary for the learner deals with the most functional and versatile words of the language, many of which may not have direct equivalents in the learner's native language. This "functional vocabulary" provides a key, says Gattegno, to comprehending the "spirit" of the language.

Having referred to these processes, however, Gattegno states that the processes of learning a second language are "radically different" from those involved in learning a first language. The second language learner is unlike the first language learner and "cannot learn another language in the same way because of what he now knows" (Gattegno 1972:11). The "natural" or "direct" approaches to acquiring a second language are thus misguided, says Gattegno, and a successful second language approach will "replace a 'natural' approach by one that is very 'artificial' and, for some purposes, strictly controlled" (1972: 12).

The "artificial approach" that Gattegno proposes is based on the principle that successful learning involves commitment of the self to language acquisition through the use of silent awareness and then active trial. Gattegno's repeated emphasis on the primacy of learning over teaching places a focus on the self of the learner, on the learner's priorities and commitments. The self, we are told, consists of two systems a learning system and a retaining system. The learning system is activated only by way of intelligent awareness. Silence is considered the best vehicle for learning, because in silence students concentrate on the task to be accomplished and the potential means to its accomplishment. Repetition (as opposed to silence) "consumes time and encourages the scattered mind to remain scattered" (Gattegno 1976: 80). Silence, as avoidance of repetition, is thus an aid to alertness, concentration, and mental organization.

Awareness is educable. As one learns "in awareness," one's powers awareness and one's capacity to learn become greater. The Silent Way thus claims to facilitate what psychologists

call "learning to learn." Again, the process chain that develops awareness proceeds from attention, production, self-correction, and absorption.

Design: Objectives, Syllabus, Techniques and Learning Activities

The general objective of the Silent Way is to give beginning-level students oral and aural facility in basic elements of the target language. The general goal set for language learning is near-native fluency in the target language, and correct pronunciation and master of the prosodic elements of the target language are emphasized. An immediate objective is to provide the learner with a basic practical knowledge of the grammar. Gattegno discusses the following kinds of objectives as appropriate for a language course at an elementary level (Gattegno 1972: 81-83). Students should be able to correctly and easily answer questions about themselves, their education their family, travel, and daily events; speak with a good accent; give either a written or an oral description of a picture, "including the existing relationships that concern space, time and numbers"; answer general questions about the culture and the literature of the native speakers of the target language; perform adequately in the following areas: spelling, grammar (production rather than explanation), reading comprehension, and writing.

The Silent Way adopts a basically structural syllabus, with lessons planned around grammatical items and related vocabulary. Gattegno does not, however, provide details as to the precise selection and arrangement of grammatical and lexical items to be covered. But language items are introduced according to their grammatical complexity, their relation-ship to what has been taught previously, and the ease with which items can be presented visually.

The following is a section of a Peace Corps Silent Way Syllabus for the first 10 hours of instruction in Thai. It was used to teach American Peace Corps volunteers being trained to teach in Thailand. At least 15 minutes or every hour of instruction would be spent on pronunciation. A word that is italicized can be substituted for by another word having the same function.

Lesson

Vocabulary

- | | |
|--|--------------------------|
| ➤ 1. Wood color red. | Wood, red, green, yellow |
| ➤ 2. Using the numbers 1-10. | one, two, three..... |
| ➤ Wood color red two pieces. | |
| ➤ 4. Take (pick up) wood color red two pieces. | Take, (pick up) |
| ➤ 5. Take wood color red two pieces give him. | Give, object pronoun |

Learning tasks and activities in the Silent Way have the function of encouraging and shaping student oral response without direct oral instruction from or unnecessary modeling by the teacher. Basic to the method are simple linguistic tasks in which the teacher models a word, phrase, or sentence and then elicits learner responses. Learners then go on to create their own utterances by putting together old and new information. Charts, rods, and other aids may be used to elicit learner responses. Teacher modeling is minimal, although much of the activity may be teacher-directed. Responses to commands, questions, and visual cues thus constitute the basis for classroom activities.

Learners are expected to develop independence, autonomy, and responsibility. Independent learners are those who are aware that they must depend on their own resources and realize that they can use "the knowledge of their own language to open up some things in a new language" or that they can "take their knowledge of the first few words in the new language and figure out additional words by using that knowledge" (Stevick 1980: 42).

The teacher uses gestures, charts, and manipulatives in order to elicit and shape student responses and so must be both facile and creative as a pantomimist and puppeteer. In sum, the Silent Way teacher, like the complete dramatist, writes the script, chooses the props, sets the mood, models the action, designates the players, and is critic for the performance.

Procedure

A Silent Way lesson typically follows a standard format. The first part of the lesson focuses on pronunciation. Depending on student level, the class might work on sounds, phrases, even sentences designated on the Fidel chart. At the beginning stage, the teacher will model the appropriate sound after pointing to a symbol on the chart. Later, the teacher will silently point to individual symbols and combinations of utterances, and monitor student utterances. The teacher may say a word and have students guess what sequence of symbols comprised the word.

The pointer is used to indicate stress, phrasing, and intonation. Stress can be shown by touching certain symbols more forcibly than others

when pointing out a word. Intonation and phrasing can be demonstrated by tapping on the chart to the rhythm of the utterance.

After practice with the sounds of the language, sentence patterns, structure, and vocabulary are practiced. The teacher models an utterance while creating a visual realization of it with the colored rods. After modeling the utterance, the teacher will have a student attempt to produce the utterance and will indicate its acceptability. If a response is incorrect, the teacher will attempt to reshape the utterance or have another student present the correct model. After a structure is introduced and understood, the teacher will create a situation in which the students can practice the structure through the manipulation of the rods. Variations on the structural theme will be elicited from the class using the rods and charts.

The sample lesson that follows illustrates a typical lesson format. The language being taught is Thai, for which this is the first lesson.

- Teacher empties rods onto the table.
- Teacher picks up two or three rods of different colors, and after each rod is picked up says: [mai].
- Teacher holds up one rod of any color and indicates to a student that a response is required. Student says: [mai]. If response is incorrect, teacher elicits response from another student, who then models for the first student.

- Teacher next picks up a red rod and 'says: [maisiidaeng].
- Teacher picks up a green rod and says: [maisiikhiaw].
- Teacher picks up either a red or green rod and elicits response from student. If response is incorrect, procedure in step 3 is followed (student modeling).
- Teacher introduces two or three other colors in the same manner.
- Teacher shows any of the rods whose forms were taught previously and elicits student response. Correction technique is through student modeling, or the teacher may help student isolate error and self-correct.
- When mastery is achieved, teacher puts one red rod in plain view and says: [maisiidaengnung an].
- Teacher then puts two red rods in plain view and says: [maisiidaeng song an].
- Teacher places two green rods in view and says [maisiikhiaw song an].
- Teacher holds up two rods of a different color and elicits student response.
- Teacher introduces additional numbers, based on what the class can comfortably retain. Other colors might also be introduced.
- Rods are put in a pile. Teacher indicates, through his or her own actions, that rods should be picked up, and the correct utterance made. All the students in the group pick up rods and make utterances. Peer-group correction is encouraged.
- Teacher then says: (kepmaisiidaeng song an).
- Teacher indicates that a student should give the teacher the rods called for. Teacher asks other students in the class to give him or her the rods that he or she asks for. This is all done in the target language through unambiguous actions on the part of the teacher.
- Teacher now indicates that the students should give each other commands regarding the calling for of rods. Rods are put at the disposal of the class.
- Experimentation is encouraged. Teacher speaks only to correct an incorrect utterance, if no peer-group correction is forthcoming.

(Joel Wiskin, personal communication)

Despite the philosophical and sometimes almost metaphysical quality of much of Gattegno's writings, the actual practices of the Silent Way are much less revolutionary than might be expected. Working from what is a rather traditional structural and lexical syllabus, the method

exemplifies many of the features that characterize more traditional methods, such as Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingualism, with a strong focus on accurate repetition of sentences modeled initially by the teacher and a movement through guided elicitation exercises to freer communication. The innovations in Gattegno's method derive primarily from the manner in which classroom activities are organized, the indirect role the teacher is required to assume in directing and monitoring learner performance, the responsibility placed on learners to figure out and test their hypotheses about how the language works, and the materials used to elicit and practice language.

SUGGESTOPEDIA

Suggestopedia, also known as Desuggestopedia, is a method developed by the Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator Georgi Lozanov. Suggestopedia is a specific set of learning recommendations derived from Suggestology, which Lozanov describes as a "science . . . concerned with the systematic study of the nonrational and/or nonconscious influences" that human beings are constantly responding to (Stevick 1976: 42). Suggestopedia tries to harness these influences and redirect them so as to optimize learning. The most conspicuous characteristics of Suggestopedia are the decoration, furniture, and arrangement of the classroom, the use of music, and the authoritative behavior of the teacher. The claims for suggestopedic learning are dramatic. "There is no sector of public life where suggestology would not be useful" (Lozanov 1978: 2). "*Memorization in learning by the suggestopedic method seems to be accelerated 25 times over that in learning by conventional methods*" (Lozanov 1978: 27).

Lozanov acknowledges ties in tradition to yoga and Soviet psychology. From raja-yoga Lozanov has borrowed and modified techniques for altering states of consciousness and concentration, and the use of rhythmic breathing. From Soviet psychology Lozanov has taken the notion that all students can be taught a given subject matter at the same level of skill. Lozanov claims that his method works equally well whether or not students spend time on

outside study. He promises success through Suggestopedia to the academically gifted and the ungifted alike.

A most conspicuous feature of Suggestopedia is the centrality of music and musical rhythm to learning. Suggestopedia thus has a kinship with other functional uses of music, particularly therapy. Gaston (1968) defines three functions of music in therapy: to facilitate the establishment and maintenance of personal relations; to bring about increased self-esteem through increased self-satisfaction in musical performance; and to use the unique potential of rhythm to energize and bring order. This last function seems to be the one that Lozanov calls upon in his use of music to relax learners as well as to structure, pace, and punctuate the presentation of linguistic material.

Approach: Theory of language and learning

Lozanov does not articulate a theory of language, nor does it seem that he is much concerned with any particular assumptions regarding language elements and their organization. The emphasis on memorization of vocabulary pairs - a target language item and its native language translation - suggests a view of language in which lexis is central and in which lexical translation rather than contextualization is stressed. However, Lozanov does occasionally refer to the importance of experiencing language material in "whole meaningful texts" (Lozanov 1978: 268) and notes that the suggestopedic course directs "the student not to vocabulary memorization and acquiring habits of speech, but to acts of communication" (1978: 109).

In describing course work and text organization Lozanov refers most often to the language to be learned as "the material" (e.g., "The new material that is to be learned is read or recited by a well-trained teacher") (Lozanov 1978: 270). The sample protocol given for an Italian lesson (Lozanov 1978) does not suggest a theory of language markedly different from that which holds a language to be its vocabulary and the grammar rules for organizing vocabulary.

Design: Objectives, Syllabus, Techniques and Learning Activities, Roles of teachers, and Materials.

The objectives of Suggestopedia are to deliver advanced conversational proficiency quickly. It bases its learning claims on student mastery of prodigious lists of vocabulary pairs and, indeed, suggests to the students that it is appropriate that they set such goals for themselves. Lozanov emphasizes, however, that increased memory power is not an isolated skill but is a result of "positive, comprehensive stimulation of personality" (Lozanov 1978: 253).

A Suggestopedia course lasts 30 days and consists of ten units of study. Classes are held 4 hours a day, 6 days a week. The central focus of each unit is a dialogue consisting of 1,200 words or so, with an accompanying vocabulary list and grammatical commentary. The dialogues are graded by lexis and grammar.

There is a pattern of work within each unit and a pattern of work for the whole course. Unit study is organized around 3 days: day 1-half a day, day 2-full day, day 3-half a day. On the first day of work on a new unit the teacher discusses the general content (not structure) of the unit dialogue. The learners then receive the printed dialogue with a native language translation in a parallel column. The teacher answers any questions of interest or concern about the dialogue. The dialogue then is read a second and third time in ways to be discussed subsequently. This is the work for day 1. Days 2 and 3 are spent in primary and secondary elaboration of the text. Primary elaboration consists of imitation, question and answer, reading, and so on, of the dialogue and of working with the 150 new vocabulary items presented in the unit. The secondary elaboration involves encouraging students to make new combinations and productions based on the dialogues. A story or essay paralleling the dialogue is also read. The students engage in conversation and take small roles in response to the text read.

During the course there are two opportunities for generalization of material. In the middle of the course students are encouraged to practice the target language in a setting where it might be used, such as hotels or restaurants. The last day of the course is devoted to a performance in which every student participates. The students construct a play built on the material of the

course. Rules and parts are planned, but students are expected to speak extempore rather than from memorized lines. Written tests are also given throughout the course, and these and the performance are reviewed on the final day of the course.

Learners' roles are carefully prescribed. The mental state of the learners is critical to success, which is why learners must forgo mind-altering substances and other distractions and immerse themselves in the procedures of the method. Learners must not try to figure out, manipulate, or study the material presented but must maintain a pseudo-passive state, in which the material rolls over and through them. Students are expected to tolerate and in fact encourage their own "infantilization." In part this is accomplished by acknowledging the absolute authority of the teacher and in part by giving themselves over to activities and techniques designed to help them regain the self-confidence, spontaneity, and receptivity of the child. Such activities include role playing, games, songs, and gymnastic exercises (Bancroft 1972: 19).

The primary role of the teacher is to create situations in which the learner is most suggestible and then to present linguistic material in a way most likely to encourage positive reception and retention by the learner.

Lozanov lists several expected teacher behaviors that contribute to these presentations.

1. Show absolute confidence in the method.
2. Display fastidious conduct in manners and dress.
3. Organize properly and strictly observe the initial stages of the teaching process - this includes choice and play of music, as well as punctuality.
4. Maintain a solemn attitude toward the session.
5. Give tests and respond tactfully to poor papers (if any).
6. Stress global rather than analytical attitudes toward material.
7. Maintain a modest enthusiasm.

Materials consist of direct support materials, primarily text and tape, and indirect support materials, including classroom fixtures and music.

The text is organized around the ten units described earlier. The textbook should have emotional force, literary quality, and interesting characters. Language problems should be introduced in a way that does not worry or distract students from the content, "*Traumatic themes and distasteful lexical material should be avoided*" (Lozanov 1978: 278). *Each unit should be governed by a single idea featuring a variety of subthemes, "the way it is in life"*.

Although not language materials per se, the learning environment plays such a central role in Suggestopedia that the important elements of the environment need to be briefly enumerated. The environment (the indirect support materials) comprises the appearance of the classroom (bright and cheery), the furniture (reclining chairs arranged in a circle), and the music (Baroque largo).

Procedure

As with other methods we have examined, there are variants both historical and individual in the actual conduct of Suggestopedia classes. Adaptations such as those we witnessed in Toronto by Jane Bancroft and her 104 colleagues at Scarborough College, University of Toronto, showed a wide and diversified range of techniques unattested to in Lozanov's writings. We have tried here to characterize a class as described in the Suggestopedia literature while pointing out where the actual classes we have observed varied considerably from the description. Bancroft (1972) notes, that the 4-hour language class has three distinct parts. The **first part** we might call an oral review section. Previously learned material is used as the basis for discussion by the teacher and twelve students in the class. All participants sit in a circle in their specially designed chairs, and the discussion proceeds like a seminar. This session may involve what are called micro-studies and macro-studies. In micro-studies specific attention is given to grammar, vocabulary, and precise questions and answers. A question from a micro-study might be, "*What should one do in a hotel room if the bathroom taps are not working?*" In the macro-studies, emphasis is on role playing and wider-ranging, innovative language constructions. "*Describe to someone the Boyana church*" (one of Bulgaria's most well known medieval churches) would be an example of a request for information from the macro-studies.

In the second part of the class new material is presented and discussed. This consists of looking over a new dialogue and its native language translation and discussing any issues of grammar, vocabulary, or content that the teacher feels important or that students are curious about. Bancroft notes that this section is typically conducted in the target language, although student questions or comments will be in whatever language the student feels he or she can handle. Students are led to view the experience of dealing with the new material as interesting and undemanding of any special effort or anxiety. The teacher's attitude and authority are considered critical to preparing students for success in the learning to come. The pattern of learning and use is noted (i.e., fixation, reproduction, and new creative production), so that students will know what is expected.

The third part the séance or concert session is the one by which Suggestopedia is best known. Since this constitutes the heart of the method, we will quote Lozanov as to how this session proceeds.

