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**BLOCK 3: The development of receptive and productive
skills in English**

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Unit 7.

Oral and written English. Implications for the development of skills as framed within linguistic multicompetence: perspectives for practice.

NOTE: All the references used in this material appear in full in the final section (*Selected References*), together with other relevant sources.

UNIT 7. SCHEDULE (1)

OBJECTIVES

I. CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

II. SPEECH AND WRITING

PRÁCTICA I (in class). Analysis of samples of written and spoken texts

III. IN THE CLASSROOM: SEGREGATED SKILLS vs. INTEGRATION OF SKILLS

I.V. TEACHING RECEPTIVE SKILLS: READING AND LISTENING

IV.1. What are receptive skills?

IV.2. Cognitive models applied to receptive skills

IV.2.1. Human Information-Processing System

IV.2.2. Bottom-up and top-down processes

IV.2.3. Interaction between bottom-up and top-down processing

IV.3. General types of listening and reading

IV.3.1. Extensive reading and listening

IV.3.2. Intensive reading and listening

IV.4. Authenticity of texts

UNIT 7. SCHEDULE (2)

IV.5. Reading and listening (sub)skills [see VI]

IV.5.1. Reading and listening to confirm expectations

A Basic Methodological Model for the Teaching of the Receptive Skills

IV.5.2. Reading and listening for general understanding: skimming

IV.5.3. Reading and listening for specific information: scanning

IV.5.4. Reading and listening for detailed information

IV.5.5. Inferring meaning from context

IV.5.6. Interpreting text

IV.5.7. Criticisms to the teaching of skimming, scanning and meaning inference

IV.6. Activity types for reading and listening

UNIT 7. SCHEDULE (3)

V. TEACHING PRODUCTIVE SKILLS (SPEAKING AND WRITING)

V.1. What are productive skills?

V.2. Characteristics of productive skills

V.2.1. Structuring discourse

V.2.2. Rules

V.2.3. Styles and genres

V.2.4. Interaction with an audience

V.3. Reception and production

V.4. Main cognitive processes involved in productive skills

V.5. SPEAKING

V.5.1. Problems with speaking activities

V.5.2. Speaking characteristics

V.5.2.1. Connected speech

V.5.2.2. Expressive devices

V.5.2.3. Lexis and grammar

V.5.2.4. Negotiation of language

V.5.3. Specific speaking processes

V.5.3.1. Cognitive: (on-the-spot) factual information processing

V.5.3.2. Psycholinguistic: language processing and formulation process

V.5.3.3. Physical: articulation process

V.5.3.4. Communicative: interaction

UNIT 7. SCHEDULE (4)

V. TEACHING PRODUCTIVE SKILLS (SPEAKING AND WRITING)

V.5.4. Types of spoken discourse and related pedagogical techniques

V.5.5. Types of speaking activities and underlying cognitive processes

V.5.5.1. Objective: Language practice. Focus: accuracy

Drills

Dialogues

Communicative games

Questionnaires

V.5.5.2. Objective: Language practice. Focus: accuracy and fluency

Information gap activities

Questionnaires (extended utterances)

Simulations

Roleplays

V.5.5.3. Objective: Spoken production. Focus: fluency

Questionnaires (extended utterances)

Simulations (extended utterances)

Role plays (extended utterances)

Prepared talks

Discussion

V.5.6. Roles of teachers in speaking activities

UNIT 7. SCHEDULE (5)

V. TEACHING PRODUCTIVE SKILLS (SPEAKING AND WRITING)

V.3. WRITING

V.3.1. Essential characteristic of writing

V.3.2. Writing conventions

V.3.3. Characteristics of L2 writers

V.3.4. Teaching objectives and underlying cognitive processes

V.3.4.1. Writing as a means

V.3.4.2. Writing as an end

V.3.4.3. Writing as a means and as an end

V.3.4.4. PRÁCTICA II (in class). Classify writing activities as writing as an end in itself, writing as a means and end and writing as a means

V.3.5. Teaching approaches in writing

V.3.5.1. Product approach

V.3.5.2. Process approach

V.3.6. Role of teachers in writing activities

VI. A BRIEF NOTE ON STUDY SKILLS: ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES IN POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION

