PONTIFICIA UNIVERSIDAD CATÓLICA DEL ECUADOR SEDE AMBATO

SERÉIS MIS TESTIGOS

DEPARTAMENTO DE INVESTIGACIÓN, POSTGRADOS Y AUTOEVALUACIÓN

Tema:

"THE TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS OF ENGLISH IN YOUNG ADULTS, ITS LIMITATIONS AND ITS IMPROVEMENT"

Tema de Investigación previo a la obtención del título de "DIPLOMADO SUPERIOR EN METODOLOGÍAS COMUNICATIVAS DEL IDIOMA INGLÉS"

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PONTIFICIA UNIVERSIDAD CATÓLICA DEL ECUADOR SEDE AMBATO

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HOJA DE APROBACIÓN

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DECLARACIÓN DE AUTENTICIDAD Y RESPONSABILIDAD

Yo, William Iván Peña Sánchez portador de la cédula de ciudadanía No. 180215597-6 declaro que los resultados obtenidos en la investigación que presento como informe final, previo la obtención del título de "DIPLOMADO SUPERIOR EN METODOLOGÍAS COMUNICATIVAS DEL IDIOMA INGLÉS" son absolutamente originales, auténticos y personales.

En tal virtud, declaro que el contenido, las conclusiones y los efectos legales y académicos que se desprenden del trabajo propuesto de investigación y luego de la redacción de este documento son y serán de mi sola y exclusiva responsabilidad legal y académica.

William Iván Peña Sánchez
CI. 180215597-6

RESUMEN

El presente trabajo se realizó con la finalidad de analizar y comprender los diferentes aspectos involucrados en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje del idioma Inglés específicamente entre jóvenes adultos, de manera que se puedan identificar sus limitaciones y a la vez se puedan proponer alternativas que permitan lograr su mejoramiento continuo dentro y/o fuera del aula de clases. Esta monografía está basada principalmente en la investigación bibliográfica, y fue escogido debido a que la adquisición de conocimientos de una lengua extranjera se muestra como un proceso demasiado lento y prolongado, y que en la mayoría de casos no llega a desarrollar una competencia comunicativa por parte de los estudiantes inmersos en el mismo. Se establecen finalmente las correspondientes conclusiones y recomendaciones para lograr el mejoramiento de la forma como se desarrolla este proceso para obtener estudiantes capaces de comunicarse en una lengua extranjera como es el Inglés. En mi opinión este trabajo es muy valioso ya que pone al descubierto la manera como se ha venido desarrollando este proceso, a la vez que propone alternativas de mejoramiento basados en la realidad.

ABSTRACT

The current research was done to analyze and understand the different aspects involved into the teaching-learning process of the English language especially among young adults, so it can be possible to identify its limitations and, at the same time, establish alternatives to achieve its continuum improvement whether indoors or outdoors the classroom. This monograph is mainly based on the bibliographical research, and it was chosen due to the fact that the knowledge acquisition of a foreign language is a slow and prolonged process, and most of the students do not develop the communicative competence. Finally, the corresponding conclusions and recommendations are presented in order to achieve the improvement of the way how this process is developed and get students who are able to communicate in the foreign language. In my opinion this research is very valuable since it puts this process uncovered, and it proposes alternatives for improvement based on the reality.

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INTRODUCTION

The current Dissertation deals with the Teaching-Learning process in young adults, its limitations and its improvement; so the main purpose of this Dissertation is to find out how this process is developed inside and outside the classroom. It is well known that teaching a foreign language is not so easy, and not all the students do well on this matter since this process represents the apprenticeship of a totally different writing and pronunciation of letters, words, phrases, and sentences, therefore they often have problems.

There are different barriers that students and teachers have to face before developing a correct acquisition of a foreign language, fact that is seen every day into the classroom since students take longer when working with different topics. Of course there are students who take less time learning the language but that is because of their studies background. In other words, they have come with enough bases to keep going with the subject. Anyway, this situation has many explanations which will be touched along this work.

This Monograph has been developed with young adults based on bibliography especially designed for them. Here we will find the main obstacles students have when learning a foreign language. Also a set of conclusions and recommendations to put into practice inside and outside the classroom in order

First of all, I will explain the general context of the teaching-learning process starting from the general to the specific context to infer the situations around the topic, until touching its limitations in a real context. This work involves the bibliographic research as well as the practical proposal of activities toward the correct transmission of the English used in communication.

STATING OF THE PROBLEM AND ITS JUSTIFICATION

Language teaching practice often assumes that most of the difficulties that learners face in the study of English are a consequence of the degree to which their native language differs from English (a contrastive analysis approach). A native speaker of Chinese, for example, may face many more difficulties than a native speaker of German, because German is closely related to English, whereas Chinese is not. This may be true for anyone of any mother tongue (also called first language, normally abbreviated L1) setting out to learn any other language (called a target language, second language or L2).

Language learners often produce errors of syntax and pronunciation thought to result from the influence of their L1, such as mapping its grammatical patterns inappropriately onto the L2, pronouncing certain sounds incorrectly or with difficulty, and confusing items of vocabulary known as false friends. This is known as L1 transfer or "language interference". However, these transfer effects are typically stronger for beginners' language production, and SLA research has highlighted many errors which cannot be attributed to the L1, as they are attested in learners of many language backgrounds (for example, failure to apply 3rd person present singular -s to verbs, as in 'he make').

While English is no more complex than other languages like Portuguese, it has

such a large number of people are studying it, products have been developed to help them do so, such as the monolingual learner's dictionary, which is written with a restricted defining vocabulary.

It is important to remember that learning a second language involves much more than learning the words and the sounds of a language. Communication breakdowns occur not only due to the more commonly understood syntax and pronunciation difficulties but because when we learn a language we also learn a culture. What is perceived as right, normal and correct in one language and culture does not always "translate" into a second language...even when the vocabulary is understood. Communication breakdowns may occur as a result of cultural assumptions regarding age, forms of address, authority and respect, touching, eye contact and other body language, greetings, invitations, and punctuality to name just a few.

In particular, some students may have very different cultural perceptions in the classroom as far as learning a second language is concerned. Also, cultural differences in communication styles and preferences are significant. For example, a study looked at Chinese ESL students and British teachers and found that the Chinese learners did not see classroom discussion and interaction as important but placed a heavy emphasis on teacher-directed lectures. English has no organization that determines the most prestigious form

langue française", Spanish language's "Real Academia Española", or the "Italian Accademia della Crusca".