At the beginning of the session, all conversation stops for a minute or two, and the teacher listens to the music coming from a Tape-recorder. He waits and listens to several passages in order to enter into the mood of the music and then begins to read or recite the new text, his voice modulated in harmony with the musical phrases. The students follow the text in their textbooks where each lesson is translated into the mother tongue. Between the first and second part of the concert, there are several minutes of solemn silence. In some cases, even longer pauses can be given to permit the students to stir a little. Before the beginning of the second part of the concert, there are again several minutes of silence and some phrases of the music are heard again before the teacher begins to read the text. Now the students close their textbooks and listen to the teacher's reading. At the end, the students silently leave the room. They are not told to do any homework on the lesson they have just had except for reading it cursorily once before going to bed and again before getting up in the morning. (Lozanov 1978: 272)

And yet, from Lozanov's point of view, this air of science (rather than its substance) is what gives Suggestopedia its authority in the eyes of students and prepares them to expect success.

Lozanov makes no bones about the fact that Suggestopedia is introduced to students in the context of a "suggestive-desuggestive ritual placebo-system" (Lozanov 1978: 267), and that one of the tasks of the suggestopedic leader is to determine which current ritual placebo system carries most authority with students. Just as doctors tell patients that the placebo is a pill that will cure them, so teachers tell students that Suggestology is a science that will teach them. And Lozanov maintains that placebos do both cure and teach when the patient or pupil credits them with the power to do so. Perhaps, then, it is not productive to further belabor the science / nonscience, data/double-talk issues and instead, as Bancroft and Stevick have done, try to identify and validate those techniques from Suggestopedia that appear effective and that harmonize with other successful techniques in the language teaching inventory.

CURRENT COMMUNICATIVE APPROACHES

The description of approaches and methods up to the present time and describe some of the directions mainstream language teaching has followed since the emergence of communicative methodologies in the 1980s.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) marks the beginning of a major paradigm shift within language teaching in the twentieth century, one whose ramifications continue to be felt today. The general principles of Communicative Language Teaching are today widely accepted around the world and we consider the reasons for this what we now might call the "Classical View of Communicative Language Teaching." The other chapters in this section trace how CLT philosophy has been molded into quite diverse teaching practices, although all would claim to embody basic principles of CLT.

Although the Natural Approach is not as widely established as CLT, Krashen's theories of language learning have had a wide impact, particularly in the United States, and the issues the Natural Approach addresses continue to be at the core of debates about teaching methods. Cooperative Language Learning originates outside of language teaching, but because it is compatible with many of the assumptions of Communicative Language Teaching it has become a popular and relatively uncontroversial approach to the organization of classroom teaching in many parts of the world, Content-Based Teaching (CBT) can be regarded as a logical development of some of the core principles of Communicative Language Teaching, particularly those that relate to the role of meaning in language learning. Because CBT provides an approach that is particularly suited to prepare ESL students to enter elementary, secondary, or tertiary education, it is widely used in English-speaking countries around the world.

Task-Based Teaching can be regarded as a recent version of a communicative methodology and seeks to reconcile methodology with current theories of second language acquisition.

COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

The origins of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) are to be found in the changes in the British language teaching tradition dating from the late 1960s. Until then, Situational Language Teaching represented the major British approach to teaching English as a foreign language. In Situational Language Teaching, language was taught by practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities. But just as the linguistic theory underlying Audiolingualism was rejected in the United States in the mid-1960s, British applied linguists began to call into question the theoretical assumptions underlying Situational Language Teaching:

“By the end of the sixties it was clear that the Situational approach . . . had run its course. There was no future in continuing to pursue the chimera of predicting language on the basis of situational events. What was required was a closer study of the language itself and a return to the traditional concept that utterances carried meaning in themselves and expressed the meanings and intentions of the speakers and writers who created them”. (Howatt 1984: 280)

This was partly a response to the sorts of criticisms the prominent American linguist Noam Chomsky had leveled at structural linguistic theory in his now-classic book *Syntactic Structures* (1957). Chomsky had demonstrated that the current standard structural theories of language were incapable of accounting for the fundamental characteristic of language -the creativity and uniqueness of individual sentences. British applied linguists emphasized another fundamental dimension of language that was inadequately addressed in approaches to language teaching at that time the functional and communicative potential of language. They saw the need to focus in language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures. Scholars who advocated this view of language, such as Christopher Candlin and Henry Widdowson, drew on the work of British functional linguists (e.g., John Firth, M. A. K. Halliday), American work in sociolinguistics (e.g., Dell Hymes, John Gumperz, and William Labov), as well as work in philosophy (e.g., John Austin and John Searle).

In 1971, a group of experts began to investigate the possibility of developing language courses on a unit-credit system, a system in which learning tasks are broken down into "portions or units, each of which corresponds to a component of a learner's needs and is systematically related to all the other portions" (van Ek and Alexander 1980: 6). The group used studies of the needs of European language learners, and in particular a preliminary document prepared by a British linguist, D. A. Wilkins (1972), which proposed a functional or communicative definition of language that could serve as a basis for developing communicative syllabuses for language teaching. Wilkins's contribution was an analysis of the communicative meanings that a language learner needs to understand and express rather than describe the core of language through traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary. Wilkins attempted to demonstrate the systems of meanings that lay behind the communicative uses of language. He described two types of meanings: notional categories (concepts such as time, sequence, quantity, location, frequency) and categories of communicative function (requests, denials, offers, complaints). Wilkins later revised and expanded his 1972 document into a book titled *Notional Syllabuses* (Wilkins 1976), which had a significant impact on the development of Communicative Language Teaching. The Council of Europe incorporated his semantic/communicative analysis into a set of specifications for a first-level communicative language syllabus.

The writings of Wilkins, Widdowson, Candlin, Christopher Brumfit, Keith Johnson, and other British applied linguists on the theoretical basis for a communicative or functional approach to language teaching; the rapid application of these ideas by textbook writers; and the equally rapid acceptance of these new principles by British language teaching specialists, curriculum development centers, and even governments gave prominence nationally and internationally to what came to be referred to as the Communicative Approach, or simply Communicative Language Teaching. (The terms *notional-functional approach* and *functional approach* are also sometimes used.) Although the movement began as a largely British innovation, focusing on alternative conceptions of a syllabus, since the mid-1970s the scope of Communicative Language Teaching has expanded. Both American and British proponents now see it as an approach (and not a method) that aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. Its comprehensiveness

thus makes it different in scope and status from any of the other approaches or methods discussed in this book. There is no single text or authority on it, nor any single model that is universally accepted as authoritative. For some, Communicative Language Teaching means little more than an integration of grammatical and functional teaching. Little wood (1981: 1) states, "One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language."¹² For others, it means using procedures where learners work in pairs or groups employing available language resources in problem-solving tasks. A national primary English syllabus based on a communicative approach (Syllabuses for *Primary Schools* 1981), for example, defines the focus of the syllabus as the "communicative functions which the forms of the language serve". The introduction to the same document comments that "communicative purposes may be of many different kinds. What is essential in all of them is that at least two parties are involved in an interaction or transaction of some kind where one party has an intention and the other party expands or reacts to the intention". In her discussion of communicative syllabus design, Yalden (1983) discusses six Communicative Language Teaching design alternatives, ranging from a model in which communicative exercises are grafted onto an existing structural syllabus, to a learner-generated view of syllabus design (e.g., Holec 1980).

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) contrast the major distinctive features of **Communicative Approach**, according to their interpretation:

1. Meaning is paramount
2. Dialogues, if used, center around communicative functions and are not normally memorized
3. Contextualization is a basic premise
4. Language learning is learning to communicate
5. Effective communication is sought.
6. Drilling may occur, but peripherally

¹²RICHARDS Jack and S. ROGERS Theodore. "Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching". Second Edition, Cambridge Language Teaching Library. Pag. 155.

7. Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
8. Any device that helps the learners is accepted – varying according to their age, interest, etc.
9. Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning
10. Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.
11. Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
12. Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.
13. The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.
14. Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e., the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately).
15. Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e., the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately).
16. Linguistics variation is a central concept in materials and methodology
17. Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning that maintains interest.
18. The teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
19. Language is created by the individual, often through trial and error.
20. Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: Accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.
21. Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.
22. The teacher cannot know exactly what language the students will use
23. Intrinsic motivation spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

Theory of learning

In contrast to the amount that has been written in Communicative Language Teaching literature about communicative dimensions of language, little has been written about learning theory. Neither Brumfit and Johnson (1979) nor Littlewood (1981), for example, offers any discussion of learning theory. Elements of an underlying learning theory can be discerned in some CLT practices, however. One such element might be described as the communication principle: Activities that involve real communication promote learning. A second element is the task principle: Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning (Johnson 1982). A third element is the meaningfulness principle: Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process. Learning activities are consequently selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use (rather than merely mechanical practice of language patterns). These principles, we suggest, can be inferred from CLT practices (e.g., Littlewood 1981; Johnson 1982). They address the conditions needed to promote second language learning, rather than the processes of language acquisition.

Other accounts of Communicative Language Teaching, however, have attempted to describe theories of language learning processes that are compatible with the Communicative Approach. Savignon (1983) surveys second language acquisition research as a source for learning theories and considers the role of linguistic, social, cognitive, and individual variables in language acquisition. Other theorists (e.g., Stephen Krashen, who is not directly associated with Communicative Language Teaching) have developed theories cited as compatible with the principles of CLT. Krashen sees acquisition as the basic process involved in developing language proficiency and distinguishes this process from learning. Acquisition refers to the unconscious development of the target-language system as a result of using the language for real communication. Learning is the conscious representation of grammatical knowledge that has resulted from instruction, and it cannot lead to acquisition. It is the acquired system that we call upon to create utterances during spontaneous language use. The learned system can serve only as a monitor of the output of the acquired system.

Johnson (1984) and Littlewood (1984) consider an alternative learning theory that they also see as compatible with CLT - a skill-learning model of learning. According to this theory, the acquisition of communicative competence in a language is an example of skill development. This involves both a cognitive and a behavioral aspect:

“The cognitive aspect involves the internalization of plans for creating appropriate behavior. For language use, these plans derive mainly from the language system - they include grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and social conventions governing speech. The behavioural aspect involves the automation of these plans so that they can be converted into fluent performance in real time. This occurs mainly through practice in converting plans into performance”. (Littlewood 1984: 74)

This theory thus encourages an emphasis on practice as a way of developing communicative skills.

Types of learning and Techniques

The range of exercise types and activities compatible with a communicative approach is unlimited, provided that such exercises enable learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication, and require the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction. Classroom activities are often designed to focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of information and information sharing.

“These attempts take many forms. Wright (1976) achieves it by showing out-of-focus slides which the students attempt to identify. Byrne (1978) provides incomplete plans and diagrams which students have to complete by asking for information. Allwright (1977) places a screen between students and gets one to place objects in a certain pattern: this pattern is then communicated to students behind the screen. Geddes and Sturtridge (1979) develop "jigsaw" listening in which students listen to different taped materials and then communicate

their content to others in the class. Most of these techniques operate by providing information to some and withholding it from others". (Johnson 1982-151.

The Role of Instructional Materials

A wide variety of materials have been used to support communicative approaches to language teaching. Unlike some contemporary methodologies, such as Community Language Learning, practitioners of Communicative Language Teaching view materials as a way of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. Materials thus have the primary role of promoting communicative language use. We will consider three kinds of materials currently used in CLT and label these text-based, task-based, and realia.

Text-Based Materials

There are numerous textbooks designed to direct and support Communicative Language Teaching. Their tables of contents sometimes suggest a kind of grading and sequencing of language practice not unlike those found in structurally organized texts. Some of these are in fact written around a largely structural syllabus, with slight reformatting to justify their claims to be based on a communicative approach. Others, however, look very different from previous language teaching texts. Morrow and Johnson's *Communicate* (1979), for example, has none of the usual dialogues, drills, or sentence patterns and uses visual cues, taped cues, pictures, and sentence fragments to initiate conversation. Watcyn-Jones's *Pair Work* (1981) consists of two different texts for pair work, each containing different information needed to act role plays and carry out other pair activities. Texts written to support the Malaysian *English Language Syllabus* (1975) likewise represent a departure from traditional textbook modes. A typical lesson consists of a theme (e.g., relaying information), a task analysis for thematic development (e.g., understanding the message, asking questions to obtain clarification, asking for more information, taking notes, ordering and presenting information), a practice situation description (e.g., "A caller asks to see your manager. He does not have an appointment. Gather the necessary information from him and relay die message to your manager."), a stimulus presentation (in the preceding case, the beginning of an office conversation

scripted and on tape), comprehension questions (e.g., "Why is the caller in the office?"), and paraphrase exercises.

Procedure

Because communicative principles can be applied to the teaching of any skill, at any level, and because of the wide variety of classroom activities and exercise types discussed in the literature on Communicative Language Teaching, description of typical classroom procedures used in a lesson based on CLT principles is not feasible. Savignon (1983) discusses techniques and classroom management procedures associated with a number of CLT classroom procedures (e.g., group activities, language games, role plays), but neither these activities nor the ways in which they are used are exclusive to CLT classrooms. Finocchiaro and Brumfit offer a lesson outline for teaching the function "making a suggestion" for learners in the beginning level of a secondary school program that suggests that CLT procedures are evolutionary rather than revolutionary:

1. Presentation of a brief dialog or several mini-dialogs, preceded by a motivation (relating the dialog situation to the learners' probable community experiences) and a discussion of the function and situation people, roles, setting, topic, and the informality or formality of the language which the function and situation demand. (At beginning levels, where all the learners understand the same native language, the motivation can well be given in their native tongue.)
2. Oral practice of each utterance of the dialog segment to be presented that day (entire class repetition, half-class, groups, individuals) generally preceded by your model. If mini-dialogs are used, engage in similar practice.
3. Questions and answers based on the dialog topic(s) and situation itself. (Inverted *wh* or *or* questions.)
4. Questions and answers related to the students' personal experiences but centered around the dialog theme.
5. Study one of the basic communicative expressions in the dialog or one of the structures which exemplify the function.
6. Learner discovery of generalizations or rules underlying the functional expression or structure. This should include at least four points: its oral and written forms.

7. Oral recognition, interpretative activities (two to five depending on the learning level, the language knowledge of the students, and related factors).
8. Oral production activities - proceeding from guided to freer communication activities.
9. Copying of the dialogs or mini-dialogs or modules if they are not in the class text.
10. Sampling of the written homework assignment, if given.
11. Evaluation of learning (oral only), e.g., "How would you ask your friend to _____?
And how would you ask me to _____?"

(Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983: 107-108]

THE NATURAL APPROACH

In 1977, Tracy Terrell, a teacher of Spanish in California, outlined "a proposal for a 'new' philosophy of language teaching which they called the Natural Approach" (Terrell 1977; 1982:121). This was an attempt to develop a language teaching proposal that incorporated the "naturalistic" principles researchers had identified in studies of second language acquisition. The Natural Approach grew out of Terrell's experiences teaching Spanish classes, although it has also been used in elementary- to advanced-level classes and with several other languages. At the same time, he joined forces with Stephen Krashen, an applied linguist at the University of Southern California, in elaborating a theoretical rationale for the Natural Approach, drawing on Krashen's influential theory of second language acquisition. Krashen and Terrell's combined statement of the principles and practices of the Natural Approach appeared in their book *The Natural Approach*, published in 1983. The Natural Approach attracted a wider interest than some of the other innovative language teaching proposals discussed in this book, largely because of its support by Krashen. Krashen and Terrell's book contains theoretical sections prepared by Krashen that outline his views on second language acquisition (Krashen 1981; 1982), and sections on implementation and classroom procedures, prepared largely by Terrell.

In its extreme form the method consisted of a series of monologues by the teacher interspersed with exchanges of question and answer between the instructor and the pupil all in the foreign language. A great deal of pantomime accompanied the talk with the aid of this gesticulation, by attentive listening and by dint of much repetition the learner came to associate certain acts and objects with certain combinations of the sounds and finally reached the point of reproducing the

foreign words or phrases. . . . not until a considerable familiarity with the spoken word was attained was the scholar allowed to see the foreign language in print. The study of grammar was reserved for a still later period. (Cole 1931: 58)

The term *natural*, used in reference to the Direct Method, merely emphasized that the principles underlying the method were believed to conform to the principles of naturalistic language learning in young children. Similarly, the Natural Approach, as defined by Krashen and Terrell, is believed to conform to the naturalistic principles found in successful second language acquisition. Unlike the Direct Method, however, it places less emphasis on teacher monologues, direct repetition, and formal questions and answers, and less focus on accurate production of target-language sentences. In the Natural Approach there is an emphasis on exposure, or input, rather than practice; optimizing emotional preparedness for learning; a prolonged period of attention to what the language learners hear before they try to produce language; and a willingness to use written and other materials as a source of comprehensible input. The emphasis on the central role of comprehension in the Natural Approach links it to other comprehension-based approaches in language teaching.

