ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN OUR SCHOOL

I am especially grateful to Simon Medaney, lecturer in English as a Foreign Language at Westminster College London, for his advice.
London 19 April 1980

1.— INTRODUCTION

There has been an increased awareness that our primary concern is teaching people rather than teaching subject matter. We recognize that each individual is unique. So we find the first essential part of teaching English, that is, the student.

Secondly there is something to teach, namely English language. We know about the complexity of language. Teaching English as a second language is not an easy task. There are basic principles common to all good language teaching. To establish these it helps to use ideas from sociology and psychology. But we cannot forget the field of pedagogy.

The follow drawing makes clearer these ideas:

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\[\begin{array}{c}
\text{STUDENTS} \\
\text{English language} \\
\text{TEACHER} \\
\end{array}\]
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- Pedagogy
  - including class management, questioning techniques, lesson planning, teaching strategies, daily tricks.
- Sociology
  - Helps us to establish the place and role of language as a manifestation of human behaviour.
- Psychology
  - How language is learned.
We are paying special attention to the teacher and some main principles about his activity in the school. This subject is closely related to us, since teaching English will be our task in the future.

2. – THE PROFESSIONAL ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER

There are people who teach English language successfully without professional training, succeeding by virtue or by natural teaching qualities.

Ideally the professional English language teacher should have not only the required personal qualities but also training. We can express this as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What the teacher should Know</th>
<th>What the teacher should do</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Hard work will nearly always bring success, especially if a teacher persistently exerts himself to make his pupils do the work.

Though the textbook provides much material and guidance—text, vocabulary, grammar and exercises—yet this material is language in print, no the language that expresses a living mind. The teacher has to transform those silent, inactive printed symbols into living speech.

The help which a teacher needs cannot, of course, be supplied merely by a book, because it is essential for the teacher himself to use his initiative and to exert his own energies.

We can conclude pointing out that the professional English language teacher needs for his language lessons:

- A knowledge of the best and most effective methods to use.
- An understanding of the purpose and aim of each method he uses.
- Confidence and skill in his handling of them.

3. – THREE IMPORTANT QUESTIONS THE TEACHER MUST CONSIDER

1. – What English to teach.
2. – How to give practice in a meaningful way.
3. – How to prepare and execute a progression of enjoyable well organised lessons

The English language is not a battery of grammatical rules and a vocabulary book. That would be non-comunication.
and must arise from the need to obtain information.

That is more important than "grammar".

Unless the language activities allow the learners to talk about what concerns them English will soon be felt to be irrelevant and boring. Therefore the earliest activities should be LEXICAL, WITH STRUCTURAL ITEMS PLAYING A PURELY INCIDENTAL ROLE.

Because language is communication we always find an emitter and a receiver:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{EMITTER} \\
\text{Listening} \\
\text{Speaking}
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c}
\text{RECEIVER} \\
\text{Speaking} \\
\text{Listening}
\end{array}
\]

Language functions are found within a context or situation. Linguistic forms are in situations to express functions and notions. When we need to communicate something relevant the language is our tool.

Therefore the principle of grading and selection must be based on the SITUATION and FUNCTIONS.

At a second stage we will make the students realise that they have been using the right linguistic structures.

This calls for some similarity in the general objectives. However the routes by which these outcomes are reached will vary appreciably.

Perhaps the fundamental cause for the diversity may be found in the fact that there is often no clear-cut agreement as to "what are we trying to teach?" and "Is what we are trying to teach attainable in the time available, with these students, in this community?"

Objectives. Guiding principles in formulating.

It arises the necessity for a clear definition of basic objectives.

— Then aim of the English-teaching programme should be to develop in the learner the four basic aspects of communication:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{UNDERSTANDING} \\
\text{SPEAKING} \\
\text{READING} \\
\text{WRITING}
\end{array}
\]

within the social and cultural situations normal to persons of his age level.

— Long-range objectives should include:
• The gradual perfecting or shaping of the language skills needed for everyday communication and for the learning of other curriculum areas.
• The development of an increasing insight into the culture of the English-speaking communities including an appreciation of its art, music and literature.