Teaching English therefore involves not only helping the student to use the form of English most suitable for his purposes, but also exposure to regional forms and cultural styles so that the student will be able to discern meaning even when the words, grammar or pronunciation are different to the form of English he is being taught to speak.

If the development of more tasks inside or outside the class helps students to improve their learning process, it is very important for the teachers to know and domain more exercises either inside or outside the class in real life situations.
In addition, it is very important to delimit the group of people to whom this research is going to be aimed. Specifically, the group of learners is the one considered as Young Adults since I worked with them.

As a result, here we have the justification of this monograph containing a concrete analysis of specific topics such as the teaching-learning process of Listening. Speaking, Reading, Writing, Grammar and Culture, that will serve to improve the teaching-learning process. The current work will become an important tool for teachers to analyze, apply and reinforce either in class or outside it.

OBJECTIVES

General Objective

To explain, analyze and understand the different aspects involved into the teaching-learning process among young adults in order to establish conclusions and state specific recommendations to improve students' communication.

Specific Objectives

- To research and gather enough information related to the teaching-learning process among young adults.
- To identify the main problems that young adults face when learning English as a second language.
- To explain the teaching-learning process and its general context for a better understanding of the situation.
- To propose recommendations aimed to improve the teaching-learning process among young adults either inside or outside the class.

METHODOLOGY

The methodological design applied corresponds to the bibliographical investigation in order to gather the scientific material necessary for the Theoretical Background that will help to understand the teaching-learning process among young adults.

Besides, I will go from the general context to the specific facts which correspond to the Deductive method in order to analyze all the factors included into this topic.

After this explanation, this research ends with the establishment of the Conclusions, which have to do with the proposed objectives.

Finally, the current research ends with Recommendations focused on the improvement of the teaching-learning process among young learners, which can be applied in any group of students.

CHAPTER I. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

It is necessary to begin with a concrete explanation of the teaching-learning process in order to understand the whole context. So, it is good to say that the Teaching and learning is a process that includes many variables. These variables interact as learners work toward their goals and incorporate new knowledge, behaviors, and skills that add to their range of learning experiences. The research on teaching-learning has taught us that these processes are extremely complex. It would be foolhardy; therefore, to search for monolithic images of successful teaching or simplistic recipes for good practice on the basis of which policies for education (especially national ones) could be formulated. The most we can hope for are well researched guidelines in the light of which individual teachers can formulate plans and implement practices appropriate to the circumstances in which they find themselves. Besides, it is convenient to include some strategies to adopt before, during, and after entering the classroom, so that the interferences found may be attacked.

Young-Adults learning theories in and of themselves have very little consensus amongst them. There is great debate on an actual determined amount of theories that are even possible, as well as labeling those theories into groups like Hilgard and Bower's (1966) stimulus-response and cognitive theories as large categories of their eleven theories. Another groups dynamic labels theories as mechanistic and or organismic (Merriam and Caffarella, 1999). Overall it

process that creates change within the individual, and 2) a process to infuse change into the organization.

Malcolm Knowles might well be considered the founding father of adult learning. He contrasted the "concept of andragogy, meaning "the art and science of helping adults learn,"...with pedagogy, the art and science of helping children learn" (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999, p. 272). Knowles' original studies and writings arose from the assumption that there are significant, identifiable differences between adult learners and learners under the age of eighteen. Primarily, the differences, according to Knowles, relate to an adult learner being more self-directing, having a repertoire of experience, and being internally motivated to learn subject matter that can be applied immediately – learning that is especially "closely related to the developmental tasks of his or her social role" (p. 272).

1.1 Andragogy

Knowles (1968) popularized this European concept over thirty years ago. Andragogy, (andr - 'man'), contrasted with pedagogy, means "the art and science of helping adults learn" (Knowles, 1980, p. 43). Knowles labeled andragogy as an emerging technology which facilitates the development and implementation of learning activities for adults. This emerging technology is based on five andragogical assumptions of the adult learner:

1. Self-Concept: As a person matures, he or she moves from dependency to self-directness.
2. Experience: Adults draw upon their experiences to aid their learning.
3. Readiness: The learning readiness of adults is closely related to the assumption of new social roles.
4. Orientation: As a person learns new knowledge, he or she wants to apply it immediately in problem solving.
5. Motivation (Later added): As a person matures, he or she receives their motivation to learn from internal factors.

These five assumptions dovetail with the thoughts and theories of others. Merriam and Caffarella (1999) point to three keys to transformational learning: experience, critical reflection and development. The aspect of experience (the second assumption to andragogy) seems like an important consideration in creating an effective learning opportunity for adults. The learning opportunity needs to be relevant and applicable to a person's set of experiences. Argote, McEvily, and Reagans (2003) point to experience as an important factor in one's ability to create, retain and transfer knowledge.

Critical reflection is the second key to transformational learning and part of andragogy's self-directed learning. Reflection/think time is yet another essential principle to creating an effective learning experience for adults. Garvin (1993) shares the importance of fostering an environment that is conducive to learning

contemplate the ramifications of the learning experience to their experience and responsibilities.

The third key to transformational learning is development (corresponding to the third assumption of andragogy). Merriam and Caffarella state that "the ability to think critically, which is mandatory to effecting a transformation, is itself developmental" (p. 330). If development is the outcome of transformational learning, then an effective adult learning opportunity needs to be created that will take personal development into consideration

Andragogy assumes the following about the design of learning:

1. Adults in general have the need to know why they are learning something.
2. Adults in general learn through doing.
3. Adults in general are problem-solvers.
4. Adults in general learn best when the subject is of immediate use.

Besides, there are certain factors that have to do with the way how young adult learners develop the teaching-learning process, and they are:

1.2 Conditions/Environment

Some research suggests that situational circumstances constitute an environment that promotes or discourages learning. Those circumstances may be created by organizational structure, positive or negative environmental

situations, or time constraints. Child and Heavens (2003) suggest, "The learning capabilities of organizational members are, at least in part, socially constructed by national, occupational, or other institutions" (p. 310). They further suggest that internal boundaries are established by specialties or departments within the framework of organizations that hinder cross-boundary learning.