Theory of Learning

Krashen and Terrell make continuing reference to the theoretical and research base claimed to underlie the Natural Approach and to the fact that the method is unique in having such a base. "It is based on an empirically grounded theory of second language acquisition, which has been supported by a large number of scientific studies in a wide variety of language acquisition and learning contexts" (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 1). The theory and research are grounded on Krashen's views of language acquisition, which we will collectively refer to as Krashen's language acquisition theory. Krashen's views have been presented and discussed extensively elsewhere (e.g., Krashen 1982), so we will not try to present or critique Krashen's arguments here. It is necessary, however, to present in outline form the principal tenets of the theory; since it is on these that the design and procedures in the Natural Approach are based.

The acquisition learning hypothesis claims that there are two distinctive ways of developing competence in a second or foreign language. Acquisition is the "natural" way, paralleling first language development in children. Acquisition refers to an unconscious process that involves the naturalistic development of language proficiency through understanding language and through using language for meaningful communication. Learning, by contrast, refers to a process in which conscious rules about a language are developed. It results in explicit knowledge about the forms of a language and the ability to verbalize this knowledge. Formal teaching is necessary for "learning" to occur, and correction of errors helps with the development of learned rules. Learning, according to the theory, cannot lead to acquisition.

The monitor hypothesis, the acquired linguistic system is said to initiate utterances when we communicate in a second or foreign language. Conscious learning can function only as a monitor or editor that checks and repairs the output of the acquired system. The Monitor Hypothesis claims that we may call upon learned knowledge to correct ourselves when we communicate, but that conscious learning (i.e., the learned system) has only this function. Three conditions limit the successful use of the monitor:

- *Time*. There must be sufficient time for a learner to choose and apply a learned rule.
- *Focus on form*. The language user must be focused on correctness or on the form of the output.
- *Knowledge of rules*. The performer must know the rules. The monitor does best with rules that are simple in two ways. They must be simple to describe and they must not require complex movements and rearrangements.

The natural order hypothesis, the acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order. Research is said to have shown that certain grammatical structures or morphemes are acquired before others in first language acquisition of English, and a similar natural order is found in second language acquisition. Errors are signs of naturalistic developmental processes, and during acquisition (but not during learning), similar developmental errors occur in learners no matter what their native language is.

The input hypothesis, claims to explain the relationship between what the learner is exposed to of a language (the input) and language acquisition. It involves four main issues.

First, the hypothesis relates to acquisition, and not to learning.

Second, people acquire language best by understanding input that is slightly beyond their current level of competence:

An acquirer can "move" from a stage I (where I is the acquirer's level of competence) to a stage I + 1 (where I + 1 is the stage immediately following I along some natural order) by understanding language containing I + 1. (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 32).

Clues based on the situation and the context, extra linguistic information, and knowledge of the world make comprehension possible.

Third, the ability to speak fluently cannot be taught directly; rather, it "emerges" independently in time, after the acquirer has built up linguistic competence by understanding input.

Fourth, if there is a sufficient quantity of comprehensible input, I + 1 will usually be provided automatically. Comprehensible input refers to utterances that the learner understands based on the context in which they are used as well as the language in which they are phrased. When a speaker uses language so that the acquirer understands the message, the speaker "casts a net" of structure around the acquirer's current level of competence, and this will include many instances of I + 1. Thus, input need not be finely tuned to a learner's current level of linguistic competence, and in fact cannot be so finely tuned in a language class, where learners will be at many different levels of competence.

Just as child acquirers of a first language are provided with samples of "caretaker speech," rough-tuned to their present level of understanding, so adult acquirers of a second language are provided with simple codes that facilitate second language comprehension. One such code is "foreigner talk," which refers to the speech native speakers use to simplify communication with foreigners. Foreigner talk is characterized by a slower rate of speech, repetition, restating, use

of yes/no instead of *Wh*-questions, and other changes that make messages more comprehensible to persons of limited language proficiency.

The affective filter hypothesis, Krashen sees the learner's emotional state or attitudes as an adjustable filter that freely passes, impedes, or blocks input necessary to acquisition. A low affective filter is desirable, since it impedes or blocks less of this necessary input. The hypothesis is built on research in second language acquisition, which has identified three kinds of affective or attitudinal variables related to second language acquisition:

- *Motivation*. Learners with high motivation generally do better.
- *Self-confidence*. Learners with self-confidence and a good self-image tend to be more successful.
- *Anxiety*. Low personal anxiety and low classroom anxiety are more conducive to second language acquisition.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis states that acquirers with a low affective filter seek and receive more input, interact with confidence, and are more receptive to the input they receive. Anxious acquirers have a high affective filter, which prevents acquisition from taking place. It is believed that the affective filter (e.g., fear or embarrassment) rises in early adolescence, and this may account for children's apparent superiority to older acquirers of a second language.

These five hypotheses have obvious implications for language teaching. In sum, these are:

- As much comprehensible input as possible must be presented.
- Whatever helps comprehension is important. Visual aids are useful, as is exposure to a wide range of vocabulary rather than study of syntactic structure.
- The focus in the classroom should be on listening and reading; speaking should be allowed to "emerge."
- In order to lower the affective filter, student work should center on meaningful communication rather than on form; input should be interesting and so contribute to a relaxed classroom atmosphere.

Types of learning and Teaching Techniques

From the beginning of a class taught according to the Natural Approach, emphasis is on presenting comprehensible input in the target language. Teacher talk focuses on objects in the classroom and on the content of pictures, as with the Direct Method. To minimize stress, learners are not required to say anything until they feel ready, but they are expected to respond to teacher commands and questions in other ways.

When learners are ready to begin talking in the new language, the teacher provides comprehensible language and simple response opportunities. The teacher talks slowly and distinctly, asking questions and eliciting one-word answers. There is a gradual progression from Yes/No questions, through either-or questions, to questions that students can answer using words they have heard used by the teacher. Students are not expected to use a word actively until they have heard it many times. Charts, pictures, advertisements, and other realia serve as the focal point for questions, and when the students' competence permits, talk moves to class members. "Acquisition activities" - those that focus on meaningful communication rather than language form - are emphasized. Pair or group work may be employed, followed by whole-class discussion led by the teacher.

Techniques recommended by Krashen and Terrell are often borrowed from other methods and adapted to meet the requirements of Natural Approach theory. These include command-based activities from Total Physical Response; Direct Method activities in which mime, gesture, and context are used to elicit questions and answers; and even situation-based practice of structures and patterns. Group-work activities are often identical to those used in Communicative Language Teaching, where sharing information in order to complete a task is emphasized. There is nothing novel about the procedures and techniques advocated for use with the Natural Approach. A casual observer might not be aware of the philosophy underlying the classroom techniques he or she observes. What characterizes the Natural Approach is the use of familiar techniques within the framework of a method that focuses on providing comprehensible input and a classroom environment that cues comprehension of input, minimizes learner anxiety, and maximizes learner self-confidence.

Learner Roles

There is a basic assumption in the Natural Approach that learners should not try to learn a language in the usual sense. The extent to which they can lose themselves in activities involving meaningful communication will determine the amount and kind of acquisition they will experience and the fluency they will ultimately demonstrate. The language acquirer is seen as a processor of comprehensible input. The acquirer is challenged by input that is slightly beyond his or her current level of competence and is able to assign meaning to this input through active use of context and extralinguistic information.

Learners' roles are seen to change according to their stage of linguistic development. Central to these changing roles are learner decisions on when to speak, what to speak about, and what linguistic expressions to use in speaking in the pre-production stage, students "participate in the language activity without having to respond in the target language" (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 76). For example, students can act out physical commands; identify student colleagues from teacher description, point to pictures, and so forth.

In the *speech-emergent phase*, students involve themselves in role play and games, contribute personal information and opinions, and participate in group problem solving.

Learners have four kinds of responsibilities in the Natural Approach classroom:

- Provide information about their specific goals so that acquisition activities can focus on the topics and situations most relevant to their needs.
- Take an active role in ensuring comprehensible input. They should learn and use conversational management techniques to regulate input.
- Decide when to start producing speech and when to upgrade it.
- Where learning exercises (i.e., grammar study) are to be a part of the program, decide with the teacher the relative amount of time to be devoted to them and perhaps even complete and correct them independently.

Learners are expected to participate in communication activities with other learners. Although communication activities are seen to provide naturalistic practice and to create a sense of camaraderie, which lowers the affective filter, they may fail to provide learners with well-formed

and comprehensible input at the $I + 1$ level. Krashen and Terrell warn of these shortcomings but do not suggest means for their amelioration.

Teacher Roles

The Natural Approach teacher has three central roles. First, the teacher is the primary source of comprehensible input in the target language. "Class time is devoted primarily to providing input for acquisition," and the teacher is the primary generator of that input. In this role, the teacher is required to generate a constant flow of language input while providing a multiplicity of nonlinguistic clues to assist students in interpreting the input. The Natural Approach demands a much more center-stage role for the teacher than do many contemporary communicative methods.

Second, the Natural Approach teacher creates a classroom atmosphere that is interesting, friendly, and in which there is a low affective filter for learning. This is achieved in part through such Natural Approach techniques as not demanding speech from the students before they are ready for it, not correcting student errors, and providing subject matter of high interest to students.

Finally, the teacher must choose and orchestrate a rich mix of classroom activities, involving a variety of group sizes, content, and contexts. The teacher is seen as responsible for collecting materials and designing their use. These materials, according to Krashen and Terrell, are based not just on teacher perceptions but on elicited student needs and interests.

As with other nonorthodox teaching systems, the Natural Approach teacher has a particular responsibility to communicate clearly and compellingly to students the assumptions, organization, and expectations of the method, since in many cases these will violate student views of what language learning and teaching are supposed to be.

The Role of Instructional Materials

The primary goal of materials in the Natural Approach is to make classroom activities as meaningful as possible by supplying "the extralinguistic context that helps the acquirer to understand and thereby to acquire" (Krashen and Terrell 1983:55), by relating classroom activities to the real world, and by fostering real communication among the learners. Materials come from the world of realia rather than from textbooks. The primary aim of materials is to promote comprehension and communication. Pictures and other visual aids are essential, because they supply the content for communication. They facilitate the acquisition of a large vocabulary within the classroom. Other recommended materials include schedules, brochures, advertisements, maps, and books at levels appropriate to the students, if a reading component is included in the course. Games, in general, are seen as useful classroom materials, since "games by their very nature, focus the students on what it is they are doing and use the language as a tool for reaching the goal rather than as a goal in itself" (Terrell 1982:121). The selection, reproduction, and collection of materials places a considerable burden on the Natural Approach teacher. Since Krashen and Terrell suggest a syllabus of topics and situations, it is likely that at some point collections of materials to supplement teacher presentations will be published, built around the "syllabus" of topics and situations recommended by the Natural Approach.

Procedure

We have seen that the Natural Approach adopts techniques and activities freely from various method sources and can be regarded as innovative only with respect to the purposes for which they are recommended and the ways they are used. Krashen and Terrell (1983) provide suggestions for the use of a wide range of activities, all of which are familiar components of Situational Language Teaching, Communicative Language Teaching, and other methods discussed in this book. To illustrate procedural aspects of the Natural Approach, we will cite examples of how such activities are to be used in the Natural Approach classroom to provide comprehensible input, without requiring production of responses or minimal responses in the target language.

- Start with TPR [Total Physical Response] commands. At first the commands are quite simple: "Stand up. Turn around. Raise your right hand."
- Use TPR to teach names of body parts and to introduce numbers and sequence. "Lay your right hand on your head, put both hands on your shoulder, first touch your nose, then stand up and turn to the right three times" and so forth.
- Introduce classroom terms and props into commands. "Pick up a pencil and put it under the book, touch a wall, go to the door and knock three times." Any item which can be brought to the class can be incorporated. "Pick up the record and place it in the tray. Take the green blanket to Larry. Pick up the soap and take it to the woman wearing the green blouse."
- Use names of physical characteristics and clothing to identify members of the class by name. The instructor uses context and the items themselves to make the meanings of the key words clear: hair, long, short, etc. Then a student is described. "What is your name?" (selecting a student). "Class., Look at Barbara. She has long brown hair. Her hair is long and brown hair. Her hair is not short. It is long." (Using mime, pointing and context to ensure comprehension.) "What's the name of the student with long brown hair?" (Barbara). Questions such as "What is the name of the woman with the short blond hair?" or "What is the name of the student sitting next to the man with short brown hair and glasses?" are very simple to understand by attending to key words, gestures and context. And they require the students only to remember and produce the name of a fellow student. The same can be done with articles of clothing and colors. "Who is wearing a yellow shirt? Who is wearing a brown dress?"

COOPERATIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING

Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) is part of a more general instructional approach also known as Collaborative Learning (CL). Cooperative Learning is an approach to teaching that makes maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups of learners in the class-room. It has been defined as follows:

Cooperative learning is group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each

learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others. (Olsen and Kagan 1992: 8)

Cooperative Learning has antecedents in proposals for peer-tutoring and peer-monitoring that go back hundreds of years and longer. The early twentieth century U.S. educator John Dewey is usually credited with promoting the idea of building cooperation in learning into regular classrooms on a regular and systematic basis (Rodgers 1988). It was more generally promoted and developed in the United States in the 1960s and 1970s as a response to the forced integration of public schools and has been substantially refined and developed since then. Educators were concerned that traditional models of classroom learning were teacher-fronted, fostered competition rather than cooperation, and favored majority students. They believed that minority students might fall behind higher-achieving students in this kind of learning environment. Cooperative Learning in this context sought to do the following:

- ◆ raise the achievement of all students, including those who are gifted or academically handicapped
- ◆ help the teacher build positive relationships among students
- ◆ give students the experiences they need for healthy social, psychological, and cognitive development
- ◆ replace the competitive organizational structure of most classrooms and schools with a team-based, high-performance organizational structure.

In second language teaching, CL (where it is often referred to as Cooperative Language Learning-CLL) has been embraced as a way of promoting communicative interaction in the classroom and is seen as an extension of the principles of Communicative Language Teaching. It is viewed as a learner-centered approach to teaching held to offer advantages over teacher-fronted classroom methods. In language teaching its goals are:

- ◆ to provide opportunities for naturalistic second language acquisition through the use of interactive pair and group activities

- ◆ to provide teachers with a methodology to enable them to achieve this goal and one that can be applied in a variety of curriculum settings (e.g., content-based, foreign language classrooms; mainstreaming)
- ◆ to enable focused attention to particular lexical items, language structures, and communicative functions through the use of interactive tasks
- ◆ to provide opportunities for learners to develop successful learning and communication strategies
- ◆ to enhance learner motivation and reduce learner stress and to create a positive affective classroom climate

CLL is thus an approach that crosses both mainstream education and second and foreign language teaching.

Theory of Learning

Cooperative learning advocates draw heavily on the theoretical work of developmental psychologists Jean Piaget (e.g., 1965) and Vygotsky (e.g., 1962), both of whom stress the central role of social interaction in learning. As we have indicated, a central premise of CLL is that learners develop communicative competence in a language by conversing in socially or pedagogically structured situations. CLL advocates have proposed certain interactive structures that are considered optimal for learning the appropriate rules and practices in conversing in a new language. CLL also seeks to develop learners' critical thinking skills, which are seen as central to learning of any sort. Some authors have even elevated critical thinking to the same level of focus as that of the basic language skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking (Kagan 1992). One approach to integrating the teaching of critical thinking adopted by CLL advocates is called the Question Matrix (Wiederhold 1995). Wiederhold has developed a battery of cooperative activities built on the matrix that encourages learners to ask and respond to a deeper array of alternative question types. Activities of this kind are believed to foster the development of critical thinking. (The matrix is based on the well-known Taxonomy of Educational Objectives devised by Bloom [1956], which assumes a hierarchy of learning objectives ranging from simple recall of information to forming conceptual judgments.) Kagan and

other CL theorists have adopted this framework as an underlying learning theory for Cooperative Learning.

The word cooperative in Cooperative Learning emphasizes another important dimension of CLL. It seeks to develop classrooms that foster cooperation rather than competition in learning. Advocates of CLL in general education stress the benefits of cooperation in promoting learning.

Cooperation is working together to accomplish shared goals. Within cooperative situations, individuals seek outcomes beneficial to themselves and all other group members. Cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups through which students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning. It may be contrasted with competitive learning in which students work against each other to achieve an academic goal such as a grade of "A." (Johnson et al., 1994:4)

From the perspective of second language teaching, McGroarty (1989) offers six learning advantages for ESL students in CLL classrooms:

- ◆ increased frequency and variety of second language practice through different types of interaction
- ◆ possibility for development Of use of language in ways that support cognitive development and increased language skills
- ◆ opportunities to integrate language with content-based instruction
- ◆ opportunities to include a greater variety of curricular materials to stimulate language as well as concept learning
- ◆ freedom for teachers to master new professional skills, particularly those emphasizing communication
- ◆ opportunities for students to act as resources for each other, thus assuming a more active role in their learning.