OBJECTIVES:

- **Theoretical/practical:**
 - To offer the students an overview on the differences between speech and writing and their pedagogical implications
 - To offer the students an overview of latest teaching trends in the four skills: approaches, types of (sub)skills/strategies and activities
 - To instruct the students about the cognitive processes involved in each activity type for the teaching of skills
- **Practical:**
 - To supply the students with the necessary analytical skills to discern the pedagogical and cognitive objectives of skill activity types for a founded and timely implementation in the classroom

I. CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Essential requirement:

Communicative efficiency/competence on the part of the speakers/writers

Why do two (or more people) engage in talking and writing to each other?

E.g. someone having a private conversation, politician giving a speech to thousands, schoolteacher...

Speaker/writer:

- a) Wants to say something**
- b) Has communicative purpose**
- c) Selects from language store**

Listener/reader

- d) Wants to listen to something**
- e) Is interested in the communicative purpose of what is being said**
- f) Processes a variety of language**

Most (spoken) communication involves an information gap, i.e. the listener does not know a specific item of information (a gap), which is filled in by the speaker

Even if listeners have some idea about the purpose of communication, they must listen to make sure they know what it is.

A. Excuse me.

B. Yes?

A. Do you have a watch?

B. Yes... Why?

A. I wonder if you could tell me what the time is?

B. Certainly... It's three o'clock.

A. Thank you.

B. Don't mention it.

(Harmer, 1991: 48)

II. SPEECH AND WRITING

1) Which are the most immediate differences between speech and writing strictly speaking? (From Flowerdew and Miller, 2005)

- **Speech: fragmented (loosely structured) and involved (interactive with the listener)**
e.g. casual conversation
- **Writing: integrated (densely structured) and detached (lacking in interaction with the listener)**
e.g. academic research article
- **But also: intermediate genres**
 - How “spoken” and how “written” is an academic lecture?
 - How “spoken” and how “written” is chatting on the messenger?
 - Some spoken texts (e.g. news broadcasts) are even more “written” than some written texts (e.g. postcards or informal/neutral e-mails)

2) More detailed differences between speech and writing:

a) Permanence

b) Explicitness

c) Density

d) Detachment

e) Linguistic and discursive devices

(see Word file named as SPEECH_WRITING_DIFFERENCES_UNIT 7)

3) PRÁCTICA I (in class)

Analysis of samples of written and spoken texts

(from Ur, 1996: 160)

4) PRACTICAL TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

- **Teaching writing:**

Special attention to *cohesion and coherence* (how sentences are bound up together to form paragraphs, how paragraphs are joined together, and how ideas are organised into coherent pieces of written discourse)

- **Teaching speech:**

- a) **training students in disregarding redundancy, etc.;**

- b) **training students in getting the message of the text;**

- c) **training students to actually sound like (near)native speakers (although some authors would argue against that!; see Harmer, 2001: 245)**

- **Also: information gap activities**

AN ILLUSTRATION OF AN INFORMATION GAP ACTIVITY:

JIGSAW LISTENING (also for reading)

“Jigsaw listening is the term popularised by Marion Geddes and Gill Sturtridge to describe an activity in which different students get different information from different listening passages which they then have to share in order to perform some kind of task. In other words three students may each listen to a taped conversation. The conversation they listen to is different in each case (each person listens to only one conversation) thus giving each student a different piece of a ‘jigsaw’. The students then join together to use their ‘pieces’ to put the jigsaw together”.