In following the thread of environmental issues within organizations supporting or hindering learning, Starbuck and Hedberg (2003) suggest that positive outcomes are much more apt to result in a positive and successful learning experience. They contend, "Pleasant outcomes (successes) reinforce Stimulus-Response links whereas unpleasant outcomes (failures) break Stimulus-Response links. As a result, pleasant outcomes are much more effective at teaching new behaviors" (p. 331).

This concept follows the transformational leadership theory providing positive opportunities for individuals to grow within the framework of organizational life. However, it may be contended that learning through failure (i.e. experiments which do not result in the anticipated outcomes) may provide a more thorough and circumspect understanding of the given topic or issue under examination, although this method will generally involve a longer learning curve. --The license to fail is often the surest key towards successful learning which an organization may provide.

1.3 Experiential learning

Experiential Learning Theory emphasizes the role that true experiences play in the learning process. It is this emphasis that distinguishes itself from other learning theories. Cognitive learning theories emphasize cognition over affect and behavioral learning theories deny any role for subjective experience in the learning process.

1.4 Anxiety and the Young Adult Learner

An interview with psychologist Edgar Schein, Coutu suggests that more often than not, organizations fail at transformational learning. They rarely fundamentally change the behaviors within the organization. Schein dismisses the notion that learning is fun, especially for young adults. He equates adult learning within organizations with that of the brainwashing techniques he observed while studying prisoners of the Korean War (Coutu, 2002). Organizations must find a method to deal with the anxiety adults experience when they are forced to "unlearn" what they know and learn something new (Coutu, 2002, p. 6). Schein discusses two kinds of anxiety: learning anxiety and survival anxiety. It is in this manner that he draws the parallel to brainwashing; that is "learning will only happen when survival anxiety is greater than learning anxiety" (Coutu, 2002, p. 6). Each of these anxieties could be managed, for example learning can be constructed in a "safe" environment where the consequences of failure are minimal. Survival anxiety can obviously be

increased by threatening job loss, a lack of security, or recognizing competitive elements of the market.

1.5 Jarvis's Learning Process and Adult Learning Theory

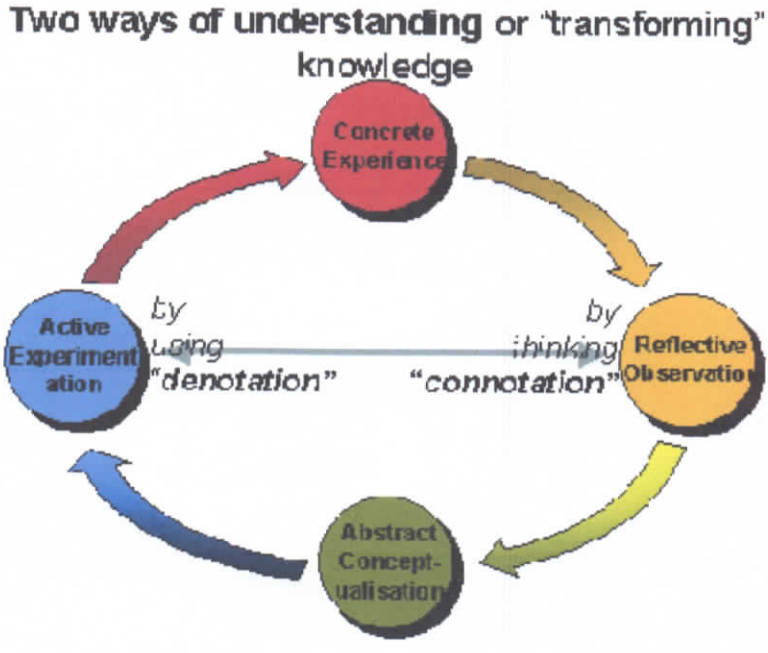
One of the most significant qualities unique to young adult learning as compared to that of children, teens, and traditional college students is life experience. That experience offers adult learners a meaningful advantage in the learning process. The sum of those experiences provides many reference points for exploration, new application, and new learning.

Merriam & Caffarella (1999) review Jarvis's Learning Process in a wider discussion of young adult learning. These authors quote Jarvis (1987a, p. 16) who suggests, "All learning begins with experience." Real learning begins when a response is called for in relation to an experience. If an individual is unchanged by a situation, Jarvis questions whether real learning has taken place. He proposes that new experiences need to be experimented with, evaluated, reflected upon and reasoned about for the most effective change and therefore learning to take place. Jarvis continues, suggesting that these post experience behaviors culminate in the best and highest form of learning where change and increased experience have happened. Jarvis's model offers an excellent learning model that can assist both facilitators and learners in advancing education and learning situations.

A few questions come to mind in light of Jarvis's theory. Does Jarvis's model reflect a deeply postmodern worldview where experience is either ultimate or paramount? How might this worldview expand or narrow learning theory? Does Jarvis's model seem to accept the maxim that 'experience is the best teacher'? We can of course qualify this statement by asking whether there is any learning which does not consist of experience in some form, whether in the classroom, on the playground or on the battlefield.

Is it possible that some hurtful and negative life experiences could be avoided if a person learned from another person who has already encountered and experienced a significantly negative life situation? Learning from an older or more experienced mentor provides an incredibly valuable learning forum and support network. Listening, and learning from a mentor's successes, failures, or mistakes can help expand one's knowledge base and shorten learning cycles experience alone would require. It seems that living largely out of one's personal experiences also short-circuits meaningful, relational connections that expand one's horizons and better equip one to succeed in this world and avoid so many of its pitfalls. Yet, it may be reasonably argued, that personal experience provides the most integral and visceral form of learning (and I state this as no objective fact, but rather personal opinion, contrary to how articles are generally written in "Wikeality").

Graphic 1



Now, it is necessary to explain how the teaching-learning process of the different skills of the English Language takes place as part of this complex process.

CHAPTER II. TEACHING LISTENING

Listening is the language modality that is used most frequently. It has been estimated that adults spend almost half their communication time listening, and students may receive as much as 90% of their in-school information through listening to instructors and to one another. Often, however, language learners do not recognize the level of effort that goes into developing listening ability.

Far from passively receiving and recording aural input, listeners actively involve themselves in the interpretation of what they hear, bringing their own background knowledge and linguistic knowledge to bear on the information contained in the aural text. Not all listening is the same; casual greetings, for example, require a different sort of listening capability than do academic lectures. Language learning requires intentional listening that employs strategies for identifying sounds and making meaning from them.