Types of Learning and Techniques

Johnson et al., (1994: 4-5) describe three types of cooperative learning groups.

- *Formal cooperative learning groups.* These last from one class period to several weeks. These are established for a specific task and involve students working together to achieve shared learning goals.
- *Informal cooperative learning groups.* These are ad-hoc groups that last from a few minutes to a class period and are used to focus student attention or to facilitate learning during direct teaching.
- *Cooperative base groups.* These are long term, lasting for at least a year and consist of heterogeneous learning groups with stable membership whose primary purpose is to allow members to give each other the support, help, encouragement, and assistance they need to succeed academically.
- The success of CL is crucially dependent on the nature and organization of group work. This requires a structured program of learning carefully designed so that learners interact with each other and are motivated to increase each other's learning. Olsen and Kagan (1992) propose the following key elements of successful group-based learning in CL:
 - ◆ Positive interdependence
 - ◆ Group formation
 - ◆ Individual accountability
 - ◆ Social skills
 - ◆ Structuring and structures

Positive interdependence occurs when group members feel that what helps one member helps all and what hurts one member hurts all. It is created by the structure of CL tasks and by building a spirit of mutual support within the group. For example, a group may produce a single product such as an essay or the scores for members of a group may be averaged.

Group formation is an important factor in creating positive interdependence. Factors involved in setting up groups include:

- ◆ deciding on the size of the group: This will depend on the tasks they
- ◆ have to carry out, the age of the learners, and time limits for the lesson. Typical group size is from two to four.
- ◆ assigning students to groups: Groups can be teacher-selected, random or student-selected, although teacher-selected is recommended as the usual mode so as to create groups that are heterogeneous on such variables as past achievement, ethnicity, or sex.
- ◆ student roles in groups: Each group member has a specific role to play in a group, such as noise monitor, turn-taker monitor, recorder, or summarizes

Individual accountability involves both group and individual performance, for example, by assigning each student a grade on his or her portion of a team project or by calling on a student at random to share with the whole class, with group members, or with another group.

Social skills determine the way students interact with each other as teammates. Usually some explicit instruction in social skills is needed to ensure successful interaction.

Structuring and Structures refer to ways of organizing student interaction and different ways students are to interact such as Three-step interview or Round Robin (discussed later in this section).

Numerous descriptions exist of activity types that can be used with CLL. Coelho (1992b: 132) describes three major kinds of cooperative learning tasks and their learning focus, each of which has many variations.

1. Team practice from common input - skills development and mastery of facts

- ◆ All students work on the same material.
- ◆ Practice could follow a traditional teacher-directed presentation of new material and for that reason is a good starting point for teachers and/or students new to group work.
- ◆ The task is to make sure that everyone in the group knows the answer to a question and can explain how the answer was obtained or understands the material. Because students want their team to do well, they coach and tutor each other to make sure that any member of the group could answer for all of them and explain their team's answer.
- ◆ When the teacher takes up the question or assignment, anyone in a group may be called on to answer for the team.

- ◆ This technique is good for review and for practice tests; the group takes the practice test together, but each student will eventually do an assignment or take a test individually. :

3. *Jigsaw: Differential but predetermined input – evaluation and synthesis of facts and opinions.*

- ◆ Each group member receives a different piece of information.
- ◆ Students regroup in topic groups (expert groups) composed of people with the same piece to master the material and prepare to teach it.
- ◆ Students return to home groups (Jigsaw groups) to share their information with each other.
- ◆ Students synthesize the information through discussion.
- ◆ Each student produces an assignment of part of a group project, or takes a test, to demonstrate synthesis of all the information presented by all group members.
- ◆ This method of organization may require team-building activities for home groups and topic groups, long-term group involvement, and rehearsal of presentation methods.
- ◆ This method is very useful in the multilevel class, allowing for both homogeneous and heterogeneous grouping in terms of English proficiency.
- ◆ Information-gap activities in language teaching are jigsaw activities in the form of pair work. Partners have data (in the form of text, tables, charts, etc.) with missing information to be supplied during interaction with another partner.

3. *Cooperative projects: topics/resources selected by students -discovery learning*

- ◆ Topics may be different for each group.
- ◆ Students identify subtopics for each group member.
- ◆ Steering committee may coordinate the work of the class as a whole.
- ◆ Students research the information using resources such as library reference, interviews, and visual media.
- ◆ Students synthesize their information for a group presentation: oral and/or written. Each group member plays a part in the presentation.
- ◆ Each group presents to the whole class.
- ◆ This method places greater emphasis on individualization and students' interests. Each student's assignment is unique.

- ◆ Students need plenty of previous experience with more structured group work for this to be effective.

Olsen and Kagan (1992: 88) describes the following examples of CLL activities:

Three-step interview. (1) Students are in pairs; one is interviewer and the other is interviewee. (2) Students reverse roles. (3) Each shares with team member what was learned during the two interviews.

Roudtable: There is one piece of paper and one pen for each team. (1) One student makes a contribution and (2) passes the paper and pen to the student of his or her left. (3) Each student makes contributions in turn. If done orally, the structure is called Round Robin.

Think-Pair-Share; (1) Teacher poses a question (usually a low-consensus question). (2) Students think of a response. (3) Students discuss their responses with a partner. (4) Students share their partner's response with the class.

Solve-Pair-Share: (1) Teacher poses a problem (a low-consensus or high-consensus item that may be resolved with different strategies). (2) Students work out solutions individually. (3) Students explain how they solved the problem in Interview or Round Robin structures.

Numbered Heads: (1) Students number off in teams. (2) Teacher asks a question (usually high-consensus). (3) Heads Together - students literally put their heads together and make sure everyone knows and can explain the answer. (4) Teacher calls a number and students with that number raise their hands to be called on, as in traditional classroom.

Learner Roles

The primary role of the learner is as a member of a group who must work collaboratively on tasks with other group members. Learners have to learn teamwork skills. Learners are also directors of their own learning. They are taught to plan, monitor, and evaluate their own learning, which is viewed as a compilation of lifelong learning skills. Thus, learning is something that requires students' direct and active involvement and participation. Pair grouping is the most typical CLL format, ensuring the maximum amount of time both learners spend engaged on

learning tasks. Pair tasks in which learners alternate roles involve partners in the role of tutors, checkers, recorders, and information sharers.

Teacher Roles

The role of the teacher in CLL differs considerably from the role of teachers in traditional teacher-fronted lesson. The teacher has to create a highly structured and well-organized learning environment in the classroom, setting goals, planning and structuring tasks, establishing the physical arrangement of the classroom, assigning students to groups and roles, and selecting materials and time (Johnson et al. 1994]. An important role for the teacher is that of facilitator of learning. In his or her role as facilitator, the teacher must move around the class helping students and groups as needs arise:

Teachers speak less than in teacher-fronted classes. They provide broad questions to challenge thinking, they prepare students for the tasks they will carry out, they assist students with the learning tasks, and they give few commands, imposing less disciplinary control (Harel 1992). The teacher may also have the task of restructuring lessons so that students can work on them cooperatively. This involves the following steps, according to Johnson et al. (1994: 9):

- ◆ Take your existing lessons, curriculum, and sources and structure them cooperatively.
- ◆ Tailor cooperative learning lessons to your unique instructional needs, circumstances, curricula, subject areas, and students.
- ◆ Diagnose the problems some students may have in working together and intervene to increase learning groups' effectiveness.
- ◆

The Role of Instructional Materials

Materials play an important part in creating opportunities for students to work cooperatively. The same materials can be used as are used in other types of lessons but variations are required in how the materials are used.

For example, if students are working in groups, each might have one set of materials (or

groups might have different sets of materials), or each group member might need a copy of a text to read and refer to. Materials may be specially designed for CLL learning (such as commercially sold jigsaw and information-gap activities), modified from existing materials, or borrowed from other disciplines.

Procedure

Johnson et al. (1994: 67-68) give the following example of how a collaborative learning lesson would be carried out when students are required to write an essay, report, poem, or story, or review something that they have read. A cooperative writing and editing pair arrangement is used. Pairs verify that each member's composition matches the criteria that have been established by the teacher; they then receive an individual score on the quality of their compositions. They can also be given a group score based on the total number of errors made by the pair in their individual compositions. The procedure works in the following way:

1. The teacher assigns students to pairs with at least one good reader in each pair.
2. Student A describes what he or she is planning to write to Student B, who listens carefully, probes with a set of questions, and outlines Student A's ideas. Student B gives the written outline to Student A.
3. This procedure is reversed, with Student B describing what he or she is going to write and Student A listening and completing an outline of Student B's ideas, which is then given to Student B.
4. The students individually research the material they need for their compositions, keeping an eye out for material useful to their partner.
5. The students work together to write the first paragraph of each composition to ensure that they both have a clear start on their compositions.
6. The students write their compositions individually.
7. When the students have completed their compositions, they proofread each other's compositions, making corrections in capitalization, punctuation, spelling, language usage, and other aspects of writing the teacher specifies. Students also give each other suggestions for revision.
8. The students revise their compositions.

9. The students then reread each other's compositions and sign their names to indicate that each composition is error-free.

During this process, the teacher monitors the pairs, intervening when appropriate to help students master the needed writing and cooperative skills.

(Brinton et al. 1989: 31).

TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching. Some of its proponents (e.g., Willis 1996) present it as a logical development of Communicative Language Teaching since it draws on several principles that formed part of the communicative language teaching movement from the 1980s. For example:

- ◆ Activities that involve real communication are essential for language learning.
- ◆ Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning.
- ◆ Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process.

Tasks are proposed as useful vehicles for applying these principles. Two early applications of a task-based approach within a communicative framework for language teaching were the Malaysian Communicational Syllabus (1975) and the Bangalore Project (Beretta and Davies 1985; Prabhu 1987; Beretta 1990) both of which were relatively short-lived. The role of tasks has received further support from some researchers in second language acquisition, who are interested in developing pedagogical applications of second language acquisition theory (e.g., Long and Crookes 1993). An interest in tasks as potential building blocks of second language instruction emerged when researchers turned to tasks as SLA research tools in the mid-1980s. SLA research has focused on the strategies and cognitive processes employed by second language learners. This research has suggested a reassessment of the role of formal grammar instruction in language teaching. There is no evidence, it is argued, that the type of grammar-focused teaching activities used in many language classrooms reflects the cognitive learning processes employed in naturalistic language learning situations outside the classroom. Engaging learners in task work provides a better context for the activation of learning processes than form-focused activities, and hence ultimately provides better opportunities for language

learning to take place. Language learning is believed to depend on immersing students not merely in "comprehensible input" but in tasks that require them to negotiate meaning and engage in naturalistic and meaningful communication.

The key assumptions of task-based instruction are summarized by Feez (1998; 17) as:

- ◆ The focus is on process rather than product.
- ◆ Basic elements are purposeful activities and tasks that emphasize communication and meaning.
- ◆ Learners learn language by interacting communicatively and purposefully while engaged in the activities and tasks.
- ◆ Activities and tasks can be either: those that learners might need to achieve in real life; those that have a pedagogical purpose specific to the classroom.
- ◆ Activities and tasks of a task-based syllabus are sequenced according to difficulty.
- ◆ The difficulty of a task depends on a range of factors including the previous experience of the learner, the complexity of the task, the language required to undertake the task, and the degree of support available.

Task-Based Language Teaching proposes the notion of "task" as a central unit of planning and teaching. Although definitions of task vary in TBLT, there is a commonsensical understanding that a task is an activity or goal that is carried out using language, such as finding a solution to a puzzle, reading a map and giving directions, making a telephone call, writing a letter, or reading a set of instructions and assembling a toy:

Tasks ... are activities which have meaning as their primary focus. Success in tasks is evaluated in terms of achievement of an outcome, and tasks generally bear some resemblance to real-life language use. So task-based instruction takes a fairly strong view of communicative language teaching. (Skehan 1996b:20)

Nunan (1989: 10) offers this definition:

The communicative task (is) a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language

while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right.

Although advocates of TBLT have embraced the concept of task with enthusiasm and conviction, the use of tasks as a unit in curriculum planning has a much older history in education. It first appeared in the vocational training practices of the 1950s. Task focus here first derived from training design concerns of the military regarding new military technologies and occupational specialties of the period. Task analysis initially focused on solo psychomotor tasks for which little communication or collaboration was involved. In task analysis, on-the-job, largely manual tasks were translated into training tasks. The process is outlined by Smith:

The operational system is analyzed from the human factors point of view, and a mission profile or flow chart is prepared to provide a basis for developing the task inventory. The task inventory (an outline of the major duties in the job and the more specific job tasks associated with each duty) is prepared, using appropriate methods of job analysis. Decisions are made regarding tasks, to be taught and the level of proficiency to be attained by the students. A detailed task description is prepared for those tasks to be taught. Each task is broken down into the specific acts required for its performance. The specific acts, or task elements, are reviewed to identify the knowledge and skill components involved in task performance. Finally, a hierarchy of objectives is organized. (Smith 1971: 584)

A similar process is at the heart of the curriculum approach known as Competency-Based Language Teaching Task-based training identified several key areas of concern.

- ◆ analysis of real-world task-use situations
- ◆ the translation of these into teaching tasks descriptions
- ◆ the detailed design of instructional tasks
- ◆ the sequencing of instructional tasks in classroom training/teaching

These same issues remain central in current discussions of task-based instruction in language teaching. Although task analysis and instructional design initially dealt with solo job performance on manual tasks, attention then turned to team tasks, for which communication is required. Four major categories of team performance function were recognized:

- ◆ *orientation functions* (processes for generating and distributing information necessary to task accomplishment to team members)
- ◆ *organizational functions* (processes necessary for members to coordinate actions necessary for task performance)
- ◆ *adaptation functions* (processes occurring as team members adapt their performance to each other to complete the task)
- ◆ *motivational functions* (defining team objectives and "energizing the group" to complete the task)

(Nieva, Fleishman, and Rieck [1978], cited in Crookes 1986)

Advocates of TBLT have made similar attempts to define and validate the nature and function of tasks in language teaching. Although studies of the kind just noted have focused on the nature of occupational tasks, academic tasks have also been the focus of considerable attention in general education since the early 1970s. Doyle noted that in elementary education, "the academic task is the mechanism through which the curriculum is enacted for students" (Doyle 1983: 161). Academic tasks are defined as having four important dimensions:

- the products students are asked to produce
- the operations they are required to use in order to produce these products
- the cognitive operations required and the resources available
- the accountability system involved

All of the questions (and many of the proposed answers) that were raised in these early investigations of tasks and their role in training and teaching mirror similar discussions in relation to Task-Based Language Teaching. In this chapter, we will outline the critical issues in Task-Based Language Teaching and provide examples of what task-based teaching is supposed to look like.

Theory of learning

TBI shares the general assumptions about the nature of language learning underlying Communicative Language Teaching. However some additional learning principles play a central role in TBLT theory. These are:

Tasks provide both the input and output processing necessary for language acquisition. Krashen has insisted that comprehensible input is the one necessary (and sufficient) criterion for successful language acquisition. Others have argued, however, that productive output and not merely input is also critical for adequate second language development. For example, in language immersion classrooms in Canada, Swain (1985) showed that even after years of exposure to comprehensible input, the language ability of immersion students still lagged behind native-speaking peers. She claimed that adequate opportunities for productive use of language are critical for full language development. Tasks, it is said, provide full opportunities for both input and output requirements, which are believed to be key processes in language learning. Other researchers have looked at "negotiation of meaning" as the necessary element in second language acquisition. "It is meaning negotiation which focuses a learner's attention on some part of an [the learner's] utterance (pronunciation, grammar, lexicon, etc.) which requires modification. That is, negotiation can be viewed as the trigger for acquisition" (Plough and Gass 1993: 36).

Task activity and achievement are motivational, Tasks are also said to improve learner motivation and therefore promote learning. This is because they require the learners to use authentic language, they have well-defined dimensions and closure, they are varied in format and operation, they typically include physical activity, they involve partnership and collaboration, they may call on the learner's past experience, and they tolerate and encourage a variety of communication styles. One teacher trainee, commenting on an experience involving listening tasks, noted that such tasks are "genuinely authentic, easy to understand because of natural repetition; students are motivated to listen because they have just done the same task and want to compare how they did it" (quoted in Willis 1996: 61-62). (Doubtless enthusiasts for other teaching methods could cite similar "evidence" for their effectiveness.)

Learning difficulty can be negotiated and fine-tuned for particular pedagogical purposes. Another claim for tasks is that specific tasks can be designed to facilitate the use and learning of particular aspects of language. Long and Crookes (1991: 43) claim that tasks,

provide a vehicle for the presentation of appropriate target language samples to learners - input which they will inevitably reshape via application of general cognitive processing capacities - and for the delivery of comprehension and production opportunities of negotiable difficulty.