— The teachers' objectives at any learning level should be to develop in the pupil (in consonance with his age, of course):

| The increasing ability to understand a native speaker of English in any situation. | The progressive ability to sustain a conversation with native English speakers. |
| The progressive ability to read any material in English with comprehension ease and enjoyment. | The progressive ability to write correctly, functionally and creatively in English. |

These four aspects of the language programme should be developed concurrently in an integrative reinforcing manner after an initial listening-speaking period.

— Increased ability in any language skill will be in direct proportion to the amount of meaningful practice given in that skill.

Words and phrases are easier to learn and remember if they are meaningful and in context. That follows from the fact that the foreign language should always be taught and practised in a contextualised form. If we use common experiences of a group of learners may be they finish quickly because they are limited. At this stage we need to introduce another kind of help such as visual uses:

- pictorial representations,
- over head projector drawings,
- blackboard, etc.

Also we can use references of the background of the group: well known are, for instance, the distribution of the countries or the variety of languages.

The longer a group of learners continues to work together, the more they build their shared stock of experience.

Every happening in the classroom, natural or construed, is a contextual source of language for as long as the group continues together.

The world of the imagination is as acceptable as the tangible physical world. Role play is at this stage a useful activity because the words and most of the sentences they use are real language, they are communicating, someone is enquiring, persuading, informing or using the language for some purpose.
Every teacher of languages should devise ways and methods of getting the new language used as it is in real life, that is, language that performs some useful purpose:

- to ask for something
- to tell somebody something
- to tell someone to do something

These are the normal purposes of spoken language.

Actions, leave an exact impression on the senses and a permanent record of the meaning on the minds of the learners. Explanations in words are theoretical; actions are practical. Physical action is a more effective aid in forming linguistic habits than most teachers realize. Gestures, therefore, should be used throughout oral work, for they are such a quick and clear way of conveying meaning that no language teacher can afford to neglect their use.

Gesture is an especially easy way of teaching opposites in meaning, and of teaching these early, for example:

- THIS / THAT
- INTO / OUT OF
- NEAR / FAR
- COME / GO
- OPEN / SHUT
- RAISE / LOWER

— English should be presented and practiced in the following sequence:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LISTENING</th>
<th>SPEAKING</th>
<th>READING</th>
<th>WRITING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WITH</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDERSTANDING</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Children should begin to learn to speak a new language before they try to read it. This because the spoken language is the real language and therefore is a more potent manifestation of it than the printed form. Therefore speaking must come after a short period of a week or two of listening to the new sounds. To give them practice in speaking the teacher will know that his pupils must have plenty of practice in making up simple answers to copious and easy questions. Example:

WHERE DO YOU LIVE? I LIVE AT 42, VICTORIA STREET.
- I LIVE IN LONDON
- I LIVE NEAR YOUR HOUSE
- I LIVE NEXT DOOR

CAUCE. Núm. 3. RODRÍGUEZ LARA, Luisa Fernanda. English as a foreign language in our...
WHAT DO YOU WANT? I WANT A BOOK  
I WANT SOME BEER  
I WANT TO SEE HIM  
I WANT A NEW CAR

Very simple questioning, quick taking of answers, speed in passing from pupil to pupil, brief correcting of wrong sentences.

With large classes success will depend on the way a method is carried out. That is, the teacher needs special liveliness of manner and voice.

KEENNESS  
ACTIVITY  
HUMOUR  
LIVELINESS of mind

These are the qualities that are needed for good oral work.

We have just pointed out that listening should precede speaking. It is ridiculous to expect a student to produce without difficulty a sound which does not exist in his mother tongue. It is not possible to produce satisfactorily what one has not heard.

To achieve oral fluency is closely related to the ability to listen. At this stage we wonder if listening is a passive skill and speaking an active one. We can't forget that the decoding of a message (listening) calls for active participation in the communication. It is essential to the speaker that his words are being understood. This is signalled to him in a conversation by the nod, glances, body movements and often by the non-verbal noises (m, m, oh). So the student who listens to the teacher is not passive. He receives information. He makes speech his own experience, so that he can use it in a conversation. The receptive capacity for decoding the language and content of the message is a skill which can be trained and developed through teaching, no less than the productive skill of speaking.