Listening involves a sender (a person, radio, television), a message, and a receiver (the listener). Listeners often must process messages as they come even if they are still processing what they have just heard, without backtracking or looking ahead. In addition, listeners must cope with the sender's choice of vocabulary, structure, and rate of delivery. The complexity of the listening process is magnified in second language contexts, where the receiver also has incomplete control of the language.

Given the importance of listening in language learning and teaching it is essential for language teachers to help their students become effective listeners. In the communicative approach to language teaching, this means modeling listening strategies and providing listening practice in authentic situations: those that learners are likely to encounter when they use the language outside the classroom.

2.1 Goals and Techniques for Teaching Listening

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 listening, this means producing students who can use listening strategies to maximize their comprehension of aural input, identify relevant and non-relevant information, and tolerate less than word-by-word comprehension.

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

They develop students' awareness of the listening process and listening strategies by asking students to think and talk about how they listen in their native language.

They allow students to practice the full repertoire of listening strategies by using authentic listening tasks.

They behave as authentic listeners by responding to student communication as

When working with listening tasks in class, they show students the strategies that will work best for the listening purpose and the type of text. They explain how and why students should use the strategies.

They have students practice listening strategies in class and ask them to practice outside of class in their listening assignments. They encourage students to be conscious of what they're doing while they complete listening tape assignments.

They encourage students to evaluate their comprehension and their strategy use immediately after completing an assignment. They build comprehension checks into in-class and out-of-class listening assignments, and periodically review how and when to use particular strategies.

They encourage the development of listening skills and the use of listening strategies by using the target language to conduct classroom business: making announcements, assigning homework, describing the content and format of tests.

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 listening task or with another skill.

By raising students' awareness of listening as a skill that requires active engagement, and by explicitly teaching listening 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.

Integrating Metacognitive Strategies.

Before listening: Plan for the listening task.

Set a purpose or decide in advance what to listen 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 listening: Monitor comprehension.

Verify predictions and check for inaccurate guesses.

Decide what is and is not important to understand.

Listen/view again to check comprehension.

Ask for help.

After listening: Evaluate comprehension and strategy use.

Evaluate comprehension in a particular task or area.

Evaluate overall progress in listening and in particular types of listening tasks.

Decide if the strategies used were appropriate for the purpose and for the task.

Modify strategies if necessary.

2.2 Using Authentic Materials and Situations

Authentic materials and situations prepare students for the types of listening they will need to do when using the language outside the classroom.

One-Way Communication.

Materials:

Radio and television programs

Public address announcements (airports, train/bus stations, stores)

Speeches and lectures

Two-Way Communication

In authentic two-way communication, the listener focuses on the speaker's meaning rather than the speaker's language. The focus shifts to language only when meaning is not clear. Note the difference between the teacher as teacher and the teacher as authentic listener in the dialogues in the popup screens.

2.3 Listening Strategies

Listening strategies are techniques or activities that contribute directly to the comprehension and recall of listening input. Listening strategies can be classified by how the listener processes the input.

Top-down strategies are listener based; the listener taps into background knowledge of the topic, the situation or context, the type of text, and the language. This background knowledge activates a set of expectations that help the listener to interpret what is heard and anticipate what will come next. Top

- listening for the main idea
- predicting
- drawing inferences
- summarizing

Bottom-up strategies are text based; the listener relies on the language in the message, that is, the combination of sounds, words, and grammar that creates meaning. Bottom-up strategies include:

- listening for specific details
- recognizing cognates
- recognizing word-order patterns

Strategic listeners also use metacognitive strategies to plan, monitor, and evaluate their listening.

They plan by deciding which listening strategies will serve best in a particular situation.

They monitor their comprehension and the effectiveness of the selected strategies.

They evaluate by determining whether they have achieved their listening comprehension goals and whether the combination of listening strategies selected was an effective one.

2.4 Developing Listening Activities

As you design listening tasks, keep in mind that complete recall of all the

speakers are not usually held. Listening exercises that are meant to train should be success-oriented and build up students' confidence in their listening ability.

Construct the listening activity around a contextualized task.

Contextualized listening activities approximate real-life tasks and give the listener an idea of the type of information to expect and what to do with it in advance of the actual listening. A beginning level task would be locating places on a map (one way) or exchanging name and address information (two way). At an intermediate level students could follow directions for assembling something (one way) or work in pairs to create a story to tell to the rest of the class (two way).

Define the activity's instructional goal and type of response.

Each activity should have as its goal the improvement of one or more specific listening skills. A listening activity may have more than one goal or outcome, but be careful not to overburden the attention of beginning or intermediate listeners. Recognizing the goal(s) of listening comprehension in each listening situation will help students select appropriate listening strategies.

Identification: Recognizing or discriminating specific aspects of the message, such as sounds, categories of words, morphological distinctions.

Orientation: Determining the major facts about a message, such as topic, text type, setting.

Main idea comprehension: Identifying the higher-order ideas.

Detail comprehension: Identifying supporting details.

Check the level of difficulty of the listening text.

The factors listed below can help you judge the relative ease or difficulty of a listening 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 the language.

Does the text involve multiple individuals and objects? Are they clearly differentiated? It is easier to understand a text with a doctor and a patient than one with two doctors, and it is even easier if they are of the opposite sex. In other words, the more marked the differences, the easier the comprehension.

Does the text offer visual support to aid in the interpretation of what the listeners hear? Visual aids such as maps, diagrams, pictures, or the images in a video help contextualize the listening input and provide clues to meaning.

Use pre-listening activities to prepare students for what they are going to hear or

The activities chosen during pre-listening may serve as preparation for listening in several ways. During pre-listening the teacher may

- assess students' background knowledge of the topic and linguistic content of the text
- provide students with the background knowledge necessary for their comprehension of the listening passage 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 listening to, the role they will play, and the purpose(s) for which they will be listening
- provide opportunities for group or collaborative work and for background reading or class discussion activities

If students are to complete a written task during or immediately after listening, allow them to read through it before listening. Students need to devote all their attention to the listening task. Be sure they understand the instructions for the written task before listening begins so that they are not distracted by the need to figure out what to do.