In more detailed support of this claim, Skehan suggests that in selecting or designing tasks there is a trade-off between cognitive processing and focus on form. More difficult, cognitively demanding tasks reduce the amount of attention the learner can give to the formal features of messages, something that is thought to be necessary for accuracy and grammatical development. In other words if the task is too difficult, fluency may develop at the expense of accuracy. He suggests that tasks can be designed along a cline of difficulty so that learners can work on tasks that enable them to develop both fluency and an awareness of language form (Skehan 1998; 97). He also proposes that tasks can be used to "channel" learners toward particular aspects of language:

Such channeled use might be towards some aspect of the discourse, or accuracy, complexity, fluency in general, or even occasionally, the use of particular sets of structures in the language. (Skehan 1998: 97-98)

Types of learning and Techniques

We have seen that there are many different views as to what constitutes a task. Consequently, there are many competing descriptions of basic task types in TBLT and of appropriate classroom activities. Breen gives a very broad description of a task (1987; 26):

A language learning task can be regarded as a springboard for learning work. In a broad sense, it is a structured plan for the provision of opportunities for the refinement of knowledge and capabilities entailed in a new language and its use during communication. Such a work plan will have its own particular objective, appropriate content which is to be worked upon, and a working procedure. ... A simple and brief exercise is a task, and so also are more complex and comprehensive work plans which require spontaneous communication of meaning or the

solving of problems in learning and communicating. Any language rest can be included within this spectrum of tasks. All materials designed for language teaching - through their particular organization of content and the working procedures they assume or propose for the learning of content - can be seen as compendia of tasks

(Richards Jack: Task Based-Teaching, pag225)

For Prabhu, a task is "an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allows teachers to control and regulate that process" (Prabhu 1987: 17). Reading train timetables and deciding which train one should take to get to a certain destination on a given day is an appropriate classroom task according to this definition, Crookes defines a task as "a piece of work or an activity, usually with a specified objective, undertaken as part of an educational course, at work, or used to elicit data for research" (Crookes 1986: 1). This definition would lead to a very different set of "tasks" from those identified by Prabhu, since it could include not only summaries, essays and class notes, but presumably, in some language classrooms drills, dialogue readings, and any of the other "tasks" that teachers use to attain their teaching objectives

Pica Kanagy and Falodun (1993) classify tasks according to the type of interaction that occurs in task accomplishments and give the following classification:

- ❖ *Jigsaw tasks*: These involve learner combining different pieces of information to form a whole (e.g. three individuals or groups may have three different parts of a story and have to piece the story together).
- ❖ *Information-gap tasks*: One student or group of students has one set of information and another student or group has a complementary set of information. They must negotiate and find out what the other party's information is in order to complete an activity.
- ❖ *Problem-solving tasks*: Students are given a problem and a set of information. They must arrive at a solution to the problem; There is generally a single resolution of the outcome.
- ❖ *Decision-making tasks*: Students are given a problem for which there are a number of possible outcomes and they must choose one through negotiation and discussion.

- ❖ *Opinion exchange tasks*: Learners engage in discussion and exchange of ideas. They do not need to reach agreement.
- ❖ Other characteristics of tasks have also been described, such as the following:
 - ❖ One-way or two-way: whether that task involves a one-way exchange of information or a two-way exchange.
 - ❖ convergent or divergent: whether the students achieve a common goal or several different goals
 - ❖ collaborative or competitive: whether the students collaborate to carry out a task or compete with each other on a task
 - ❖ single or multiple outcomes: whether there is a single outcome or many different outcomes are possible.
 - ❖ concrete or abstract language: whether the task involves the use of concrete language or abstract language
 - ❖ simple or complex processing: whether the task requires relatively simple or complex cognitive processing.
 - ❖ reality-based or not-reality-based: whether the task mirrors a real-world activity or is a pedagogical activity not found in the real world.

Learner Roles

A number of specific roles for learners are assumed in current proposals for TBI. Some of these overlap with the general roles assumed for learners in Communicative Language Teaching while others are created by the focus on task completion as a central learning activity. Primary roles that are implied by task work are:

Group participant, many tasks will be done in pairs or small groups. For students more accustomed to whole-class and/or individual work, this may require some adaptation.

Monitor, in TBLT, tasks are not employed for their own sake but as a means of facilitating learning. Class activities have to be designed so that students have the opportunity to notice how language is used in communication. Learners themselves need to “attend” not only to the

message in task work, but also to the form in which such messages typically come packed. A number of learners-initiated techniques to support learner reflection on task characteristics, including language form, are proposed in Bell and Burnaby (1984).

Risk-Taker and Innovator, Many tasks will require learners to create and interpret messages for which they lack full linguistic resources and prior experience. In fact, this is said to be the point of such tasks. Practice in restating, paraphrasing, using paralinguistic signals (where appropriate), and so on, will often be needed. The skills of guessing from linguistic and contextual clues, asking for clarification, and consulting with other learners may also need to be developed.

The Role of Instructional Material

Pedagogic Materials, Instructional materials play an important role in TBLT because it is dependent on a sufficient supply of appropriate classroom tasks, some of which may require considerable time, ingenuity, and resources to develop. Materials that can be exploited for instruction in TBLT are limited only by the imagination of the task designer. Many contemporary language teaching texts cite a "task focus" or "task-based activities" among their credentials, though most of the tasks that appear in such books are familiar classroom activities for teachers who employ collaborative learning, Communicative Language Teaching, or small-group activities. Several teacher resource books are available that contain readapted for a variety of situations. A number of task collections have also been put into textbook form for students use. Some of these are in more or less traditional text format (e.g., Think Twice, Hover 1986), some are multimedia (e.g., Challenges, Candlin and Edelhoff 1982), and some are published as task cards (e.g., Malaysian Upper Secondary Communicational Syllabus Resource Kit, 1979). A wide variety of realia can also be used as a resource for TBI.

- ❖ Students examine a newspaper, determine its sections, and suggest three new sections that might go in the newspaper.
- ❖ Students prepare a job-wanted ad using examples from the classified section.
- ❖ Students prepare their weekend entertainment plan using the entertainment section.
- ❖ *Television*

- ❖ Students take notes during the weather report and prepare a map with weather symbols showing likely weather for the predicted period.
- ❖ In watching an infomercial, students identify and list "hype" words and then try to construct a parallel ad following the sequence of the hype words.
- ❖ After watching an episode of an unknown soap opera, students list the characters (with known or made-up names] and their possible relationship to other characters in the episode.
- ❖ *Internet*
- ❖ Given a book title to be acquired, students conduct a comparative shopping analysis of three Internet booksellers, listing prices, mailing times, and shipping charges, and choose a vendor, justifying their choice.
- ❖ Seeking to find an inexpensive hotel in Tokyo, students search with three different search engines (e.g., Yahoo, Netscape, Snap), comparing search times and analyzing the first ten hits to determine most useful search engine for their purpose.
- ❖ Students initiate a "chat" in a chat room, indicating a current interest in their life and developing an answer to the first three people to respond. They then start a diary with these text-sets, ranking the responses.
- ❖ **e.2.4.5. Procedure**, The way in which task activities are designed into an instructional bloc can be seen from the following example from Richards (1985). The example comes from a language program that contained a core component built around tasks. The program was an intensive conversation course for Japanese college students studying on a summer program in the United States. Needs analysis identified target tasks the students needed to be able to carry out in English, including:
 - ❖ basic social survival transactions
 - ❖ face-to-face informal conversations
 - ❖ telephone conversations
 - ❖ interviews on the campus
 - ❖ service encounters

A set of role-play activities was then developed focusing on situations students would encounter in the community and transactions they would have to carry out in English. The following format was developed for each role-play task:

Pretask activities

1. Learners first take part in a preliminary activity that introduces the topic, the situation, and the "script" that will subsequently appear in the role-play task. Such activities are of various kinds, including brainstorming, ranking exercises, and problem-solving tasks. The focus is on thinking about a topic, generating vocabulary and related language, and developing expectations about the topic. This activity therefore prepares learners for the role-play task by establishing schemata of different kinds.
2. Learners then read a dialogue on a related topic. This serves both to model the kind of transaction the learner will have to perform in the role-play task and to provide examples of the kind of language that could be used to carry out such a transaction.

Task activity

3. Learners perform a role play. Students work in pairs with a task and cues needed to negotiate the task.

Posttask activities

4. Learners then listen to recordings of native speakers performing the same role-play task they have just practiced and compare differences between the way they expressed particular functions and meanings and the way native speakers performed.

Willis (1996: 56-57) recommends a similar sequence of activities

Pretask

Introduction to topic and task

- ◆ T helps Ss to understand the theme and objectives of the task, for example, brainstorming ideas with the class, using pictures, mime, or personal experience to introduce the topic.
- ◆ Ss may do a pretask, for example, topic-based odd-word-out games
- ◆ T may highlight useful words and phrases, but would not preteach new structures.
- ◆ Ss can be given preparation time to think about how to do the task.
- ◆ Ss can hear a recording of a parallel task being done (so long as this does not give away the solution to the problem).
- ◆ If the task is based on a text, Ss read part of it.

The task cycle

Task

- ◆ The task is done by Ss (in pairs or groups) and gives Ss a chance to use: whatever language they already have to express themselves and say whatever they want to say. This may be in response to reading a text or hearing a recording.
- ◆ T walks round and monitors, encouraging in a supportive way everyone's attempts at communication in the target language.
- ◆ T helps Ss to formulate what they want to say, but will not intervene to, correct errors of form.
- ◆ The emphasis is on spontaneous, exploratory talk and confidence building, within the privacy of the small group.
- ◆ Success in achieving the goals of the task helps Ss' motivation.

Planning

- ◆ Planning prepares for the next stage, when Ss are asked to report briefly to the whole class how they did the task and what the outcome was.
- ◆ Ss draft and rehearse what they want to say or write.
- ◆ T goes round to advise students on language, suggesting phrases and helping Ss to polish and correct their language. If the reports are in writing, T can encourage peer editing and use of dictionaries.
- ◆ The emphasis is on clarity, organization, and accuracy, as appropriate "" for a public presentation.
- ◆ Individual students often take this chance to ask questions about specific language items.

Report

- ◆ T asks some pairs to report briefly to the whole class so everyone can compare findings, or begin a survey. (NB: There must be a purpose for others to listen.) Sometimes only one or two groups report in full-others comment and add extra points. The class may take notes.
- ◆ T comments on the content of their reports, rephrases perhaps, but gives no overt public correction.

Posttask listening

- ◆ Ss listen to a recording of fluent speakers doing the same task, and compare the ways in which they did the task themselves.

The language focus

Analysis

- ◆ T sets some language-focused tasks, based on the texts students have read or on the transcripts of the recordings they have heard.
- ◆ Examples include the following:
 - Find words and phrases related to the title of the topic or text.
 - Read the transcript, find words ending in s or 's, and say what the s means.
 - Find all the verbs in the simple past form. Say which refer to past time and which do not.
 - Underline and classify the questions in the transcript.
- ◆ T starts Ss off, then Ss continue, often in pairs.
- ◆ T goes round to help; Ss can ask individual questions.
- ◆ In plenary, T then reviews the analysis, possibly writing relevant language up on the board in list form; Ss may make notes.

Practice

- ◆ T conducts practice activities as needed, based on the language analysis work already on the board, or using examples from the text or transcript.
- ◆ Practice activities can include:
 - choral repetition of the phrases identified and classified
 - memory challenge games based on partially erased examples or using
 - lists already on blackboard for progressive deletion
 - sentence completion (set by one team for another)
 - matching the past-tense verbs (jumbled) with the subject or objects
 - they had in the text
 - Kim's game (in teams) with new words and phrases dictionary reference words from text or transcript

RECEPTIVE SKILLS

The receptive skills are listening and reading, because learners do not need to produce language to do these, they receive and understand it. These skills are sometimes known as passive skills. They can be contrasted with the productive or active skills of speaking and writing.

- Example

Often in the process of learning new language, learners begin with receptive understanding of the new items, then later move on to productive use.

- In the classroom

The relationship between receptive and productive skills is a complex one, with one set of skills naturally supporting another. For example, building reading skills can contribute to the development of writing.

LISTENING SKILL

The ability to listen is essential for success in all relationships. Listening carefully can open the door to help you understand information and discover insight for certain situations. Listening deeply involves much more than merely utilizing your sense of hearing.

IDENTIFICATION

Good listening skills involve a person paying full attention to what someone else is saying and ignoring distractions surrounding you. Listening skills also involve asking questions about what the other person has said and not prejudging the other person's message.

SIGNIFICANCE

Mindtools reports that people only remember an average of 25 to 50 percent of what they have heard. This means we often miss out on up to half of our conversations. Not having proper listening skills causes your relationships to suffer and hinders your decision-making ability.

FEATURES

Having good listening skills means using nonverbal cues and eye contact to demonstrate that you are paying attention. A sign of good listening skills is when a person asks clarifying questions during a conversation. This indicates that the person wants to make sure he heard you and understood what you communicated. Paraphrasing or summarizing after conversing for a few minutes is also a sign of good communication skills. It is important to understand that basic listening skills do not involve providing advice or opinions; the objective is primarily to understand what someone else is saying.

BENEFITS

Having good active listening skills can help you understand what are you are supposed to do at work and thus increase your opportunities for promotion. Good listening skills can also help you establish a positive rapport with your colleagues and co-workers. In educational situations, listening skills can help you understand and apply complicated concepts and increase your likelihood of answering questions correctly or most appropriately. Listening skills can also help you understand the underlying meaning behind

what other people communicate. They can also help you build trust in your relationships, because whoever you listen to will feel understood and respected”¹³.

IMPROVE YOUR LISTENING SKILLS

“How can I improve my listening skills? Read to find out the importance of redeveloping this skill.

Conversation is an art. People can be enjoyable to talk with, or they can be bores. A person is sought out for conversation, not because of the content of what they say, but for their ability to understand others. Good listeners are the individuals who are perceived to be charismatic, insightful, and even enlightened. These people make others feel special; they have friends and followers to spare.

Some people feel that good listeners are born, but as it is with most worthwhile activities. Listening is a skill that can be learned, practiced and perfected. It begins by educating oneself on the techniques, and practicing these in day to day interactions. The following exercises are a beginning enroute to becoming an expert listener.

1. The first skill is attending. This includes making eye contact, leaning toward the individual talking, and gently nodding the head to indicate approval and understanding. These behaviors suggest that the listener is following what is being said, and is receptive to the information
2. The second step is empathic responses. These responses are meant to identify the underlying feelings of the words that the speaker is uttering. When people are talking what

¹³BIRNES Heidi in Modules for the professional preparation of teaching assistants in Foreign Languages (Grace Stovall Burkart, ed.; Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1998).

they really want other people to hear is how a given situation makes them feel. Using this technique lets them know you are listening to what they are really feeling. Empathic responses begin with empathy starters:

“It sounds like you were.....(angry, sad, frustrated, excited, etc.)”

“You were feeling(Down, upset, thrilled, etc.)”

“What I am hearing is that you.....(weren’t appreciated, were letdown, wanted someone to care.....)”

“You felt.....(Lonely, excluded, frightened, relieved, etc.)

These are just a few examples of ways to identify the feelings of the speakers. As illustrated by the parenthetical information, each of these statements can be used to clarify many different feelings. Use these often in a conversation. They are open ended and encourage the speaker to explore their own understanding of their feelings.

3. Paraphrase the content of what is being shared. Often a speaker will get so involved in talking, he/she will lose track of what they say. Paraphrasing in a concise manner can clarify for both the speaker and the listener. Paraphrasing is useful when it is not easy to decipher what the feelings are behind the words. This technique can help the person talking expand, and reveal what he/she really wants to express.

4. Ask questions. This technique is valuable but dangerous. If the wrong question is asked it can lead the conversation in a dead end direction. If a man wishes to talk about how hurt he is over a break-up, and is asked, “Why did you let that one go? She was gorgeous.” The man will be further saddened by his loss, and will feel like a loser. In most cases the speaker does not want to be asked, “Why....” Questions that begin with ‘Why’ generally offer some type of blame or judgment. Good questions might be:

“How did that make you feel?”

“What did that mean to you?”

“Where do you think you will go from here?”

All these examples encourage further exploration, and do not suggest judgment of any kind.

5. The last and perhaps the most important technique to be discussed, is silence. Silence makes people uncomfortable. It is laden with thought, and sometimes pain. Too often people are afraid to wait out the silence and jump in to fill it up with words. A good listener is comfortable with silence, and knows that it bears much emotional fruit. Sometimes waiting out several minutes of silence will give the speaker a chance to dig deep for a much needed insight. The listener needs to sit through the silence and let the speaker sort through the angst. Mastering the silence is an important achievement.