Indeed, listening is often harder than reading, since it is not often taught and practised.

How many teachers teach their pupils the different pronunciation in the following case?

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{a cup} & [k\,\text{ap}] \\
\text{a cap} & [k\,\text{æp}]
\end{array}
\]

But even if the teacher's pronunciation is excellent, pupils' ability to imitate pronunciation is often not good enough for them to profit from the model. The
ears of the learners will have to be taught to listen. They must be taught how to use their speech organs, especially tongue and lips, so that after listening carefully their speech organs produce the correct sounds perfectly. One cornerstone of behaviourist theory was the insistence on the primacy of the spoken word.

NOTHING WAS TO BE WRITTEN BEFORE IT HAD BEEN SAID:
NOTHING WAS TO BE SAID BEFORE IT HAD BEEN HEARD.

But this consideration must give way to considerations of how the learners involved can benefit most.

We know our students cannot understand ordinary colloquial English as used by native speakers. So, our AIM would be:

Create familiarity with the phonological characteristics of conversation (the stress, rhythm and intonation patterns).

We would then set the class to listen to a passage of natural English speech suitable to their level.

Listening can be for grammatical as well as lexical purposes. That is, passages with a high incidence of a given grammatical feature provide excellent material.

It is useful practice listening for words or grammatical forms which tell you to expect something else to come shortly. At the simplest level, a singular third person subject automatically demands concord with a verb in the present tense:

The boy... PLAYS
LISTENS TO THE RADIO
WRITES

A very simple way to practise this type of listening is to have the student listen without a written text once or twice to a passage containing several of these forms, then give him a written text with blanks where the verbs are. His task is to fill them in without listening to the tape again.

Example:

John. . . . to work every morning. He . . . . . . up at seven. He . . . . a cup of tea and . . . . some toast.

It is perfectible possible to hear but not listen. Similarly, it is possible to listen but not understand.

Listening for meaning, therefore, is an important skill to develop. Again it is utterly necessary to establish a gradation.

Obviously we will never try to make absolute beginners listen and understand simultaneously. Our first aim is make them reproduce the sounds so they become familiar to them. After the first steps it will be relevant listening for meaning. Then
there are some factors to be considered:

1. The content of the message must be within the intellectual and natural range of the students. For our beginners every events of common experience would be suitable.
2. We must teach a neutral English. Neither slang, nor formal.
3. For our beginners we will use a measured speech, not a rapid conversation.
4. At first there must be one speaker. The more there are in a conversation, the more difficult it is.
5. At the last recomendation we must avoid many students tendency to practice listening comprehension line by line, without attempting to get an overall understanding of the passage.

4.— LEARNING TO SPEAK, SPEAKING

First it is remarkable to point out that a good student at listening and understanding, is not necessarily a fluent speaker. That is, he has to be trained in the productive skill of speech as well.

The speech produced by the student should be tightly controlled at first by the teacher. First incorrect efforts and attempts must be gently but firmly replaced by correct pronunciation, use of words and grammar and the correct sounds and forms and sentence patterns are practised over and over in order to develop correct language reactions and to establish correct speech.

The young pupil must speak the new language, even if his efforts are at first inept and incorrect. But he can get the corrected speech repeated, or by imitation of a fellow pupil’s correct sentence; but major grammatical mistakes must be left for another lesson: this is not the time for careful explanations. This is practice in speaking, not grammatical theorizing. So every child speak and speak many times, therefore it is the teacher’s task to push the speaking ahead, throwing out questions, getting several answers sometimes to one question before saying which are right, then picking on children who have not answered, or calling on a silent child to correct an easy mistake. He must always remember that for good practice in speaking, sentences must be easy and the conversation on quite simple lines. At beginners stages there will be heavy emphasis on controlled and guided practice, and more and more freedom at advanced levels:

Example:

WHAT ARE YOU GOING TO DO ON Sunday? I am going to the theatre.
Monday? I am going to swimm.
Wednesday?
Saturday?
So we must try to increase the amount of student speed in the lesson.