Keep writing to a minimum during listening. Remember that the primary goal is comprehension, not production. Having to write while listening may distract students from this primary goal. If a written response is to be given after

Organize activities so that they guide listeners through the text. Combine global activities such as getting the main idea, topic, and setting with selective listening activities that focus on details of content and form.

Use questions to focus students' attention on the elements of the text crucial to comprehension of the whole. Before the listening activity begins, have students review questions they will answer orally or in writing after listening. Listening for the answers will help students recognize the crucial parts of the message.

Use predicting to encourage students to monitor their comprehension as they listen. Do a predicting activity before listening, and remind students to review what they are hearing to see if it makes sense in the context of their prior knowledge and what they already know of the topic or events of the passage.

Give immediate feedback whenever possible. Encourage students to examine how or why their responses were incorrect.

2.5 Assessing Listening Proficiency

You can use post-listening activities to check comprehension, evaluate listening skills and use of listening strategies, and extend the knowledge gained to other contexts. A post-listening activity may relate to a pre-listening activity, such as predicting; may expand on the topic or the language of the listening text; or may transfer what has been learned to reading, speaking, or writing activities.

In order to provide authentic assessment of students' listening proficiency, a post-listening activity must reflect the real-life uses to which students might put

It must have a purpose other than assessment.

It must require students to demonstrate their level of listening comprehension by completing some task.

To develop authentic assessment activities, consider the type of response that listening to a particular selection would elicit in a non-classroom situation. For example, after listening to a weather report one might decide what to wear the next day; after listening to a set of instructions, one might repeat them to someone else; after watching and listening to a play or video, one might discuss the story line with friends.

CHAPTER III. TEACHING SPEAKING

Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. These learners define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication.
Language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge:

Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation
Functions (transaction and interaction): Knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building)

Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

In the communicative model of language teaching, instructors help their students develop this body of knowledge by providing authentic practice that prepares

students for real-life communication situations. They help their students develop the ability to produce grammatically correct, logically connected sentences that are appropriate to specific contexts, and to do so using acceptable (that is, comprehensible) pronunciation.

3.1 Goals and Techniques for Teaching Speaking

The goal of teaching speaking skills is communicative efficiency. Learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their current proficiency to the fullest. They should try to avoid confusion in the message due to faulty pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary, and to observe the social and cultural rules that apply in each communication situation.

To help students develop communicative efficiency in speaking, instructors can use a balanced activities approach that combines language input, structured output, and communicative output.

Language input comes in the form of teacher talk, listening activities, reading passages, and the language heard and read outside of class. It gives learners the material they need to begin producing language themselves.

Content-oriented input focuses on information, whether it is a simple weather report or an extended lecture on an academic topic. Content-oriented input may also include descriptions of learning strategies and examples of their use.

Form-oriented input focuses on ways of using the language: guidance from the

competence); appropriate things to say in specific contexts (discourse competence); expectations for rate of speech, pause length, turn-taking, and other social aspects of language use (sociolinguistic competence); and explicit instruction in phrases to use to ask for clarification and repair miscommunication (strategic competence).

In the presentation part of a lesson, an instructor combines content-oriented and form-oriented input. The amount of input that is actually provided in the target language depends on students' listening proficiency and also on the situation. For students at lower levels, or in situations where a quick explanation on a grammar topic is needed, an explanation in English may be more appropriate than one in the target language.

Structured output focuses on correct form. In structured output, students may have options for responses, but all of the options require them to use the specific form or structure that the teacher has just introduced. In communicative output, the learners' main purpose is to complete a task, such as obtaining information, developing a travel plan, or creating a video. To complete the task, they may use the language that the instructor has just presented, but they also may draw on any other vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies that they know. In communicative output activities, the criterion of success is whether the learner gets the message across. Accuracy is not a consideration unless the

In everyday communication, spoken exchanges take place because there is some sort of information gap between the participants. Communicative output activities involve a similar real information gap. In order to complete the task, students must reduce or eliminate the information gap. In these activities, language is a tool, not an end in itself.

In a balanced activities approach, the teacher uses a variety of activities from these different categories of input and output. Learners at all proficiency levels, including beginners, benefit from this variety; it is more motivating, and it is also more likely to result in effective language learning.

3.2 Strategies for Developing Speaking Skills using minimal responses

Language learners who lack confidence in their ability to participate successfully in oral interaction often listen in silence while others do the talking. One way to encourage such learners to begin to participate is to help them build up a stock of minimal responses that they can use in different types of exchanges. Such responses can be especially useful for beginners.

Minimal responses are predictable, often idiomatic phrases that conversation participants use to indicate understanding, agreement, doubt, and other responses to what another speaker is saying. Having a stock of such responses enables a learner to focus on what the other participant is saying, without having

3.3 Recognizing scripts

Some communication situations are associated with a predictable set of spoken exchanges - a script. Greetings, apologies, compliments, invitations, and other functions that are influenced by social and cultural norms often follow patterns or scripts. So do the transactional exchanges involved in activities such as obtaining information and making a purchase. In these scripts, the relationship between a speaker's turn and the one that follows it can often be anticipated.

Instructors can help students develop speaking ability by making them aware of the scripts for different situations so that they can predict what they will hear and what they will need to say in response. Through interactive activities, instructors can give students practice in managing and varying the language that different scripts contain.

3.4 Using language to talk about language

Language learners are often too embarrassed or shy to say anything when they do not understand another speaker or when they realize that a conversation partner has not understood them. Instructors can help students overcome this reticence by assuring them that misunderstanding and the need for clarification can occur in any type of interaction, whatever the participants' language skill levels. Instructors can also give students strategies and phrases to use for clarification and comprehension check.

By encouraging students to use clarification phrases in class when misunderstanding occurs, and by responding positively when they do, instructors can create an authentic practice environment within the classroom itself. As they develop control of various clarification strategies, students will gain confidence in their ability to manage the various communication situations that they may encounter outside the classroom.

3.5 Developing Speaking Activities

Traditional classroom speaking practice often takes the form of drills in which one person asks a question and another gives an answer. The question and the answer are structured and predictable, and often there is only one correct, predetermined answer. The purpose of asking and answering the question is to demonstrate the ability to ask and answer the question.

In contrast, the purpose of real communication is to accomplish a task, such as conveying a telephone message, obtaining information, or expressing an opinion. In real communication, participants must manage uncertainty about what the other person will say. Authentic communication involves an information gap; each participant has information that the other does not have. In addition, to achieve their purpose, participants may have to clarify their meaning or ask for confirmation of their own understanding.