Practicing these techniques does not mean good listeners will never get to express themselves again. There is a time to listen and a time to talk. But being a caring person means a person makes an effort to listen when others are in crisis. These techniques can be vital in developing intimacies and supporting loved ones. Making a conscious effort to listen will enhance a person’s ability to understand, insights into problems, and overall conversation skills”¹⁴.

WHAT ARE THREE TYPES OF EFFECTIVE LISTENING?

Paraphrasing

¹⁴Byrnes, H. (1984). The Role of Listening Comprehension: A theoretical base. *Foreign Language Annals*, 17, 317-329.

"To paraphrase, one simply rewords what another individual has said. For example, the speaker might say, "She was foolish to quit her job." The listener might respond, "I hear you saying that you believe she shouldn't have quit." What has occurred is paraphrasing where the listener has clarified what the speaker has said.

Open Questions

An open question explores a person's statement without requiring a simple "yes" or "no" answer. The basic difference between an open question and a closed question is what they provide the person being asked. When you are asked an open question it helps you think more about an issue. A closed question will not do that. It may force you to answer before you are ready, or require a "yes" or "no" answer that doesn't allow more thinking about the issue. Closed questions close the door on further thought, while open questions open the door. For example, the speaker might say, "I don't like my job." The listener might respond, "What about your job don't you like?" or, "Tell me more about your feelings

Feeling Reflection

Feeling reflection is a response in which you express a feeling or emotion you have experienced in reference to a particular statement. For example, the speaker might say, "I get sick of working so much overtime!" The listener might respond, "I hear you feeling angry and resentful at being asked to work so much overtime." Feeling reflections are perhaps the most difficult active listening responses to make. Not only do you actively listen to what is being said but also you actively listen for what is being felt. When you make a feeling reflection, you are reflecting back what you hear of another's feelings. It is similar to paraphrasing; however, you repeat what you heard them feeling instead of what

you heard them saying. To understand what individuals are feeling, you must listen to their words, to their tone of voice, and watch their body signals. By observing all three you can begin to guess their feelings.

* Listen carefully so that you will be able to understand, comprehend and evaluate. Careful listening will require a conscious effort on your part. You must be aware of the verbal and nonverbal messages (reading between the lines).

* Be mentally and physically prepared to listen. Put other thoughts out of your mind. Your attention will be diverted from listening if you try to think of answers in advance.

* You can't hear if you do all the talking.

* Think about the topic in advance, if possible. Be prepared to listen.

* Listen with empathy. See the situation from the other's point of view. Try to put yourself in their shoes.

* Be courteous; don't interrupt. Take notes if you worry about forgetting a particular point.

* Avoid stereotyping individuals by making assumptions about how you expect them to act. This will bias your listening.

* Listen to how something is said. Be alert for what is left unsaid.

* Make certain everyone involved gets an opportunity to voice their opinions. Don't let one person dominate the conversation.* Face those you are talking with, lean slightly forward and make eye contact. Use your body to show your interest and concern.

ROADBLOCKS TO EFFECTIVE LISTENING

The following types of responses indicate ineffective listening:

Warning, interrogating, preaching, ordering, judging, diverting, analyzing, blaming, labeling, moralizing, probing, ridiculing, threatening, reassuring, distracting, sympathizing, demanding, interpreting, teaching, withdrawing, giving solutions, scolding, praising, advising, criticizing, directing, lecturing, name-calling"¹⁵

REASONS TO IMPROVE LISTENING SKILLS

- To avoid saying the wrong thing, being tactless
- To dissipate strong feelings
- To learn to accept feelings (yours and others)
- To generate a feeling of caring
- To help people start listening to you
- To increase the other person's confidence in you
- To make the other person feel important and recognized
- To be sure you both are on the same wavelength
- To be sure you both are focused on the same topic
- To check that you are both are on target with one another

QUESTIONS TO ASK YOURSELF IN CONVERSATIONS

- What am I doing in this interaction?
- What are my strategies or goals in communicating this message?
- Where do I want to go in this conversation?
- What is my body feeling right now in this conversation?

¹⁵Lund, R.J. (1990). A taxonomy for teaching second language listening. *Foreign Language Annals*, 23 , 105-115.

- What pressures am I feeling in talking with this person?
- What could I say differently?
- How could I say that so as to show I understood?
- What am I feeling at this time?
- What impulses do I have?
- What is my decision--making process in this conversation?
- How is she feeling toward me?
- What do I want or not want him to feel?
- What risks am I experiencing in this conversation?
- How is her appearance affecting me?
- What fantasy is going on in my head in this dialogue?
- What cues of the other am I responding to?
- How does his behavior affect my approach in this discussion?
- How genuine am I feeling at this time?
- How does what I say reflect genuineness to her?
- How could I have made what I just said more empathetic?
- How did I demonstrate respect for the other?
- How is my level of communication and vocabulary affecting the dialogue?
- What different style of communication could I use to reach her better?
- How attentive am I to him at this time?
- How do I feel about her response?
- How comfortable am I feeling at this time?
- How are my values affecting what I am hearing at this time?
- What is the level of my trust at this time?

FEELINGS FOR WHICH YOU CAN BE LISTENING

"Use these lists of words to help you as you listen for the feelings of others in your conversations. Try to identify the other person's feeling, then reflect them back to the speaker.

Positive feelings include love, affection, concern, interest, elation and joy.

Negative feelings include depression, sadness, distress, fear, anger and anxiety.

PRACTICE LISTENING FOR FEELINGS.

Give either a paraphrase, an open question or a feeling-reflection listening response for each of the following statements. First identify the feelings, then give your response.

Compare your answers with a friend's. Discuss the feelings identification and appropriateness of your responses.

"I am overwhelmed with work and can't get to your project yet."

"No one ever appreciates me around here!"

"I am lost. I'll never get this job done. Can you help me with this?"

"When I was younger I never knew what to expect in my house. One day Dad would be happy and carefree, and the next day he might be angry and hateful."

"I always work hard to achieve the goals of my group. I can't believe everyone else doesn't feel that way."

"I am so upset. I hate bringing the baby to the mall. Everyone stares at him. I get so embarrassed, I could cry!"

"Why doesn't anyone understand how I feel? I try my hardest but it never seems to matter. They still argue and fight all the time."

"I would rather die than let anyone know how I feel about it."

"No one but me is responsible for what happens to me. Butt out of my business and I'll butt out of yours."

"Why did this have to happen to me? What did I do wrong? Why has God chosen me for this?"

"Why doesn't anyone ever hear me? I am so anxious for them to give me a chance but they all seem busy and preoccupied. I don't think they really care about me anymore."

"You are all a bunch of phonies. I can't stand your cold-hearted, pompous ideas of right and wrong. I'd rather be anywhere else than with you tonight!"

"I get so embarrassed in that group. Everyone seems so together and with it. I'm afraid they would never accept me for who I am and the way I feel."

"I get so uptight coming to this group every week. I am sure that someday my turn will come and I'll be so clammed up I'll never be able to say a word."

"I am so afraid of letting my feelings out. If I ever let them out, I may never stop. I might go over the edge."

"My dad and mom are so busy taking care of my little brother that I'm afraid to tell them about my problems. They seem insignificant compared to his problems."

"Nobody really cares if we win or lose. They goof around and take nothing serious."

"I am so untalented, ignorant and ugly that no one could possibly love me."

"I want to thank you for making this the best day of my life. You are all so special and wonderful. I love you all."¹⁶

LISTENING ROLE-PLAY ACTIVITY

You and a friend can practice effective listening on one another. Practice with these suggested topics.

Step 1

One partner takes a turn as speaker, the other as listener. For 5 minutes the speaker elaborates on one of the ten topics. The listener uses effective listening and makes appropriate responses back to the speaker.

Step 2

After the 5-minute role play is completed, the speaker spends two minutes giving feedback to the listening partner on the effective listener skills used. Review Section II to help you give appropriate feedback.

Step 3

After the first practice and feedback session, switch roles until all topics have been covered.

¹⁶Morley, J. (1991). Listening Comprehension in Second/Foreign Language Instruction. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), Teaching English as a second or foreign language (pp. 81-106). Boston, MA: Heinle&Heinle.

PRACTICE LISTENING TOPICS:

How I feel about:

- My life today.
- Being raised in my family of origin.
- All the good things that have happened to me.
- My future.
- My decision to participate in a support group.
- My current personal problems.
- Learning to deal with my problems.
- Listening to other people's deepest concerns and feelings.
- Showing love to those closest to me.
- The fact that I influence my life, regardless of the events, with either positive or negative outcomes.

THE BEST LISTENING SKILLS

"Listening is the most frequently used communication skill, but many of us are poor listeners. We lose interest, we concentrate on the speaker's appearance instead of his words and our thoughts tend to drift simply because we can think faster than people speak. According to the University of Missouri, it takes 25 percent of our mental capacity to hear what someone is saying, leaving the other 75 percent to wander wherever it wants. However, discipline and active engagement in the conversation can significantly improve your listening skills.

❖ **Focus**

Pay attention to your speaker. Make eye contact with him and let him know you are listening by nodding or agreeing. However, even if you are making eye contact and nodding, it is still quite easy for your mind to wander. Concentrate on the speaker's word and anticipate his next statement. Ask yourself why he would say that or why he did not say what you were expecting. Watch his body language for a better clue of his true feelings.

❖ **Remove Distractions**

Close any books and remove any work from your desk when listening to a lecture. Do not use your computer to take notes during a lecture or meeting, as it is too easy to distract yourself with email or other work. Ask others around you to cease conversation, or ask your speaker to move to a quieter environment if possible.

❖ **Summarize**

When listening in a lecture or group meeting, summarize what the speaker has just said. This will not only strengthen your understanding of the subject, but will also improve your memory of the lecture and keep you from getting distracted by outside stimuli.

❖ **Take Notes**

If you have questions or comments that need to be addressed, simply make a note of them and bring them up when appropriate. Taking notes will also improve your listening skills as it physically forces you to listen.

❖ **Respond When Appropriate**

Save your questions or comments for when the speaker is done talking. The speaker may inadvertently address any concerns you may have had or answer your question later in the lecture. Interrupting is not only rude, but also proves that you are not willing to listen fully. Avoid forming any opinion of the speaker until you have listened to his entire statement. Jumping to conclusions will only distract you from the speaker's message. Responding once the speaker has finished talking allows you to ask better questions or make stronger comments without wasting the speaker's time.

❖ **Ask Questions**

It is important that you do respond. This lets the speaker know that you listened to what he had to say and you either understand or want to know more. Asking questions shows the speaker that you are interested in what he has to say and are all ears.

ACTIVITIES TO IMPROVE LISTENING SKILLS

Active listening is a useful skill to develop. Not only does it ensure that your conversations are productive, it also helps the people you're talking with to feel valued and respected by you. You can use several different activities to improve listening skills and practice your skills at home, at work, at school and even in line at the supermarket.

❖ **Learning to Focus**

To actively listen, you have to be able to pay attention while someone is talking. Though this may sound obvious, there are plenty of distractions that can get in the way of really hearing what someone is saying, ranging from environmental distractions to your own thoughts. Changing your physical behaviors can enhance your listening skills. Next time you're in a conversation, make a point to make eye contact with the person you're talking to. Uncross your arms, and lean forward slightly toward the person you're talking to. If you're sitting, sit up straight, uncross your legs and move forward in your chair. Turn off distractions, like your cell phone ringer or your email alert notification, so that you're not pulled away from the conversation. You can ask a friend to help you practice focusing, or you can hone your focusing skills in everyday conversation.

❖ **Learning to Question**

Asking questions keeps you engaged in a conversation, so it can be a practical way to build your listening skills. Next time you're in a conversation, listen carefully for opportunities to ask questions. You may find that you want to clarify a point, or your curiosity may be piqued by something said. As you form a question in your mind, listen carefully to see if your question is answered or addressed by the speaker; if it's not, ask, and listen to the speaker's response.

❖ **Learning to Echo**

One of the best ways to make sure you're listening to what someone is saying is to repeat what you're hearing back to them. As a conversation progresses, instead of responding to what the speaker is saying, confirm that you're understanding the speaker correctly. Say something like "What I'm hearing you saying is" or "It sounds like you think," and briefly summarize what you heard. Follow up by asking the speaker if you've understood her correctly. Not only will you improve your listening skills, but you'll also make the speaker feel heard and understood, which is one of the signs of effective listening. You can practice doing this with a friend or family member so that it feels natural."¹⁷

TEN TIPS FOR IMPROVING LISTENING SKILLS

"Communication involves listening, as well as speaking. But listening involves more than merely hearing the words directed at us. Good listening is active. It means focusing on verbal and nonverbal cues and interpreting the message. While some people are better listeners than other, most people can develop the skills to be a good listener

❖ Focus on the Speaker

For best listening, sit where you can see the other person clearly. If you're in a classroom or lecture hall, sit near the front. This will eliminate distractions and help you to focus on the speaker.

¹⁷Richards, J.C. (1983). Listening comprehension: Approach, design, procedure. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17, 219-240.

❖ **Study Nonverbal Cues**

Pay attention to the speaker's body language and facial expressions. They can give you clues about what she's trying to express.

❖ **Ask Questions**

Stay involved in the conversation by asking questions. This helps you stay focused and clarifies any vague points. It also shows the speaker that you're paying attention.

❖ **Make Encouraging Comments**

You can also provide encouraging comments such as "I understand" or "I'm sorry to hear that." This lets the speaker know you're paying attention.

❖ **Don't Interrupt**

Wait for natural breaks in the conversation to ask your questions. Give the speaker plenty of time to express herself. Interrupting may cause her to shut down before she has delivered her entire message.

❖ **Empathize**

Even if the speaker is telling you something you don't want to hear, try to see the situation from her point of view. Try to set aside your own emotions for the moment.

❖ **Reflect Interest With Your Body Language**

Lean toward the speaker. Make eye contact. Nod. Let your body telegraph that *you're* involved in the conversation.

❖ **Don't Think Ahead**

Resist the urge to prepare a mental argument and instead try to simply listen to the message the speaker is delivering.

❖ **Repeat Salient Points**

Show you understand the speaker's message by repeating the main points when it's your turn to speak. This gives the other person the opportunity to clarify if you've misinterpreted.

❖ **Don't Offer Advice Unless Asked**

Sometimes someone only wants to unburden herself. You don't have to try to fix the problem or tell her what to do. Offer advice or an opinion only if the speaker asks for one.

THE BEST WAYS TO IMPROVE INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

The University of Northern Iowa defines interpersonal communication as "communicating 'one on one' with other human beings" and describes successful communication as including the ability to predict "how the other person will understand and react to you." Interpersonal communication contains nonverbal cues, including body language and eye contact, and verbal cues, including language and emotional tone. Several approaches can

be taken to improve your interpersonal communication, whether you are dealing with family, friends, co-workers or strangers.

Think About the Mood You Set

A simple "hello" can reflect your mood and attitude. When you talk to someone on the telephone, you know what the other person's attitude or mood is by the inflection in his voice, not just by his words. Think about how your voice reflects your attitude towards your audience. Think about the words you choose. You will alienate your audience if you are rude or use inappropriate language.

An effective way to improve your verbal communication skills is to practice, recording yourself digitally on a device such as a cell phone. Play back your recording and listen carefully to how you sound. Does it match how you feel? Is it appropriate for the feelings you are trying to convey?

IMPROVE YOUR LISTENING SKILLS

There are four key elements in the listening process: hearing, interpreting, evaluating and responding to the message. All four elements work together to build an understanding of what you are hearing.

The 2005 book "Are You Really Listening?" suggests you ask these questions as you listen. What am I hearing? What feelings am I hearing? What is the message? What is the information that I am hearing? Once you understand the meaning of the message, you can engage in effective interpersonal communication.

Use Appropriate Body Language

Appropriate body language can reinforce your verbal message or reflect your mood.

There are some conscious methods you can utilize to show the listener you are actively listening.

When someone is speaking to you, be aware of your facial expressions. Smiling, for instance, will reveal to your listener that you are pleased. Avoid showing unconscious signs of disapproval, such as crossing your arms in front of you. A simple nod of the head shows approval.

Acknowledge Your Audience

Acknowledging your audience is one of the principle techniques of effective interpersonal communication. The person you communicate with needs to know he is understood.

Make eye contact with the speaker throughout the conversation. Ask questions to prove you are listening and for clarification. If you don't have specific questions, you can paraphrase what you heard back to your listener.

TECHNIQUES FOR IMPROVING LISTENING SKILLS

Exhibiting effective listening skills requires attentiveness, effort, patience and practice.

Zoning out causes interpersonal relationship problems. Simply acknowledging the

presence of the other person does not mean you are listening to what is being communicated. Listening skills are demonstrated when a person responds with understanding and the ability to interpret and evaluate what was said or asked. This ultimately leads to improving interpersonal relationships by decreasing conflicts, improving cooperation and creating a common understanding.