It is particularly important that these stages of controlled, guided and free practice should always be seen in relation to the functional use to which the student will have to put his oral fluency.

The learner must be prepared by his teacher for actual communication with others, and the teaching must develop this competence.

![Diagram of language practice stages]

**BEGINNERS**
- Controlled practice
  - Minor mistakes are immediately put right.
  - Major grammatical mistakes must be left for another lesson

**FUTURE LEVELS**
- Guided practice
- Free practice

**IN RELATION TO THE FUNCTIONAL USE AND ACTUAL COMMUNICATION WITH OTHERS.**

At this stage the dialogue has many advantages:

1. It can be used for controlled or guided or free work.
2. A dialogue is by its very nature language interaction between people.
3. It is possible to use a dialogue even at the first lesson.

TEACHER: My name is . . . . What's your name?
STUDENT: My name is . . . .

In this way it is very easy to develop this kind of mini-dialogue into pair work.

We can also give to our students a questionnaire so that one student tries to find out as much as possible about another student.

Example:

**QUESTIONNAIRE**

First name:
Second name (surname):
Address:
Age: Date of Birth:
Place of Birth:
What do you like to do in your spare time?
Put an x next to the activities you like doing.
Do you play any sports?  
Write the names of the sports you play or do.

Do you like English?

How often do you go to the cinema

watch T.V.?
go to English classes?
play football?
speak English?
eat steak?

The teacher can use some choral repetition. The chorus method dates back to the days of mechanical "rote learning". Nevertheless repetition in chorus is a useful and economical method of giving oral practice in a foreign language. In teaching large classes it is a necessary, not an alternative method. We must remind ourselves here that children learn to speak by imitating and that is a natural way of acquiring a skill in language, and good chorus work can be achieved only by good imitation.

The chorus method should not be a mechanical humdrum repetition, it should not be loud and inattentive shouting.

So the teacher, after some choral, group, pair and individual repetition to establish the probably very unfamiliar sounds, can proceed round the class, asking a different student each time. Then he can have two of the better and more extrovert students come to the front of the class and say the dialogue, each one taking a part. Then they switch roles. The next step is to indicate by a mixture of example, mime and translation that every member of the class is to do the same as the pair at the front with their immediate neighbour.

The next step might be to use the dialogue in a chain drill.

As it follows from above, for the first two or three years of learning a foreign language most of the oral work should be carefully controlled. That is, pupils are
not left free to select any words they please, or any grammatical forms or constructions.

Thus the pupils have a very limited choice of the language elements they know, and therefore the opportunity for mistakes is also limited.

The plan is:

1. To introduce new grammar and structure into the course gradually.
2. To ensure through repetition of new elements during the weeks following their introduction.

Exercises at first need to be carefully selected in order to ensure that pupils have not a free choice of grammatical form and structure. It will be readily seen that forms of questions, such as

"What is this?"
"Who is this?"

ensure that the pupils keep to the structure

"It (he, she) is a..."

The principle in organizing the material at first should be:

— Question forms must contain the TENSE, NUMBER, the VOCABULARY that should be used in the answers.

Very copious practice can be obtained by using the same structures in many very different kinds of situation. This variety will nearly always produce intelligent responses from a class.

The next step is use the "question sequences". This method can be started at the end of the first year, or early in the second. In this method the questions

"Where is...?"
"When is...?"
"Why is...?"

are asked on every possible occasion, and always in the same order. This helps the pupils to get ready their answers as they know what is coming. Quick answering provides more practice, therefore there should be no waiting if a pupil cannot answer; the next pupil must be asked. The first question is asked:

"Where does Tom go on holidays?"

and so the other questions can be run through immediately:

"When does he go?"
"Why does he go?"
Presentation of the material.

Now we can work out a suitable presentation. Presentation consists of introducing each new item of language to the learners in such a way that it can be absorbed efficiently into the corpus of language already mastered.