(Harmer, 1991: 222)

EXAMPLE:

- UFO (Harmer, 2001: 237-238)
- Level: upper-intermediate (Nivel Avanzado de EEOOII)
- Advantages:
 - resembling real-life communication (interaction and **skill integration** of listening and speaking; see slides 15-17);
 - group work
- Disadvantages:
 - difficult to implement in the classroom

III. IN THE CLASSROOM: SEGREGATED SKILLS vs. INTEGRATION OF SKILLS

(Adapted from Harmer (1991) and Oxford (2001))

1) Segregated skills

- **Traditional ESL/EFL programs: Mastery of** discrete language skills: skills are separate and should be treated as such.
- Why?
- Teachers and administrators think it is logistically easier to present courses on writing divorced from speaking, or on listening isolated from reading. They may believe that it is instructionally impossible to concentrate on more than one skill at a time.
- **BUT:**
- This approach would not ensure adequate preparation for later success in academic communication, career-related language use, or everyday interaction in the language

2) Integration of skills

- One skill cannot normally be performed without another
- People use different skills when dealing with the same subject for many reasons.
E.g. listening to a lecture and taking notes; reading such notes to write a report; or listening to the lecture and taking notes so that you can later tell to your colleagues and follow it up by reading an article
- In teaching:
 - a) Activities may focus on an individual skill (e.g. teaching listening and reading strategies/subskills)
 - b) The same experience or topic leads to the use of many different skills (e.g. students might be asked to write on the basis of previous listening, reading, or speaking).



INTEGRATION OF SKILLS

This principle is important and should always be taken into account (Criado-Sánchez, 2008; Cunningsworth, 1984, 1994; Harmer, 1991, 2001; Nation & Newton, 2002; Oxford, 2001; Sánchez, 1997, 2009)

- Oxford (2001):
 - Integration of skills allows teachers to track students' progress in multiple skills at the same time.
 - Integrating the language skills also promotes the learning of real content, not just the dissection of language forms.
 - Two types of integrated-skill instruction:
 - Content-based language instruction (CBI; USA) or Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL; Europe): learning content through language
 - Task-based instruction: doing tasks that require communicative language use (e.g. buying a plane ticket, doing a project such as ways to eradicate global warming). See Unit 9

In this course, we will look at both types of trends:

1) Focusing on individual skills (subskills/strategies)

2) Integrating skills (focus on one skill leads to the practice of another or others).

IV. TEACHING RECEPTIVE SKILLS (READING AND LISTENING)

(Adapted from Harmer, 1991, 2001; Hedge, 2000; Flowerdew and Miller, 2005; Nuttall, 1996)

IV.1. What are receptive skills?

“Receptive skills are the ways in which people extract meaning from the discourse they see or hear” (Harmer, 2001: 199)

Generalities that affect both reading and listening, but significant differences between the two types of processes and the ways in which they can be taught in the classroom.

IV.2. Cognitive models applied to receptive skills

IV.2.1. Human Information-Processing System (from Flowerdew and Miller, 2005: 24-25)

Sensory memory in listening: through the ear (sound waves)

Sensory memory in reading: through the eye

[Remember the differences between speech and writing (detachment)]