To create classroom speaking activities that will develop communicative competence, instructors need to incorporate a purpose and an information gap and allow for multiple forms of expression. However, quantity alone will not necessarily produce competent speakers. Instructors need to combine structured output activities, which allow for error correction and increased accuracy, with communicative output activities that give students opportunities to practice language use more freely.

3.6 Structured Output Activities

Two common kinds of structured output activities are information gap and jigsaw activities. In both these types of activities, students complete a task by obtaining missing information, a feature the activities have in common with real communication. However, information gap and jigsaw activities also set up practice on specific items of language. In this respect they are more like drills than like communication.

With information gap and jigsaw activities, instructors need to be conscious of the language demands they place on their students. If an activity calls for language your students have not already practiced, you can brainstorm with them when setting up the activity to preview the language they will need, eliciting what they already know and supplementing what they are able to produce themselves.

3.7 Communicative Output Activities

Communicative output activities allow students to practice using all of the language they know in situations that resemble real settings. In these activities, students must work together to develop a plan, resolve a problem, or complete a task. The most common types of communicative output activity are role plays and discussions.

In role plays, students are assigned roles and put into situations that they may eventually encounter outside the classroom. Because role plays imitate life, the range of language functions that may be used expands considerably. Also, the role relationships among the students as they play their parts call for them to practice and develop their sociolinguistic competence. They have to use language that is appropriate to the situation and to the characters. Students usually find role playing enjoyable, but students who lack self-confidence or have lower proficiency levels may find them intimidating at first.

CHAPTER IV. TEACHING READING

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.

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

- Read for a purpose; reading serves a function

4.1 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, 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 the reader knows which skills and strategies are appropriate for the type of text, and understands how to apply

4.2 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.

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.

4.3 Integrating Reading Strategies

Before reading: Plan for the reading task

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.

4.4 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.
2. The reading purpose must be authentic.
3. The reading approach must be authentic.

4.5 Reading Aloud in the Classroom

Students do not learn to read by reading aloud. A person who reads aloud and

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.

4.6 Strategies for Developing Reading Skills

Strategies that can help students read more quickly and effectively include:

- Previewing: reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get

- 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.

4.7 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 prereading, 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.

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.

4.8 Assessing Reading Proficiency

Reading ability is very difficult to assess accurately. In the communicative competence model, a student's reading level is the level at which that student is able to use reading to accomplish communication goals. This means that assessment of reading ability needs to be correlated with purposes for reading.

A student's performance when reading aloud is not a reliable indicator of that student's reading ability. A student who is perfectly capable of understanding a given text when reading it silently may stumble when asked to combine comprehension with word recognition and speaking ability in the way that reading aloud requires.

In addition, reading aloud is a task that students will rarely, if ever, need to do outside of the classroom. As a method of assessment, therefore, it is not authentic: It does not test a student's ability to use reading to accomplish a purpose or goal.

However, reading aloud can help a teacher assess whether a student is "seeing"

aloud for this purpose, adopt the "read and look up" approach: Ask the student to read a sentence silently one or more times, until comfortable with the content, then look up and tell you what it says. This procedure allows the student to process the text, and lets you see the results of that processing and know what elements, if any, the student is missing.

Comprehension Questions.

Instructors often use comprehension questions to test whether students have understood what they have read. In order to test comprehension appropriately, these questions need to be coordinated with the purpose for reading. If the purpose is to find specific information, comprehension questions should focus on that information. If the purpose is to understand an opinion and the arguments that support it, comprehension questions should ask about those points.

In everyday reading situations, readers have a purpose for reading before they start. That is, they know what comprehension questions they are going to need to answer before they begin reading. To make reading assessment in the language classroom more like reading outside of the classroom, therefore, allow students to review the comprehension questions before they begin to read the test passage.

Finally, when the purpose for reading is enjoyment, comprehension questions are beside the point. As a more authentic form of assessment, have students talk or write about why they found the text enjoyable and interesting (or not).

4.9 Authentic Assessment

In order to provide authentic assessment of students' reading proficiency, a post-listening activity must reflect the real-life uses to which students might put information they have gained through reading.

It must have a purpose other than assessment.

It must require students to demonstrate their level of reading comprehension by completing some task.

To develop authentic assessment activities, consider the type of response that reading a particular selection would elicit in a non-classroom situation. For example, after reading a weather report, one might decide what to wear the next day; after reading a set of instructions, one might repeat them to someone else; after reading a short story, one might discuss the story line with friends.

CHAPTER V. TEACHING WRITING

Writing is a complex process that allows writers to explore thoughts and ideas, and make them visible and concrete. Writing encourages thinking and learning for it motivates communication and makes thought available for reflection. When thought is written down, ideas can be examined, reconsidered, added to, rearranged, and changed.

Writing is most likely to encourage thinking and learning when students view writing as a process. By recognizing that writing is a recursive process, and that every writer uses the process in a different way, students experience less pressure to "get it right the first time" and are more willing to experiment, explore, revise, and edit. Yet, novice writers need to practice "writing" or exercises that involve copying or reproduction of learned material in order to learn the conventions of spelling, punctuation, grammatical agreement, and the like. Furthermore, students need to "write in the language" through engaging in a variety of grammar practice activities of controlled nature. Finally, they need to begin to write within a framework "flexibility measures" that include transformation exercises, sentence combining, expansion, embellishments, idea frames, and similar activities).

The most important factor in writing exercises is that students need to be

Encouraging student participation in the exercise, while at the same time refining and expanding writing skills, requires a certain pragmatic approach. The teacher should be clear on what skills he/she is trying to develop. Next, the teacher needs to decide on which means (or type of exercise) can facilitate learning of the target area. Once the target skill areas and means of implementation are defined, the teacher can then proceed to focus on what topic can be employed to ensure student participation. By pragmatically combing these objectives, the teacher can expect both enthusiasm and effective learning.

Choosing the target area depends on many factors; What level are the students?, What is the average age of the students, Why are the students learning English, Are there any specific future intentions for the writing (i.e school tests or job application letters etc.). Other important questions to ask oneself are: What should the students be able to produce at the end of this exercise? (a well written letter, basic communication of ideas, etc.) What is the focus of the exercise? (structure, tense usage, creative writing). Once these factors are clear in the mind of the teacher, the teacher can begin to focus on how to involve the students in the activity thus promoting a positive, long-term learning experience.