The presentation needs to take place in such a way that the learners' attention is focused upon it. Presentation calls for simple contexts which are adequate to demonstrate meaning, but at the same time not so interesting that they distract attention from the important item of the moment.

The material must be connected to the activity which the learners are to perform. We will try to characterize this activity. We know that learners are expected to understand, speak, write and read. To know a language means:

— The ability to produce sentences.
— To know how sentences are used to communicative effect.

Making a right reply is a matter of selecting a sentence which will combine with the sentence used for asking the question.

We can set two first points:

The learning of a language involves

- Acquiring the ability to compose correct sentences
- Acquiring an understanding of which sentences are appropriate in a particular context.

This ability depends upon a knowledge of the grammatical rules of the English language.

Instances of correct English USAGE

COMPETENCE

PERFORMANCE

This knowledge has to be put into effect as behaviour.

To make clear this point a distinction must be made between language use / language usage.

A knowledge of use must of necessity include a knowledge of usage but the re-
verse is not the case.

The teaching of usage does not guarantee a knowledge of use.

The teaching of use, however, does not guarantee the learning of usage. This does not mean that exercises in particular aspects of usage cannot be introduced where necessary. But this would be auxiliary to the communicative purposes, and not as an end in themselves.

The best way of doing this is to associate the teaching of the English language with topics drawn from other subjects on the school curriculum.

When we have to select structures and vocabulary for our courses we will select those items of usage which we judge to be most useful for effective communication. We have to keep in mind that there is a natural coincidence of usage and use in normal language behaviour. So we can not separate these two aspect when teaching English.

"There is a pen on the table"

The fact that there is a pen, visible to everybody makes it extremely unnatural to ask if it is there. But if the teacher is genuinely looking for something, his question will be real communication:

TEACHER: Where is my book?
PUPIL: In the cupboard.

or

TEACHER: Where is Tom today?
PUPIL: He is not well.

Here, it is appropriate for the teacher to ask a question and for the pupils to answer him.

In addition the pupils' reply takes on an appropriate form in each exchange.

At that stage, hold up a pen, point to it and say:

This is a pen

it is not an instance of appropriate use. The pupils don't need to indentify that object. They need to have it named as "a pen" (as opposed to "una pluma"). So the form of sentences which is needed is really something like:

"The English word for this is "pen".

or:

"This is called "a pen" in English"

It might be useful at this point to remark the following ideas:
The completion of the realization takes place when these language items are presented in the classroom as instances of actual use. If we look from this point of view the translation exercise may be useful. Translation would operate at the level of use. That is to say, the learner would recognize that acts of communication, like identification, description, etc. are expressed in English in one way and in his own language in another. The translation never involves relating two languages word for word or sentence for sentence.

We can say that in order to get a more effective progression, new words and constructions will not be brought in, unless they are absolutely necessary. Speaking in order to practise the accurate use of new words and structures will need another kind of lesson altogether, a much slower and more careful one.

The ideas must be simple and well-known. That is the secret of good oral practice, because the student can use all the words in a free and easy way. All of those words, forms and sentences that have been well practised in expressing ideas that are familiar to the pupil and of every day interest.

Too often teachers think that they ought to enlarge vocabulary and introduce new grammar always and at any cost, not realizing that all pupils need time and practice to master what has been recently introduced to them. The plentiful use of what has been studied must at first have the chief place.

At first only a few sentence patterns can be learnt. It is essential to have them used over and over again in order to fix them firmly in the conscious memory as well as in automatic speech habits. The disadvantage of having to introduce new structures very gradually is that it restricts the number and nature of the ideas that can be expressed in English. Beginners therefore should not be encouraged to try to express in the new language whatever comes into their heads, for their ideas may require structures and forms of expression they have not learnt. To take a simple example, the structure “Where is the...?” need not be used in a dull way. By pretending that he has lost something, or cannot see something, a teacher can amuse a class by his acting and can get fresh and amusing answers: this helps attention and stimulates the pupils to take an active part in the answering.