❖ **Listen and Wait Your Turn**

Being an effective listener requires you to sometimes remain silent. Some people feel they can listen and talk at the same time. However, they find while they are talking they only hear some words or sounds being communicated to them. This results in failed communication or at least lost messages and inappropriate responses. Being quiet will enable you to not only hear out the person, but allow you to think about how you want to respond.

❖ **Be Reactive**

As you listen to a person, some form of response should be evident, whether it is with a verbal and/or non verbal cue. Such cues include reflective and/or paraphrasing statements, statements of support, a nod of head, eye contact and leaning forward. Being reactive is just as important as being quiet because it assures not only that the person knows you are listening but also presents accountability for staying attentive and comprehending.

❖ **Be Responsive**

After actively listening to a person, how you respond determines not only the quality of your listening skills but the outcome of that interpersonal communication. Giving an inappropriate response can cause conflict, mistrust and difficulty forming relationships. In order to be responsive you have to be able to provide a verbal and/or behavioral response appropriate to the conversation at hand.

EXERCISES FOR LISTENING SKILLS

Relationship experts and counselors agree that effective communication skills are a vital part of any relationship. According to world-renowned educator and therapist Harville Hendrix, "good communication skills may not solve problems or resolve issues, but no problem can be solved, or issue resolved, without it." Listening is an essential part of communicating and, by practicing specific exercises, your listening skills can improve and make a difference in almost any situation.

Listen Actively

Good listening is not passive; it's active. Exercise your active listening skills by paraphrasing what the other person has said. Clarify that what you heard is what she meant by saying things like, "If I'm understanding you correctly, you mean that...." This trains you to focus on what the other person is saying rather than jumping to conclusions. If you didn't get it right the first time, ask for a correction and then say things like, "Oh, I see. I think you meant...." Hendrix calls this process "mirroring," and he stresses that the process should be repeated "until your partner affirms that you have clearly understood the message he or she sent."

Pay Close Attention

In an exercise on paying close attention, think about your habitual reactions when someone is talking. During a conversation, notice whether you start planning what you'll say before he is finished. Maybe you have a similar story of your own to share, or you want to offer advice. Remind yourself to simply listen. Observe the speaker's tone of voice and body language--those are just as important as his words. Form a picture in your mind of what he is talking about and try to understand what emotions he may be feeling. Gregorio Billikopf Encina, an expert in mediation at the University of California, notes that "when a person proceeds to give a suggestion before understanding the situation, individuals will frequently pretend to go along with the proposal simply to get rid of the problem solver."

Validate

Exercise your ability to understand. Instead of assuming the other person wants advice or an opinion, simply let her know that what she said makes sense. Tell her that you can see why she feels that way or why he made the choices she did. Hendrix calls this "validation" and says it's important because it helps the other person feel reassured that you truly have paid attention and can see what it's like to be in her shoes. Validation does not mean you agree with the person, necessarily, but it does mean you accept the other person's reality. This process is important in helping the other person feel understood and encourages the person to talk freely.

Consider Your Response

Exercise your flexibility. As a discussion winds down, ask what the other person needs, if anything. Ask him if she'd like advice, or maybe he's just venting. Offer to tell a story

about how you handled a similar situation, or maybe he'd like your help in brainstorming for ideas. What you want to hear if the situation were reversed isn't always what others want or need. Sometimes people just want to feel understood and, if you haven't listened well, you might not be able to do that"¹⁸

STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE LISTENING SKILLS

"People spend more than 45 percent of their communication time listening, according to an article by Dick Lee and Delmar Hatesohl published through the University of Missouri Extension. Though people tend to spend substantially more time listening than they do talking, reading or writing, most people don't have great listening skills, according to Lee and Hatesohl.

❖ Decide to Pay Attention

It sounds simple, but one of the best ways to listen effectively is to decide that you want to hear what someone is saying. If you convince yourself that the subject in question is boring, useless or otherwise not worth listening to, you'll be easily distracted, according to Lee and Hatesohl. Make up your mind that you want to hear what's being said, and you'll be a much better listener.

❖ Make Eye Contact

You'll find it easier to listen if you make regular eye contact with the speaker, according to the University of Minnesota Duluth Student Handbook. It's fine to look away

¹⁸Rixon, S. (1981). The design of materials to foster particular linguistic skills. *The teaching of listening comprehension*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 258 465).

occasionally to take notes or make note of a presentation point, but maintaining appropriate eye contact helps keep you actively engaged with what you're hearing.

Talk Less

The more you talk in a conversation, the less you're listening. Avoid trying to plan what you're going to say next while another person's talking if you really want to hear what he's telling you, says William F. Doverspike, PhD, in an article on the Georgia Psychological Association's website. Also take advantages of the other person's pauses as an opportunity to absorb what he's saying rather than as a cue for you to start talking.

Summarize as You Go

As you're listening, make mental summaries of what's being said. According to Lee and Hatesohl, good listeners use conversational pauses to mentally summarize the most important information. It can be helpful to repeat your summary aloud to the speaker, saying "Here's what it sounds like you're concerned about" or "It sounds like you're saying this" before repeating your summary.

Focus on the Big Picture

Don't get bogged down by quibbles you might have with individual words or details, says Doverspike. Instead, focus on the big picture. Make sure you understand the speaker's main point instead of getting sidelined by details that may not matter. Along the same

lines, don't let a speaker's vocal habits or appearance distract you from what she's saying."¹⁹

READING SKILL

"Traditionally, the purpose of learning to read in a language has been to have access to the literature written in that language. In language instruction, reading materials have traditionally been chosen from literary texts that represent "higher" forms of culture.

This approach assumes that students learn to read a language by studying its vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure, not by actually reading it. In this approach, lower level learners read only sentences and paragraphs generated by textbook writers and instructors. The reading of authentic materials is limited to the works of great authors and reserved for upper level students who have developed the language skills needed to read them.

The communicative approach to language teaching has given instructors a different understanding of the role of reading in the language classroom and the types of texts that can be used in instruction. When the goal of instruction is communicative competence, everyday materials such as train schedules, newspaper articles, and travel and tourism Web sites become appropriate classroom materials, because reading them is one way communicative competence is developed. Instruction in reading and reading practice thus become essential parts of language teaching at every level.

¹⁹Rubin, J. (1987). Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 15-30). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

READING PURPOSE AND READING COMPREHENSION

Reading is an activity with a purpose. A person may read in order to gain information or verify existing knowledge, or in order to critique a writer's ideas or writing style. A person may also read for enjoyment, or to enhance knowledge of the language being read. The purpose(s) for reading guide the reader's selection of texts.

The purpose for reading also determines the appropriate approach to reading comprehension. A person who needs to know whether she can afford to eat at a particular restaurant needs to comprehend the pricing information provided on the menu, but does not need to recognize the name of every appetizer listed. A person reading poetry for enjoyment needs to recognize the words the poet uses and the ways they are put together, but does not need to identify main idea and supporting details. However, a person using a scientific article to support an opinion needs to know the vocabulary that is used, understand the facts and cause-effect sequences that are presented, and recognize ideas that are presented as hypotheses and givens.

READING RESEARCH SHOWS THAT GOOD READERS

- Read extensively
- Integrate information in the text with existing knowledge
- Have a flexible reading style, depending on what they are reading
- Are motivated
- Rely on different skills interacting: perceptual processing, phonemic processing, recall

- Read for a purpose; reading serves a function”²⁰

READING AS A PROCESS

“Reading is an interactive process that goes on between the reader and the text, resulting in comprehension. The text presents letters, words, sentences, and paragraphs that encode meaning. The reader uses knowledge, skills, and strategies to determine what that meaning is.

READER KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS, AND STRATEGIES INCLUDE

- Linguistic competence: the ability to recognize the elements of the writing system; knowledge of vocabulary; knowledge of how words are structured into sentences
- Discourse competence: knowledge of discourse markers and how they connect parts of the text to one another
- Sociolinguistic competence: knowledge about different types of texts and their usual structure and content
- Strategic competence: the ability to use top-down strategies (see Strategies for Developing Reading Skills for descriptions), as well as knowledge of the language (a bottom-up strategy)

The purpose(s) for reading and the type of text determine the specific knowledge, skills, and strategies that readers need to apply to achieve comprehension. Reading comprehension is thus much more than decoding. Reading comprehension, results when

²⁰Ackersold, J. A., & Field, M. L. (1997). *From reader to reading teacher: Issues and strategies for second language classrooms*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

the reader knows which skills and strategies are appropriate for the type of text, and understands how to apply them to accomplish the reading purpose.

GOALS AND TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING READING

Instructors want to produce students who, even if they do not have complete control of the grammar or an extensive lexicon, can fend for themselves in communication situations. In the case of reading, this means producing students who can use reading strategies to maximize their comprehension of text, identify relevant and non-relevant information, and tolerate less than word-by-word comprehension.

❖ Focus: The Reading Process

To accomplish this goal, instructors focus on the process of reading rather than on its product.

- They develop students' awareness of the reading process and reading strategies by asking students to think and talk about how they read in their native language.
- They allow students to practice the full repertoire of reading strategies by using authentic reading tasks. They encourage students to read to learn (and have an authentic purpose for reading) by giving students some choice of reading material.
- When working with reading tasks in class, they show students the strategies that will work best for the reading purpose and the type of text. They explain how and why students should use the strategies.
- They have students practice reading strategies in class and ask them to practice outside of class in their reading assignments. They encourage students to be conscious of what they're doing while they complete reading assignments.

- They encourage students to evaluate their comprehension and self-report their use of strategies. They build comprehension checks into in-class and out-of-class reading assignments, and periodically review how and when to use particular strategies.
- They encourage the development of reading skills and the use of reading strategies by using the target language to convey instructions and course-related information in written form: office hours, homework assignments, test content.
- They do not assume that students will transfer strategy use from one task to another. They explicitly mention how a particular strategy can be used in a different type of reading task or with another skill.

By raising students' awareness of reading as a skill that requires active engagement, and by explicitly teaching reading strategies, instructors help their students develop both the ability and the confidence to handle communication situations they may encounter beyond the classroom. In this way they give their students the foundation for communicative competence in the new language."²¹

INTEGRATING READING STRATEGIES

"Instruction in reading strategies is not an add-on, but rather an integral part of the use of reading activities in the language classroom. Instructors can help their students become effective readers by teaching them how to use strategies before, during, and after reading.

❖ Before reading: Plan for the reading task

²¹Barnett, M. A. (1989). *More than meets the eye: Foreign language learner reading theory and practice*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

- Set a purpose or decide in advance what to read for
- Decide if more linguistic or background knowledge is needed
- Determine whether to enter the text from the top down (attend to the overall meaning) or from the bottom up (focus on the words and phrases)

❖ **During and after reading: Monitor comprehension**

- Verify predictions and check for inaccurate guesses
- Decide what is and is not important to understand
- Reread to check comprehension
- Ask for help

❖ **After reading: Evaluate comprehension and strategy use**

- Evaluate comprehension in a particular task or area
- Evaluate overall progress in reading and in particular types of reading tasks
- Decide if the strategies used were appropriate for the purpose and for the task
- Modify strategies if necessary

USING AUTHENTIC MATERIALS AND APPROACHES

For students to develop communicative competence in reading, classroom and homework reading activities must resemble (or be) real-life reading tasks that involve meaningful communication. They must therefore be authentic in three ways.

1. The reading material must be authentic: It must be the kind of material that students will need and want to be able to read when traveling, studying abroad, or using the language in other contexts outside the classroom.

When selecting texts for student assignments, remember that the difficulty of a reading text is less a function of the language, and more a function of the conceptual difficulty and the task(s) that students are expected to complete. Simplifying a text by changing the language often removes natural redundancy and makes the organization somewhat difficult for students to predict. This actually makes a text more difficult to read than if the original were used.

Rather than simplifying a text by changing its language, make it more approachable by eliciting students' existing knowledge in pre-reading discussion, reviewing new vocabulary before reading, and asking students to perform tasks that are within their competence, such as skimming to get the main idea or scanning for specific information, before they begin intensive reading.

2. The reading purpose must be authentic: Students must be reading for reasons that make sense and have relevance to them. "Because the teacher assigned it" is not an authentic reason for reading a text.

To identify relevant reading purposes, ask students how they plan to use the language they are learning and what topics they are interested in reading and learning about. Give them opportunities to choose their reading assignments, and encourage them to use the library, the Internet, and foreign language newsstands and bookstores to find other things they would like to read.

3. The reading approach must be authentic: Students should read the text in a way that matches the reading purpose, the type of text, and the way people normally read. This means that reading aloud will take place only in situations where it would take place outside the classroom, such as reading for pleasure.

READING ALOUD IN THE CLASSROOM

Students do not learn to read by reading aloud. A person who reads aloud and comprehends the meaning of the text is coordinating word recognition with comprehension and speaking and pronunciation ability in highly complex ways. Students whose language skills are limited are not able to process at this level, and end up having to drop one or more of the elements. Usually the dropped element is comprehension, and reading aloud becomes word calling: simply pronouncing a series of words without regard for the meaning they carry individually and together. Word calling is not productive for the student who is doing it, and it is boring for other students to listen to.

- There are two ways to use reading aloud productively in the language classroom. Read aloud to your students as they follow along silently. You have the ability to use inflection and tone to help them hear what the text is saying. Following along as you read will help students move from word-by-word reading to reading in phrases and thought units, as they do in their first language.
- Use the "read and look up" technique. With this technique, a student reads a phrase or sentence silently as many times as necessary, then looks up (away from the text) and tells you what the phrase or sentence says. This encourages students to read for ideas, rather than for word recognition."²²

²²Day, R. R., & Bamford, J. (1998). *Extensive reading in the second language classroom*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

STRATEGIES FOR DEVELOPING READING SKILLS

“Language instructors are often frustrated by the fact that students do not automatically transfer the strategies they use when reading in their native language to reading in a language they are learning. Instead, they seem to think reading means starting at the beginning and going word by word, stopping to look up every unknown vocabulary item, until they reach the end. When they do this, students are relying exclusively on their linguistic knowledge, a bottom-up strategy. One of the most important functions of the language instructor, then, is to help students move past this idea and use top-down strategies as they do in their native language.

Effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their reading behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. They help students develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading situation.

Strategies that can help students read more quickly and effectively include

- Previewing: reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection
- Predicting: using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and check comprehension; using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content
- Skimming and scanning: using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions

- Guessing from context: using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up
- Paraphrasing: stopping at the end of a section to check comprehension by restating the information and ideas in the text

Instructors can help students learn when and how to use reading strategies in several ways.

- By modeling the strategies aloud, talking through the processes of previewing, predicting, skimming and scanning, and paraphrasing. This shows students how the strategies work and how much they can know about a text before they begin to read word by word.
- By allowing time in class for group and individual previewing and predicting activities as preparation for in-class or out-of-class reading. Allocating class time to these activities indicates their importance and value.
- By using cloze (fill in the blank) exercises to review vocabulary items. This helps students learn to guess meaning from context.
- By encouraging students to talk about what strategies they think will help them approach a reading assignment, and then talking after reading about what strategies they actually used. This helps students develop flexibility in their choice of strategies.

When language learners use reading strategies, they find that they can control the reading experience, and they gain confidence in their ability to read the language.

READING TO LEARN

Reading is an essential part of language instruction at every level because it supports learning in multiple ways.

- Reading to learn the language: Reading material is language input. By giving students a variety of materials to read, instructors provide multiple opportunities for students to absorb vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and discourse structure as they occur in authentic contexts. Students thus gain a more complete picture of the ways in which the elements of the language work together to convey meaning.
- Reading for content information: Students' purpose for reading in their native language is often to obtain information about a subject they are studying, and this purpose can be useful in the language learning classroom as well. Reading for content information in the language classroom gives students both authentic reading material and an authentic purpose for reading.
- Reading for cultural knowledge and awareness: Reading everyday materials that are designed for native speakers can give students insight into the lifestyles and worldviews of the people whose language they are studying. When students have access to newspapers, magazines, and Web sites, they are exposed to culture in all its variety, and monolithic cultural stereotypes begin to break down.

When reading to learn, students need to follow four basic steps:

1. Figure out the purpose for reading. Activate background knowledge of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate reading strategies.

2. Attend to the parts of the text that are relevant to the identified purpose and ignore the rest. This selectivity enables students to focus on specific items in the input and reduces the amount of information they have to hold in short-term memory.
3. Select strategies that are appropriate to the reading task and use them flexibly and interactively. Students' comprehension improves and their confidence increases when they use top-down and bottom-up skills simultaneously to construct meaning.
4. Check comprehension while reading and when the reading task is completed. Monitoring comprehension helps students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failures, helping them learn to use alternate strategies.