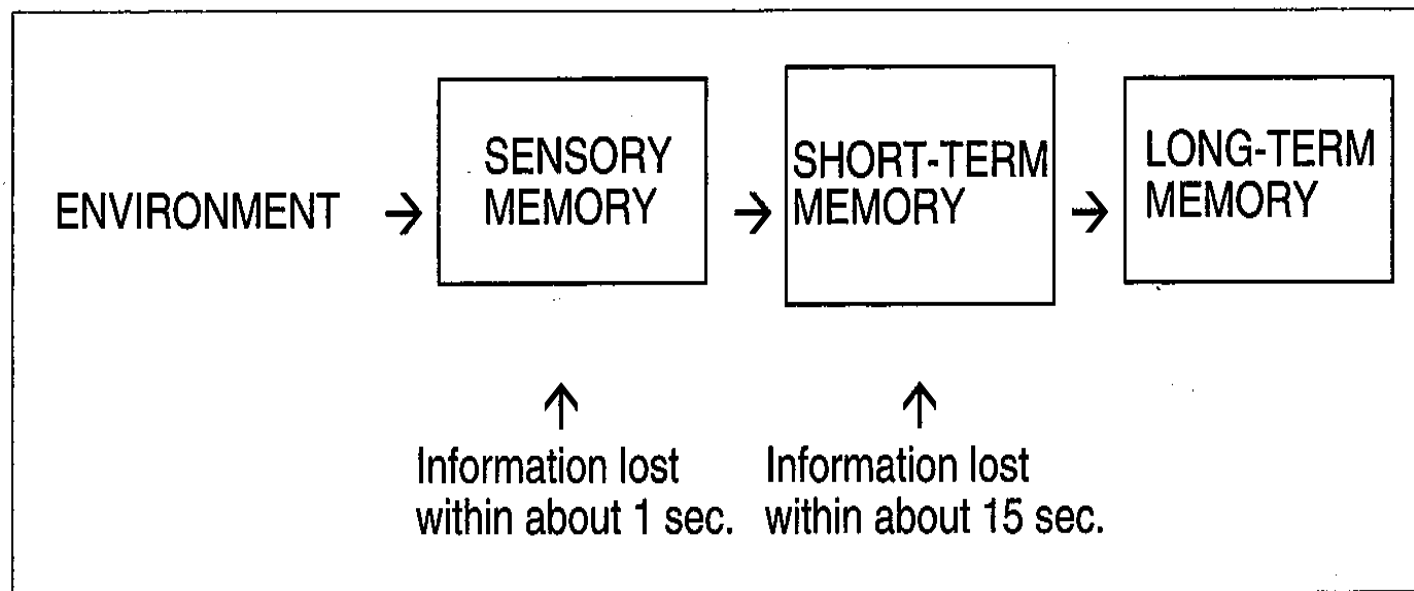


Figure 2.1 The human information-processing system

(From Flowerdew and Miller, 2005: 24). See handouts with the explanation of this model)

IV.2.2. Bottom-up and top-down processes (from Harmer, 1991, 2001 and Nuttall, 1996)

BOTTOM-UP PROCESSING (from Nuttall, 1996)

- The reader or listener focuses on individual words and phrases, and achieves understanding by stringing these detailed elements together to build up a whole.
- We can make conscious use of it when we do not really believe that the apparent message was really what the writer intended to transmit. This can happen because our world knowledge is inadequate, or if the writer's point of view is very different from our own.
- So we have to scrutinise the vocabulary and syntax to make sure we have grasped the sense correctly.
- E.g.
Hurricane... coast... Florida... damaged property... families homeless (Hedge, 2000: 230)

TOP-DOWN PROCESSING (1) (From Harmer, 2001 and Nutall, 1996)

- The reader or listener gets a general view of the reading or listening passage by, in some way, absorbing the overall picture.
- Key role of *schema* (plural: *schemata*). Other terms: *frame, script, scenario*. Cover term: *schemata*
 - pre-existing knowledge of the world that we apply to make sense of the text.
 - listeners and readers apply contextual knowledge to the interpretation of an utterance and written fragments by means of *pre-established patterns of knowledge and discourse structure stored in memory*.
- Types of schemata:
 - Genre and text type schemata
 - External world knowledge schemata

TOP-DOWN PROCESSING (2)

Why are schemata useful at all?

Schemata allow us:

- a) to have appropriate expectations of what we are going to come across
- b) to predict what is likely to happen in the text
- c) knowledge of the macrostructure of a text should compensate for problems located at the microstructure (e.g. sound discrimination, syntax, semantics)
- d) In other words, without the right kind of schemata, comprehension becomes much more difficult

Example: British newspaper headline “England in six-wicket collapse”. (Harmer, 2001: 199).

IV.2.3. INTERACTION BETWEEN BOTTOM-UP AND TOP-DOWN PROCESSING

- **In practice, a reader/listener adopts a top-down approach to predict the probable meaning, then moves to a bottom-up approach to check whether that is really what the writer says.**
- **What about linguistic levels? (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005):**
 - **Beginners would tend to spend more time on developing basic bottom-up skills of decoding**
 - **Advanced learners would tend to develop top-down skills of applying schematic knowledge, although even advanced learners need to work on bottom-up features of written texts and fast aural speech**

Summary of the cognitive and pedagogical aspects to take into account in teaching receptive skills according to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment (CEF)* (2001: 91-92)

Complete the gaps with the key words of section IV.2.