Mimed action, even if not very expert, gives life to a lesson, and ensures thorough learning, for what is seen is nearly always remembered. Actions suggest real life and arouse expectations of

“What will happen next?”
This can be loosely called "the direct method". It can be used in conjunction with other methods because it is not properly a "method" at all. It is a principle, and it is one of the main principles of the psychology of language that can be directly translated into classroom procedure.

The principle may be explained as:

THE ASSOCIATING OF

- word with thing
- thing with context
- context with expression in the English language

Context may be:
- event
- whole situation

The fullest application of the method is the associating of a complete thought (expressed in words) with the real experience that would give the occasion and impulse for the thought.

For instance, the word "shoe" is to be taught. The pupils look at one, and if possible touch it (touch brings certainty to children). Then the teacher uses the word in a "real experience", saying:

"Look I am putting on my shoe". So the idea of putting on a shoe is immediately associated with the words expressing the act. And so the word "shoe" becomes part of a larger unit of thought and understanding, reinforced by sense-perception, interest and enjoyment. In addition the verb "putting on" is not first met with as a purely verbal form with a meaning that has to be memorized; but it has been found in a context of real life; they have seen the living person perform the action; it has therefore played upon their minds with the purpose and significance of real language, even though it is so simple.

A simple, physical action, like the one we have described, has been played into a fuller, more continuous little event:

- teacher showing the shoe
- pupils looking and touching
- teacher putting on it
- the sentence expressing the action

Simple contexts like the one above, will not always evoke enough interest and attention. Then what is needed is the full "contextual situation" of a living event. Using the same topic, we now must imagine a more significant story: the teacher pre-
tending something was in his shoe and in this way playing a situation.

The children's curiosity helps their minds to concentrate on what is happening, and therefore on the language. Thus, the meaning is clear to them, without explanation or translation.

This example of the “direct method” shows how thoroughly it should be handled and how valuable the dramatic method is when carrying out principles of the direct method.

Two points are important:

1. The new words are in an integral part of a living incident, arising out of it.
2. They have to be worked into the pupils' own thinking and speaking habits.

The task of devising little situations may seem at first not at all easy; but once one begins to make them up, little scenes will soon suggest themselves and after a few have been worked at, the children will take delight in proposing topics to act.

Other situations may be:

- Pretending to lose something calling for the use of “Where is...?”
- Instructions to do certain actions giving rise to the use of the imperative:
  “Close the window, please”
- The structure “Is it small?” can be practised by using the guessing game, in which the children have to ask questions to find out what the teacher or one of the class is thinking about.

The pupils practice structure and increase vocabulary by making use of significant and purposeful language, as it is said before.

Language is used to find out something that the speaker really wants to know; as it would be used in real life.

5.— WHAT TO TEACH. HOW TO DO IT.

The teacher must develop in the pupil the availability of all the elements of the English language. Then, later, there is needed the constant use of the language in a variety of contexts and for a variety of purposes:

- in dialogue
- stories
- plays
- questions

Now the question for the teacher is “what methods shall I use?” In teaching we must know exactly what we are hoping to achieve. It is necessary to keep the distinction clear between a general aim and the particular objective for a lesson.
For an early lesson the objective might be “to illustrate and use the simple present orally”. It is essential to particularize and limit an objective. If he does this, a teacher will know exactly what he should do during the lesson. Here for instance, he might begin by carrying out a number of obvious actions, saying each time what he wants, what he thinks.

The particular objective would be to illustrate the simple present and to have it well practised.

This clear-cut definition of aim gives a lesson a focus which enables the teacher to see exactly what his pupils have to do in the lesson. It simplifies and focuses the preparation and impels teacher and class to concentrate on the topic to be learnt.

A teacher should choose a limited objective like one of these for a single lesson, rather than attempt two or more, with the result that their efforts are not dispersed in all directions.