DEVELOPING READING ACTIVITIES

Developing reading activities involves more than identifying a text that is "at the right level," writing a set of comprehension questions for students to answer after reading, handing out the assignment and sending students away to do it. A fully-developed reading activity supports students as readers through pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities.

As you design reading tasks, keep in mind that complete recall of all the information in a text is an unrealistic expectation even for native speakers. Reading activities that are meant to increase communicative competence should be success oriented and build up students' confidence in their reading ability.

- Construct the reading activity around a purpose that has significance for the students

- Make sure students understand what the purpose for reading is: to get the main idea, obtain specific information, understand most or all of the message, enjoy a story, or decide whether or not to read more. Recognizing the purpose for reading will help students select appropriate reading strategies.
- Define the activity's instructional goal and the appropriate type of response

In addition to the main purpose for reading, an activity can also have one or more instructional purposes, such as practicing or reviewing specific grammatical constructions, introducing new vocabulary, or familiarizing students with the typical structure of a certain type of text.

- Check the level of difficulty of the text

The factors listed below can help you judge the relative ease or difficulty of a reading text for a particular purpose and a particular group of students.

- How is the information organized? Does the story line, narrative, or instruction conform to familiar expectations? Texts in which the events are presented in natural chronological order, which have an informative title, and which present the information following an obvious organization (main ideas first, details and examples second) are easier to follow.
- How familiar are the students with the topic? Remember that misapplication of background knowledge due to cultural differences can create major comprehension difficulties.

- Does the text contain redundancy? At the lower levels of proficiency, listeners may find short, simple messages easier to process, but students with higher proficiency benefit from the natural redundancy of authentic language.
- Does the text offer visual support to aid in reading comprehension? Visual aids such as photographs, maps, and diagrams help students preview the content of the text, guess the meanings of unknown words, and check comprehension while reading.

Remember that the level of difficulty of a text is not the same as the level of difficulty of a reading task. Students who lack the vocabulary to identify all of the items on a menu can still determine whether the restaurant serves steak and whether they can afford to order one.

- Use pre-reading activities to prepare students for reading

The activities you use during pre-reading may serve as preparation in several ways. During pre-reading you may:

- Assess students' background knowledge of the topic and linguistic content of the text
- Give students the background knowledge necessary for comprehension of the text, or activate the existing knowledge that the students possess
- Clarify any cultural information which may be necessary to comprehend the passage
- Make students aware of the type of text they will be reading and the purpose(s) for reading

- Provide opportunities for group or collaborative work and for class discussion activities

Sample pre-reading activities:

- Using the title, subtitles, and divisions within the text to predict content and organization or sequence of information
- Looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs and their captions
- Talking about the author's background, writing style, and usual topics
- Skimming to find the theme or main idea and eliciting related prior knowledge
- Reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures
- Reading over the comprehension questions to focus attention on finding that information while reading
- Constructing semantic webs (a graphic arrangement of concepts or words showing how they are related)
- Doing guided practice with guessing meaning from context or checking comprehension while reading

Pre-reading activities are most important at lower levels of language proficiency and at earlier stages of reading instruction. As students become more proficient at using reading strategies, you will be able to reduce the amount of guided pre-reading and allow students to do these activities themselves.

Match while-reading activities to the purpose for reading

In while-reading activities, students check their comprehension as they read. The purpose for reading determines the appropriate type and level of comprehension.

- When reading for specific information, students need to ask themselves, have I obtained the information I was looking for?
- When reading for pleasure, students need to ask themselves, Do I understand the story line/sequence of ideas well enough to enjoy reading this?
- When reading for thorough understanding (intensive reading), students need to ask themselves, Do I understand each main idea and how the author supports it? Does what I'm reading agree with my predictions, and, if not, how does it differ? To check comprehension in this situation, students may
 - Stop at the end of each section to review and check their predictions, restate the main idea and summarize the section

Using Textbook Reading Activities

Many language textbooks emphasize product (answers to comprehension questions) over process (using reading skills and strategies to understand the text), providing little or no contextual information about the reading selections or their authors, and few if any pre-reading activities.

You can use the guidelines for developing reading activities given here as starting points for evaluating and adapting textbook reading activities. Use existing, or add your own, pre-reading activities and reading strategy practice as appropriate for your students. Don't make students do exercises simply because they are in the book; this destroys motivation.

Another problem with textbook reading selections is that they have been adapted to a

predetermined reading level through adjustment of vocabulary, grammar, and sentence length. This makes them more immediately approachable, but it also means that they are less authentic and do not encourage students to apply the reading strategies they will need to use outside of class. When this is the case, use the textbook reading selection as a starting point to introduce a writer or topic, and then give students choices of more challenging authentic texts to read as a followup.”²³

²³Anderson, N. (1999). *Exploring second language reading: Issues and strategies*. Boston, MA: Heinle&Heinle.

HYPOTHESES

General

The methods applied by the teachers influence on the development of the receptive skills in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School. Academic period 2010-2011.

Specifics

There is little application of the methodological strategies to develop the listening skill with the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School. Academic period 2010-2011.

The techniques applied by the teachers do not support the development of the reading skill in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato.. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School. Academic period 2010-2011.

f.METHODOLOGY

TYPE OF STUDY

The group has identified the present research work as a descriptive one because the researchers will not manipulate the variables of the stated hypotheses, but they will describe the facts as they happen in the reality.

METHODS, TECHNIQUES AND INSTRUMENTS

The Scientific Method.- Any scientific research follows an ordered and complex process which needs a strict procedure to describe the events during a period of observation, so we have selected the scientific method because their characteristics seem to be the most suitable.

This method will let us, to state problem, the general and specific objectives and based on them we will formulate the corresponding hypotheses which will guide all the research process.

This method will be used in the searching of the theoretical- scientific fundamentals to explain the relation of the variables of the present work, and also to state the most pertinent recommendations according to the conclusions that we reach, the same that will serve to contribute with some ideas to improve the reading and listening skills with the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School inside the English language process.

Descriptive Method.- We will also use the descriptive method because it will guide us to

demonstrate the main purpose of the research, to describe the problematic that the group found in this educative institution, to describe the variables of the stated hypotheses as cause and effect. It also will be used to describe coherently all the research work presenting the results and supporting the conclusions. This method will serve to describe the strategies and techniques that the teachers use to develop the receptive skills during the English Language teaching learning process.

Analytic- Synthetic Method.- This method will serve to analyze the main results that we get through the instruments applied in the field work and which will help us to prove our hypotheses based on the results of major tendencies. It also will be helpful to analyze the fundamentals of the theoretical frame which will support the verification of the stated hypotheses.

Explicative Method.- It will be used, in the explanation of all the results that we get in the field work contrasting them with the theoretical referents. It will let us identify the strategies and techniques that the teachers apply to work on the receptive skills into the English Language teaching learning process.

We will use the descriptive statistics which will serve to represent the data in tables, and graphs to get a better comprehension of the information.

TECHNIQUES, INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

To obtain the empiric information we will apply the following techniques and instruments.

A **Survey** will be applied to obtain information about the English Teaching Learning process and to know what kind of strategies and techniques the teachers apply to develop the reading and listening skills with the students of 2nd and 3rd years of high school curriculum in the researched High School. It will be applied to teachers and students with a previous elaborated questionnaire which will contain closed questions with indicators that will help to prove the stated hypotheses.

After we apply the research instruments we will process the data through the following steps:

We will tabulate the collected data, using the descriptive statistics for the closed questions and unifying criteria for the questions that include reasons.

Then we will **organize** the empiric information taking into account the questions that will prove the first hypothesis and the ones that will help to prove the second one so that we will describe them orderly.

After that we will **represent** the obtained data in statistic tables and graphs which will show the data in frequencies and percentages that will let to **analyze** and **interpret** the empiric information contrasting it with the theoretical referents which will help us to prove the hypotheses.

To prove the hypotheses we will use the descriptive statistics with tables and percentages which will help to analyze the results and to state some valuable recommendations based on the gotten conclusions keeping in mind the objectives that guided this research.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The teacher's population is formed by 4 English teachers who work with **2nd and 3rd** years of Bachillerato at the researched High School.

The students' population is formed by the total of students who receive education in the second and third years of the High School curriculum, Basic Science, afternoon section at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School who are 48. It is a small population for that reason we will work with the whole population.

CHART N° 1

POPULATION

PARALLEL	POPULATION	%	SAMPLE
SECOND YEAR OF THE HIGH SCHOOL	23	100%	23
THRID YEAR OF THE HIGH SCHOOL	25	100%	25
TOTAL			48

g. TIMETABLE

ACTIVITIES	2010				2011																			
	Jan				Feb				Mar				Apr				May				Jun			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Presentation of the Project		x																						
Write the recommendations to the project			x	x																				
Approving of the project						x																		
Checking and redesign of the research instruments						x																		
Application of the research instruments						x	x																	
Processing of the research										x	x	x	x	x										
Drawing conclusions															x	x								
Elaboration of the report																			x	x				
Private qualification of the thesis																			x	x				
Writing the recommendations																						x	x	
Public sustentation and Graduation																								

h.ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF THE RESOURCES

HUMAN

Research Group:

- Diana Sarango
- Fanny Samaniego

Informants

- Teachers of the English Area of “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School
- Students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato
- Authorities of the researched institution

Institutional

- U. N. L.
- “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” Technical National High School

MATERIALS

- Office material
- Library sources
- Computer
- Printer
- Scanner

FINANCING

DESCRIPTION	COST
Office material	250
Bibliographical resources	400
Copies, fasten and rings	150
Others	200
TOTAL	1000

All the expenses of this research work will be assumed by the research group.

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ANNEXES

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF LOJA
AREA OF EDUCATION, ART AND COMMUNICATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE CAREER
TEACHERS' SURVEY

The present is a research work about the methods applied in the English Teaching Learning Process to develop the receptive skills with students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School. So that we wonder if you would complete the following questionnaire:

5. Match the option, which you work on the listening skill

- a) Intensive listening ()
- b) Extensive listening ()
- c) Book' listening activities ()

Why:.....

6. How often do you practice the listening skill?

- d. Always ()
- e. Sometimes ()
- f. Never ()

Why:.....

7. Do you have didactic material to work on the listening skill?

- Yes () No ()

Explain:.....

8. Which or the following strategies help the students to improve the listening skill?

- a) Use body language ()
- b) Be responsive ()
- c) Acknowledge your audience ()
- d) Repeat silent points ()
- e) Emphasizing ()
- f) Others ()

9. Which of the following techniques do you use to develop the listening skill?

- Predicting ()
- Previewing ()
- Listening for the gist ()

- Matching ()
- Answer the questions ()
- High lightning ()
- Comprehension ()

10. Which or the following strategies help the students to improve the listening skill?

- g) Use body language ()
- h) Be responsive ()
- i) Acknowledge your audience ()
- j) Repeat silent points ()
- k) Emphasizing ()
- l) Others ()

11. Does your students like reading in English?

Yes () No () Sometimes ()

Why:

12. How many readings do you develop per unit? Mark with an X

One..... Two..... Three..... More.....

Explain:

13. Do you apply specific techniques to teach the students to read in English?

Always () Almost always () Sometimes () Never ()

Why:.....

14. Do you encourage to your students to read extra material in English?

Yes () No () Sometimes ()

Explain:

15. What techniques do you apply to develop the reading skill? Mark with an x.

- | | | | |
|-----------------------|-----|--------------|-----|
| Predicting | () | Proofreading | () |
| Skimming | () | Matching | () |
| Getting the main idea | () | Scanning | () |
| Brainstorming | () | Highlighting | () |
| Circle | () | Questioning | () |

16. Do you apply post-reading techniques to verify the reading comprehension?

Yes ()

No ()

Which ones:.....

**17. What's the average of a group of your student's in the English Subject in a term?
Mark one with an x.**

Indicators	20-19	18-17	16-15	14-13	12-0
Listening	()	()	()	()	()
Reading	()	()	()	()	()
English subject	()	()	()	()	()

THANKS FOR YOUR COLLABORATION

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF LOJA
AREA OF EDUCATION, ART AND COMMUNICATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE CAREER
STUDENTS' SURVEY

The present is a research work about the methods applied in the English Teaching Learning Process to develop the receptive skills with students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato at "Pio Jaramillo Alvarado" High School. So that we wonder if you would complete the following questionnaire:

1. Which of the following options does your teacher use to work with the listening skill?

- a) Intensive listening (in class) ()
- b) Extensive listening (at home) ()
- c) Book' listening activities ()

Why:.....

2. How often do you practice the listening skill?

- g. Always ()
- h. Sometimes ()
- i. Never ()

Why:.....

3. Does your teacher use didactic material to work on the listening skill?

- Yes () No () sometimes ()

Explain:.....

4. Which or the following strategies does your teacher use to help you to improve the listening skill?

- m) Use body language ()
- n) Be responsive ()
- o) Acknowledge your audience ()
- p) Repeat silent points ()
- q) Emphasizing ()
- r) Others ()

5. Which of the following techniques does your teacher use to develop the listening skill?

- Predicting ()
- Previewing ()
- Listening for the gist ()
- Matching ()

- Answer the questions ()
- High lightning ()
- Comprehension ()

6. Do you like reading in English?

Yes () No () Sometimes ()

Why:

7. How many readings does your teacher work per unit? Mark with an X

One..... Two..... Three..... More.....

Explain:

8. Does your teacher apply specific techniques to teach you to read in English?

Always () Almost always () Sometimes () Never ()

Why:.....

9. Does your teacher encourage you to read extra material in English?

Yes () No () Sometimes ()

Explain:

10. What techniques does your teacher apply to develop the reading skill? Mark with an x.

Predicting	()	Proofreading	()
Skimming	()	Matching	()
Getting the main idea	()	Scanning	()
Brainstorming	()	Highlighting	()
Circle	()	Questioning	()

11. Which of the following post-reading techniques does your teacher apply to verify the reading comprehension?

- a. Summarizing ()
- b. Matching ()
- c. Questions and answers ()
- d. Checking predictions ()
- e. Graphic organizers ()

Which ones:.....

**12. What's the average of a group of your student's in the English Subject in a term?
Mark one with an x.**

Indicators	20-19	18-17	16-15	14-13	12-0
Listening	()	()	()	()	()
Reading	()	()	()	()	()
English subject	()	()	()	()	()

THANKS FOR YOUR COLLABORATION

CONSISTENCY MATRIX

THEME: METHODS APPLIED IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING TEACHING PROCESS AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RECEPTIVE SKILLS WITH THE STUDENTS OF SECOND AND THIRD YEARS OF BACHILLERATO. BASIC SCIENCE.AFTERNOON SECTION, AT PIO JARAMILLO ALVARADO” HIGH SCHOOL. ACADEMIC YEAR 2010-2011.

SUBPROBLEMS	OBJECTIVES	HYPHOTESSES	VARIABLES	INDICADORES
<p>General</p> <p>How the methods applied by the English Teachers influence on the development of the receptive skills in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School?. Academic period 2010-2011.</p>	<p>General</p> <p>To determine the methods applied by the English Teachers and their influence on the development of the receptive skills in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School. Academic period 2010-2011.</p>	<p>General</p> <p>The methods applied by the teachers influence on the development of the receptive skills in the students of 2nd and 3rdyears of bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School. Academic period 2010-2011.</p>		

<p>Subproblems What kind of methodological strategies do the teachers use to develop the listening skill with the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School?. Academic period 2010-2011.</p> <p>Which are the techniques that teachers use to work on the reading skill with the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School?. Academic period 2000-2010.</p>	<p>Specifics To find out the methodological strategies that teachers use to develop the listening skill in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School. Academic period 2010-2011.</p> <p>To establish the relation between the techniques used by the teachers and the development of the reading skill in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School. Academic period 2010-2011.</p>	<p>Specifics There is little application of the methodological strategies to develop the listening skill with the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato. Basic Science, Aternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School. Academic period 2010-2011.</p> <p>The techniques applied by the teachers do not support the development of the reading skill in the students of 2nd and 3rd years of Bachillerato Basic Science, Afternoon Section at “Pio Jaramillo Alvarado” High School. Academic period 2010-2011.</p>	<p>Methodological strategies to develop the listening skill</p> <p>English Language learning</p> <p>Techniques to develop the reading skill</p> <p>English language learning</p>	<p>Use body language</p> <p>Be responsive</p> <p>Acknowledge your audience</p> <p>Repeat silent points</p> <p>Emphasizing</p> <p>Predicting</p> <p>Skimming</p> <p>Scanning</p> <p>Getting the main idea</p> <p>Brainstorming</p> <p>Highlighting</p> <p>Circle</p> <p>Questioning</p> <p>Books read</p> <p>Excellent (20-19)</p> <p>Very Good (18-17)</p> <p>Good (16-15)</p> <p>Regular (14-13)</p> <p>Insufficient (12-0)</p>
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