4.5.2.2. Reception

The receptive process involves four steps which, while they take place in linear sequence (____), are constantly updated and reinterpreted (____) in the light of real world knowledge, schematic expectations and new textual understanding in a subconscious ____ process.

IV.3. General types of listening and reading: intensive and extensive

Intensive type:

- listening to a small amount of material many times
- frequently done with the help and/or intervention of the teacher (in class)
- concentrated, focusing on receptive skills as a study goal

√ To develop grammar, speech, pronunciation, rhetorical and discursive patterns

E.g.

- “What is the speaker’s favourite Italian dish? (listening for specific information)
- “Does the speaker generally have a positive or negative opinion of Italian food?” (listening for general understanding or gist)
- “What adjectives does the speaker use to describe Italian food?” (language features as the main point)

(Examples taken from <http://www.tefl.net/forums/viewtopic.php?f=2&t=1304>)

IV.3. General types of listening and reading

Extensive type:

- **students are on their own and read or listen at length, often for pleasure and in a leisurely way, without stopping at every unknown word**
- **E.g.** watching a film, understanding and enjoying the story; or listening and carrying out instructions.
- **Materials:** Audio articles, audio books, movie scenes, speeches, novels or graded readers, magazines
- √ To develop automatic recognition of words when seen or listened to
- √ To develop active and passive vocabulary (= native speakers)
- √ To improve overall comprehension skills
- √ To raise motivation

Don't "study" the language-- dance with it. Enjoy it.

(<http://effortlessenglish.vox.com/library/post/intensive-listening-extensive-reading.html>)

IV.4. Authenticity of texts

- **Authentic material is language produced for native speakers: what our students will encounter in real-life, as opposed to simplified, spoken slowly, or fully simplistic in content**
- **But:**
authentic material carelessly chosen can be extremely de-motivating for students!
- **For not advanced levels, specially beginners: roughly-tuned language from the teacher or **graded readers and listeners** (specially designed texts from language teaching and not language teaching materials authors).**
- **Simplified language but approximate to authentic language use**

LEARNER DIFFICULTIES IN LISTENING (Ur, 110: 111)

Can you think of any possible solutions?

- 1. I have trouble catching the actual sounds of foreign language.**
- 2. I have to understand every word; if I miss something, I feel I am failing and get worried and stressed.**
- 3. I can understand people if they talk slowly and clearly; I can't understand native-sounding speech.**
- 4. I need to hear things more than once in order to understand.**
- 5. I find it difficult to 'keep up' with all the information I am getting and cannot think ahead or predict.**
- 6. If the listening goes on a long time I get tired, and find it more and more difficult to concentrate.**

IV.5. Reading and listening (sub)skills/strategies [see VI] (Adapted from Harmer, 1991 and 2001)

Reading a poem and listening to a poem entail different reading processes than looking for someone's number in the telephone directory and when we are listening to a spoken 'alert' message in the airport.

IV.5.1. Reading and listening to confirm expectations

- The Empire State Building (Harmer, 1991: 191)
 - Level: intermediate (B1; 2^o *Bachillerato* students or *Nivel Intermedio de EEOOII*)
 - What type of reading cognitive process is emphasised?
Top-down (schemata related to the Empire State Building)
- Great emphasis on the **lead-in stage**:
 - to create expectations and arouse interest and to familiarise themselves with the topic of the aural or written text)
 - to encourage students to predict the content of the text , which gives them an interesting and motivating purpose for reading

A BASIC METHODOLOGICAL MODEL FOR THE TEACHING OF THE RECEPTIVE SKILLS (Harmer, 1991)

- a) Lead-in**
- b) T directs comprehension task**
- c) Ss listen/read for task**
- d) T directs feedback**
- e) T directs text-related task (= follow-up task)**

IV.5.2. Reading and listening for general understanding: SKIMMING

- Running your eyes over a text to get a quick idea of the gist of a text.
- Good readers and listeners are able to take in a stream of discourse and understand the gist of it without worrying too much about the details.
- Not stopping for every word, not analysing everything that the writer or speaker includes in the text