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TEACHER
       v  v  v
       CLASS →  steps →  AIM
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The teacher should usually tell a class what the objective is. A clear aim helps in the selection of material for a lesson. We can set a possible curriculum with its content. The interrelationship of language development and cultural orientation—since language is the central feature of culture—calls for continuous re-emphasis in the curriculum planning of teachers. We will give a number of illustrations of the language-culture integration which should be planned in the presentation of any item or topic:

1.— Introductions and identification.
   a) Greeting, leave-takings, introductions.
   b) Way of expressing one's name.
   c) Identification of self and others.
   d) Address and age.

2.— The immediate classroom.
   a) Names of instructional materials.
   b) Names and location of parts of the room.
   c) Identification of activities (reading, writing).

3.— The family.
   a) Members.
   b) Relationships and ages.
   c) The home:
      - various rooms and their uses
- furnishings for each
- cleanliness
d) Occupations of various members.
e) Meals.
f) Clothing.
g) Recreational activities.

4.— The surrounding community.
a) Homes.
b) Non-residential buildings.
c) Transport facilities.
d) Communication facilities.
e) Consumer services.

5.— The cultural heritage of English speakers.
a) Holidays.
b) Heroes and history.
c) Songs.
d) Music, literature and art forms.

6.— Miscellaneous.
a) Expressions of time.
b) Days of week.
c) Months of year.
d) Weather and safety.
e) Seasons.
f) Weights, measurements, money.
g) Formulas of courtesy, agreement, disagreement.

Special areas may be added, of course, according to the known interests of the
students. So with older students these may be based on their vocational or profes-
sional leanings.

Let us take a broad topic and note the variety of individual lessons or lesson se-
ries possible to teach.

Meals.
1.— Number, name and time of meals.
2.— Names of foods.
3.— Typical foods for various meals.
4.— Utensils, glassware, dishes.
5.— Table settings.
6.— Special occasion meals.
7.— Typical menus.
8.— Restaurants and cafeteries.
9.— Buying food.
10.— Weights and measures, containers.
11.— Preparing food.
12.— Recipes.
13.— Formulas appropriate at mealtime. E.g.: Please pass the...

May I have another...?

There should be flexibility, logical sequence, and linguistic gradation in the presentation of individual lesson topics. So, in order to acquire the abilities to understand, speak, read and write, pupils must learn to use the:

**SYSTEM OF ENGLISH**

**WORD FORM**

"Boy" means one boy.
"Boys" means more than one boy.
"Boy's" means belonging to the boy.

**WORD ORDER**

It have it done
I have done it
Arm chair
Chair arm

**FUNCTION WORDS**

auxiliaries: be, have.
modals: may, can, must.

**INFORMATION**

Stress: accent.
Pitch: the melody of the voice.
Pause: "The night rate is cheap".
"The nitrate is cheap".

We insist on the following point: understanding and oral production of the structures and patterns of language should precede reading and writing. It goes without saying that the pronunciation (sounds, rhythm, intonation) of all patterns requires continued attention.

To illustrate what we said before, we may suggest some useful structures to be learnt and developed.

Note: Words in parentheses are those which can be substituted for by other words.
which may be useful in other situations or more interesting to our pupils because of their age, the community in which they live, etc. The interrogative and negative should be practiced with all structures.

LEVEL I

My name is (Mr., Mrs., Miss) (Gibb)
What is your name? It is (John)
My name is (Peter)
How are you? I'm fine, thank you. How are you?
Where do you live (Mary)? I live (at) (45) (Bond St.)
Is he (at home)? Yes, he is.
This (book) is (interesting)
What colour is it? It is (blue)
This is (Sam). He is a boy, he is a pupil in the class.
What is his name? It is Henry.
(Henry)'s tall
Are you a pupil? Yes, I am.
What's (she)? (She's) a pupil.
Who's he?
Where's the (pen)? Here it is
There is a boy in the library
What time is it? It is (four) o'clock.
It's (half past four) in the morning.
What's today? It's Monday
What's the weather today? (It's sunny)
How old are you? I'm (twenty).
How many (brothers) do you have?
How much is that book?
I need a (pen). I need it.
It is (my) (book)
I'm writing.
Open the door.
Don't open de door.