Having decided on the target area, the teacher can focus on the means to achieve this type of learning. As in correction, the teacher must choose the most

English is required, it is of little use to employ a free expression type of exercise. Likewise, when working on descriptive language writing skills, a formal letter is equally out of place.

With both the target area and means of production, clear in the teachers mind, the teacher can begin to consider how to involve the students by considering what type of activities are interesting to the students; Are they preparing for something specific such as a holiday or test?, Will they need any of the skills pragmatically? What has been effective in the past? A good way to approach this is by class feedback, or brainstorming sessions. By choosing a topic that involves the students the teacher is providing a context within which effective learning on the target area can be undertaken.

Finally, the question of which type of correction will facilitate a useful writing exercise is of utmost importance. Here the teacher needs to once again think about the overall target area of the exercise. If there is an immediate task at hand, such as taking a test, perhaps teacher guided correction is the most effective solution. However, if the task is more general (for example developing informal letter writing skills), maybe the best approach would be to have the students work in groups thereby learning from each other. Most importantly, by choosing the correct means of correction the teacher can encourage rather discourage students.

A well-written piece can be described as incorporating elements of writing in such a way that a reader can experience the writer's intended meaning, understand the writer's premise, and accept or reject the writer's point of view. Effective Writing:

- is focused on the topic and does not contain extraneous or loosely related information; has an organizational pattern that enables the reader to follow the flow of ideas because it contains a beginning, middle, and end and uses transitional devices;
- contains supporting ideas that are developed through the use of details, examples, vivid language, and mature word choice; and
- follows the conventions of standard written English (i.e., punctuation, capitalization, and spelling) and has variation in sentence structure.

The writing activities should be structured in ways that help students learn to produce cohesive and coherent discourse on their way to become self-sponsors of their own writings.

CHAPTER VI. TEACHING GRAMMAR AND CULTURE

Grammar is central to the teaching and learning of languages. It is also one of the more difficult aspects of language to teach well. Many people, including language teachers, hear the word "grammar" and think of a fixed set of word forms and rules of usage. They associate "good" grammar with the prestige forms of the language, such as those used in writing and in formal oral presentations, and "bad" or "no" grammar with the language used in everyday conversation or used by speakers of nonprestige forms.

Language teachers who adopt this definition focus on grammar as a set of forms and rules. They teach grammar by explaining the forms and rules and then drilling students on them. This results in bored, disaffected students who can produce correct forms on exercises and tests, but consistently make errors when they try to use the language in context.

Other language teachers, influenced by recent theoretical work on the difference between language learning and language acquisition, tend not to teach grammar at all. Believing that children acquire their first language without overt grammar instruction, they expect students to learn their second language the same way. They assume that students will absorb grammar rules as they hear, read, and use the language in communication activities. This approach does not allow students to use one of the major tools they have as learners: their active

understanding of what grammar is and how it works in the language they already know.

The communicative competence model balances these extremes. The model recognizes that overt grammar instruction helps students acquire the language more efficiently, but it incorporates grammar teaching and learning into the larger context of teaching students to use the language. Instructors using this model teach students the grammar they need to know to accomplish defined communication tasks.

On the other hand, of all the changes that have affected language teaching theory and method in recent years, the greatest may be the transformation in the role of **culture**. This change reflects a broader transformation in the way that culture itself is understood.

Traditionally, culture was understood in terms of formal or "high" culture (literature, art, music, and philosophy) and popular or "low" culture. From this perspective, one main reason for studying a language is to be able to understand and appreciate the high culture of the people who speak that language. The pop culture is regarded as inferior and not worthy of study.
In this view, language learning comes first, and culture learning second. Students need to learn the language in order to truly appreciate the culture, but

language. This understanding can lead language teachers to avoid teaching culture for several reasons:

They may feel that students at lower proficiency levels are not ready for it yet.
They may feel that it is additional material that they simply do not have time to teach.
In the case of formal culture, they may feel that they do not know enough about it themselves to teach it adequately.
In the case of popular culture, they may feel that it is not worth teaching.
In contemporary language classrooms, however, teachers are expected to integrate cultural components because language teaching has been influenced by a significantly different perspective on culture itself. This perspective, which comes from the social sciences, defines culture in terms of the knowledge, values, beliefs, and behaviors that a group of people share. It is reflected in the following statement from the National Center for Cultural Competence:

NCCC defines culture as an integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communications, languages, practices, beliefs, values, customs, courtesies, rituals, manners of interacting and roles, relationships and expected behaviors of a racial, ethnic, religious or social group; and the ability to transmit the above to succeeding generations. The NCCC embraces the philosophy that culture influences all aspects of human behavior. (Goode et al., 2000, p. 1)

In this understanding of "deep culture," language and culture are integral to one another. The structure of language and the ways it is used reflect the norms and values that members of a culture share. However, they also determine how those norms and values are shared, because language is the means through which culture is transmitted.

The communicative competence model is based on this understanding of the relationship between language and culture. Linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence each incorporate facets of culture, and the development of these competences is intertwined with the development of cultural awareness. "The exquisite connection between the culture that is lived and the language that is spoken can only be realized by those who possess knowledge of both" (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1999, p. 47).

CHAPTER VII. GROUP OF LEARNERS AND SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

It is necessary to take into account the group of learners who participate in the different activities into the teaching-learning process since they are always heterogeneous rather than homogeneous. So, at this part it is important to define it in order to present some suggested activities to reinforce the process as follow:

7.1 Multilevel Groups

It can be challenging to manage multiple language levels together. Perhaps you tutor a husband and wife with differing levels, or maybe you have a whole classroom full of students diverse not only in English ability but also in culture, age, and literacy skills. If you are dealing with tension between learners due to cultural differences, try to find and emphasize any common ground between them.

Where age gaps exist, usually the younger learners will make faster progress than the older ones. To preserve respect for your older students, give them a chance to answer first, or assign them helping tasks such as handing out and collecting papers or taking attendance. If some of your learners are literate in their native language and others aren't, often due to varying levels of prior formal education, the literate students will almost always make faster progress

and can take notes to study later. Therefore even if your learners begin with similar oral abilities, they will soon become multilevel as the learning gap widens. It can be effective to use peer tutoring pairing a literate student with a non-literate one as long as the 'tutor-tutee' roles are occasionally interchanged. The non-literate student should be given the chance to take the 'tutor' role with another non-literate student of lower ability or even with a literate student in a non-text-dependent activity.