E.g. to decide whether a research paper is relevant to our own work

- ***English File Upper Intermediate (2001). O.U.P. File 6C. Activity 5a from Listen Better B, p. 98 (“What have all the three songs in common?”)***
 - Level: upper intermediate (Nivel Avanzado de EEOOII)
 - What type of skill activity is this one?
Unfocused
 - What type of general cognitive process underlies this activity?
Proceduralisation and automatisisation: development of listening and speaking skills ‘per se’ instead of declarativisation (or focus on language items)

IV.5.3. Reading and listening for specific information: SCANNING

Glancing rapidly through a text either to search for a specific piece of information

(e.g. a

name, a data) or to get an initial impression of whether the text is suitable for a given

purpose (e.g. whether a book on gardening deals with a particular plant disease). We

almost ignore all the other information until we come to the specific item we are

looking

for. (Harmer, 2001)

E.g. listen to news, only concentrating on a item of information;

reading a film review to find out film director

- *English File Upper Intermediate (2001). O.U.P. File 6C. Activity 5a from Listen Better B, p. 98 (“Write the names of the three songs”).*
 - Level: upper intermediate (Nivel Avanzado de EEOOII)
 - What type of skill activity is this one?
Unfocused
 - What type of general cognitive process underlies this activity?
Proceduralisation and automatisisation: development of listening and speaking skills ‘per se’ instead of declarativisation (or focus on language items)

IV.5.4. Reading and listening for detailed information

- Sometimes we read and listen in order to understand everything we are reading in detail.

E.g. written/aural instructions or directions, flight announcement in an airport

- *English File Upper Intermediate* (2001). O.U.P. File 6C. Activity 5b from *Listen Better B*, p. 98
 - Level: upper intermediate (Nivel Avanzado de EEOOII)
 - What type of skill activity is this one?
Unfocused
 - What type of general cognitive process underlies this activity?
Proceduralisation and automatisisation (development of listening and speaking skills 'per se' instead of declarativisation or focus on language items)

IV.5.5. Inferring meaning from context

- *English File Upper Intermediate. File 6C. Activity 1e from Read Better.*
 - Level: upper intermediate (Nivel Avanzado de EEOOII)
 - What type of skill activity is this one?
Focused
 - What type of general cognitive process underlies this activity?
Declarativisation (text used as vocabulary presentation)

IV.5.6. Interpreting text

- Readers and listeners are able to see beyond the literal meaning of words in a passage, using a variety of clues to understand what the writer or speaker is implying or suggesting.
- E.g. *English File Upper Intermediate* (2001). Oxford: O.U.P. File 6C. Listen Better, activity 2c, p. 97
 - Level: upper intermediate (nivel avanzado de EEOOII)
 - What type of skill activity is this one?
Unfocused
 - What type of general cognitive process underlies this activity?
Proceduralisation and automatisisation: development of listening and speaking skills 'per se' instead of declarativisation (or focus on language items in text presentation)

IV.5.7. Criticisms to the teaching of skimming, scanning and meaning inference in reading

- Supplementary information
- Read Kerr, P. (2009). Skimming, scanning and inferring. *IATEFL Voices*, 211, 6-7. (Available at the photocopy shop in Aulario)
 - Against: Walter, C. & Swan, M. (2008). Teaching reading skills: mostly a waste of time? In B. Beaven (Ed.), *IATEFL 2008 Exeter Conference Selections* (pp. 70-71). Canterbury: IATEFL
 - In favour: Kerr, P. (2009). Skimming, scanning and inferring. *IATEFL Voices*, 211, 6-7.

IV.5.6. Activity types for listening and reading

(supplementary information. Handouts are available at the photocopy shop in Aulario)

- Activity types for listening: Ur, 113-114
- Activity types for reading: Ur, 146

V. TEACHING PRODUCTIVE SKILLS (SPEAKING AND WRITING)

V.1. What are productive skills?

Productive skills are the ways in which people express meanings in an aural or written medium. (Harmer, 2001: 246)

V.2. Characteristics of productive skills (Harmer, 2001: 246-248)

Speaking and writing are different in many ways, but several language processes are the same.