LEVEL II

Can you speak (English)? Yes, I can.
Your (brother) can speak (English), can't he? No, he can't.
You'll play (tennis) with me later, won't you?
I don't know. I (must) see a friend of mine.
If I get the money, I'll buy a coat.
Did she eat all of the (cake)? No, she only ate some of it. 
I must do (the laundry). 
It is very (hot). It’s too (hot) to (drink) 
I’d go, if I could. So would I. 
I couldn’t go there (yesterday). Neither could I. 
Would you lend me that (book)? 
I (hope) you’ll like it. 
If (you’re) not careful, (you’ll) hurt (yourself) 
Do you know how to speak (English)? 
How old is he? I don’t know how old he is. 
Where will I put these? I don’t know where to put these. 
How long have you lived here? 
I’ve lived here for two years. 
I’ve lived here since 1965. 
The (house) is made of (wood). 
The book was written by (Joyce). 
You’d better study. 
I’ve just (been) (there). 
I know (who) (he) is. 
I don’t know whose (book) it is. 
Won’t you (come in)? 
It’s fun to (sing). 
I’d rather go (swimming).

LEVEL III

I have so much to do, 
I’m so tired that I can’t walk. 
The man who is speaking is the (teacher). 
The man you saw is (his) (father). 
I saw him myself. 
(While) I do this, you can do that. 
As I do this, you can do that. 
They talked together for a while. 
He told me to do. 
He asked me if I get up early every day. 
She said, “I can do that.” 
She said she could do that. 
He told her where it was. 
He got dressed before he had breakfast. 
He went out after he had had breakfast.
I could have done that myself.
He must have done that himself.
He should have been working.
I want you to study this until you’ve learned it.
May I have my picture taken?
I don’t have much money. Neither does she.
What’s this called? It’s called a “refrigerator”.
Get on the (ladder).
Run up the street.
I’ll go there as quickly as (I can).

6.— CONCLUDING REMARKS

The techniques and method to be used will be determined by the type of lesson being presented; for example, structure, dialogue, reading, pronunciation, dictation, or vocabulary building. The questions we should ask ourselves in general are:

1.— Is this method suitable for this age and ability group?
2.— Could I elicit much of the material that I am presenting?
3.— Am I providing adequate examples so that the form, recurring pattern, and meaning become clear?
4.— Is the majority of the class at the stage where it can profit from this lesson; in other words, do the learners know the materials on which this lesson is being built?
5.— Have I made adequate provision for the slower or more advanced pupils?
6.— Have I included an interesting approach, a statement of aim, a clear and systematic development, varied practice activities, a summary and assignment?
7.— Is this method the most appropriate to lead to the pupil’s?

Any method should aim at giving pupils the knowledge, skills and attitudes which will prepare them for further study.

English should be taught not only as a vehicle for school learning but also for personal expression and self realization. Special efforts should be made through its reintroduction and review to ensure consolidation and integration of previously taught material on which the new material being introduced is based.

A pupil learns when he is the person who does something. So the teacher must call on each person in the group at least once. If the size of the group makes this impossible, secure total pupil participation by engaging in much choral repetition of questions and answers. He must too call on both volunteers and nonvolunteers, but don’t force shy students to answer. Must gear his question to the abilities of his individual students.

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In the beginning stages:

— Use only fact-type questions or these in which most words required in the answer are contained in the question; for example, Who is he? He is my brother.

— Help students to begin answers by suggesting the first word or two. So we suggest an advisory method.

— Ask the same or similar questions of many students so that correct responses will become automatic.

— Have students ask each other questions (pair work) so that they can learn how to manipulate question patterns.

As we see there are endless methods and techniques in language teaching. The good teacher uses all of them at different times, not only to lend variety to his teaching, but also in the hope that one of them will give his students insight into the item or pattern being taught. Pupils have different learning modes just as teachers have different teaching styles.

That is why in the present work we have not tried to present a conclusive case but to start an inquiry. The aim here is to stimulate interest by exposure, to suggest rather than to specify, to allow reflection.

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