In a multilevel class, it's a good idea to focus on topics rather than specific language skills, and focus on doing rather than studying. Work on specific skills as issues arise. Find long-term, hands-on projects in which all levels can participate such as a quilt, garden, collage, video, or dramatic production. Creating a survey that says "I want to learn English for..." with several options to check off and space for comments may help you discover common needs and interests in the group which you can use as a foundation for your lessons.

Multilevel classes frequently begin and end with whole-group activities to foster a sense of unity among the students. It's possible to teach the entire class session as a whole group, but many teachers choose to break into pair or group work for all or part of the main class time. Groups are often formed with similar ability levels so that students within a group can work on the same activity at about the same pace; such groups don't need to be the same size. Grouping

the same activity. You can have all groups working on activities concurrently, or you may want to rotate between 2-3 groups, teaching a lesson to one while others work on a self-guided task. The latter method requires greater preparation but is better able to meet level-specific needs.

Here are some ideas for pair and group work.

7.2 Similar-Ability Pairs

Such pairs should do tasks where each role is interchangeable and the same difficulty. Examples: information gaps, dialogs, role plays, and two-way interviews.

7.3 Mixed-Ability Pairs

Such pairs need unequal tasks. Examples: a story dictated by one and transcribed by the other, an interview in which one asks and one answers, and role plays with one larger role.

7.4 Similar-Ability Groups

Groups can be different sizes. Consider gender, culture, and age issues when grouping. Such groups can work on tasks where everyone can contribute equally. Examples: problem solving, sequencing, and process writing.

7.5 Mixed-Ability Groups

Such groups need activities that don't require equal language abilities for participation. Examples: board games, making lists, and arts or crafts.

7.6 Individuals

Selected individuals much higher or much lower than the rest of the class may be given independent tasks to work on.

When working with the whole class at once, there are several strategies you can use to keep higher level students challenged while not neglecting beginners. If you give time for a task and you know advanced students will complete it quickly, give them extra activities like a writing assignment or worksheet to do while waiting for the rest of the class to finish. You can ask advanced students to explain new vocabulary words (preferably in English), take notes on the board while you teach, or model a dialog with you. When holding class discussions or checking comprehension of the lesson, ask beginners simple questions with one correct answer, saving open-ended and opinion questions for higher level students.

In choosing whole-group activities, minimize reliance on texts, especially if your class includes non-literate students. Warm-ups, cassette or video clips, brainstorming, songs, and field trips are some activities well suited to multilevel

participation. Try to ensure that your lessons will stimulate various learning styles as well.

After you have taught the class for a while, you may find yourself struggling with problematic issues. Don't hesitate to go to your program leaders for support and advice. Additionally, you can ask for student feedback on their class experience, and discuss any individual concerns directly with the respective students. The following are some common concerns in multilevel classes.

7.6.1 If Advanced Students Dominate

This may happen in mixed-level groups. If it becomes problematic, end the group work and facilitate the activity yourself using the board so all students can see and participate. Make a note to try an alternate grouping strategy next time. If this is happening during whole-class activities, you may need to take a more active role in quieting dominant students and calling on beginners.

7.6.2 If Advanced Students Seem Bored or Beginners Seem Lost

It seems obvious to challenge advanced students more and help beginners feel included, but this is easier said than done. It will probably help to speak individually with each of the students you're concerned about and ask for their suggestions.

7.6.3 If Students Use Their Native Language

This is usually not a major concern in a multilevel class. You can allow some native language helping as long as the lower students are making progress and not having everything interpreted. However, if you feel that the native language use is hindering English learning, set ground rules for the entire class regarding when and why and how much native language can be spoken.

7.6.4 If Classes are Too Big or Too Diverse

Discuss options with program leaders like bringing in volunteer assistants or splitting classes. Although such solutions may seem unlikely, it doesn't hurt to ask.

7.6.5 If You Get Burned Out

It's impossible to cater to all the needs of every student, especially beyond the classroom. If you are drained by students relying heavily on you for assistance in other areas of their lives, you can make appropriate referrals and guide students toward being more independent. If your burnout stems from complex lesson planning, take a break for a potluck or other fun, non-lesson class session.

CONCLUSIONS

After analyzing the whole context related to the teaching-learning process among young learners, I can state the following conclusions:

The teaching-learning process of English among young adults involves some important aspects either inside or outside each person. Every person has a different reaction to this process that is directly related to his/her motivation.

External factors which have to do with this process are: the environmental conditions, the material used, the place where they study, among others.

The main goal of the teaching-learning process of English is to develop the communicative competence among the students, so they will be able to express their ideas as well as to understand what is said by the others.

Every skill that is going to be taught and learned has its own properties. For example, students show a resistance to speak because they have never spoken in English before, so they are afraid of making mistakes in front of their classmates.

The teaching-learning process has to take into account the culture of the target language since students not only learn structures but also the cultural variations which have to be compared between both languages.

The teaching-learning process depends greatly on the teacher's experience since he/she has the control of the class. So the teacher has to be creative enough to keep the students' attention.

There is an obvious interference from the native language at the moment of learning the different skills of English, problem that has to be attacked all the time by the teacher inside the class.

RECOMMENDATIONS

First of all, it is necessary to know and understand the teaching-learning process among young learners as a whole in order to be aware of the different aspects involved, and to plan the lessons according to each of the skills to be taught.

Secondly, it is a good idea to know the students, their level of English, their attitude on the subject, their motivation, the place where they come from, etc, because the activities to be developed into the classroom by the teacher have to consider every factor, so the students will feel taken into account during this process.

The teachers have to pay special attention to the students' participation to identify what exactly are the problems they have at the moment of communicating their ideas and understanding what the other say.

The teachers have to plan their English classes taking into account students' difficulties on the different skills, it means including extra activities to reinforce their apprenticeship whether inside or outside the class.

The classroom should have the necessary resources to develop a complete transmission of the language. The teacher should be able to use new audio

visual material by using a projector, a TV, a tape recorder, a computer, or the Internet.

Finally, teachers have to research for more information on this matter to be adapted and used by the students.

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