V.2.1. Structuring discourse

- **Speech:** conversational patterns, lexical phrases, pre-fixed or semi-fixed word strings → lexical approaches which emphasise the importance of lexis in communication
- **Writing:** fewer formulaic phrases are found, thus writing has to be both cohesive and coherent.
 - **Cohesion:** various linguistic ways of connecting ideas across phrases and sentences; e.g. pronouns, lexical repetition, synonymy to refer to ideas already expressed; linkers to express addition (*also, moreover*), contrast (*although, however, still*), cause and effect (*therefore, so*), and time (*then, afterwards*).
 - **Coherence:** a property of texts which by which we can follow the sequence of ideas and points.

V.2.2. Rules

Our *shared* schemata of rules of conversation and writing conventions help us to communicate with each other successfully.

V.2.2.1. Sociocultural rules

- Levels of formality in different situations
- Kinaesthetics
- Gender role
- Social and professional status
- Speech events such as invitation

V.2.2.2. Turn-taking

How participants in conversations obtain their chance to speak by verbal or visual cues

V.2.2.3. Rules for writing

Different rules when chatting on the Internet, when writing letters of application, when writing in newspapers or fiction...



V.2.3. Styles and genres

- We can operate within sociocultural rules because we know about different styles and recognise different written and spoken genres and different levels of formality and intimacy
- Remember from slides 9, 10, 11:
 - purpose for communication, channel (speech or writing), genres
E.g. giving facts (purpose) through the speech channel in two different genres: lecture and informal chatting
 - characteristics of speech and writing
- Pedagogical implication:
Students need practice at different styles, genres and levels of formality and intimacy so that they are able to vary their grammar, vocabulary and functions accordingly.

V.2.4. Interaction with an audience

- As proficient L1 and L2 speakers, we should be able to speak differentially, depending on our audience and on our way to absorb their reaction and to respond to it.
- As proficient L1 and L2 speakers, we should be able to change our style and structure to suit the person or people we are writing for.

V.3. Reception and production

The teaching of productive skills is closely linked to receptive skill work.

- Aural and written texts as models (imitated by students)
- Texts as stimuli: language production resulting from previous aural or written texts
- Reception as part of production (integration of skills; remember slides 15-17)
- Role of Comprehensible Output (remember Unit 6, slide 18)

V.4. Main cognitive processes involved in productive skills

- DEC (explicit knowledge) and PRO (implicit knowledge) (slides 11 and 12 in Unit 6)
- **Speaking:** In real-time communication, learners are obliged to take quick decisions about production and interpretation, with **hardly any time to consult explicit rule knowledge or to consider specific word meaning.**
- In **writing**, learners have an opportunity to interpret texts and to consider what they want to express and how. Thus learners should be encouraged to draw on **both implicit and explicit knowledge** of rules, as well as other resources (e.g. dictionaries, grammar reference books, etc.).

V.3. Speaking

V.3.1. Problems with speaking activities (Ur, 1996: 121)

- a) Inhibition**
- b) Nothing to say**
- c) Low or uneven participation**
- d) Mother-tongue use**

Possible solutions:

- a) Use group work**
- b) Base the activity on “easy” language**
- c) Make a careful choice of topic and task to stimulate interest**
- d) Give some instruction or training in discussion skills**
- e) Keep students speaking the target language**

V.5.2. Speaking characteristics (Harmer, 2001)

V.5.2.1. Connected speech

I would have gone → **I'd've gone**

Assimilation (rock'n'roll; "I gotta feeling"); omission (I can't dance: /aika:nda:ns/), etc.

V.5.2.2. Expressive devices

Suprasegmental (pitch, stress, volume, speed) and paralinguistic devices
(physical/non-verbal)

V.5.2.3. Lexis and grammar (see SPEECH_WRITING_DIFFERENCES_TEMA 7 file)

V.5.2.4. Negotiation of language

Effective speaking benefits from the "negotiatory" language we use to seek clarification and to show the structure of what we are saying:

(I'm sorry) I didn't quite catch that.

(I'm sorry) I don't understand.

What exactly does X mean?

Could you explain that again, please?

The importance thing to grasp is that...

To begin with, ...

V.5.3. Specific speaking processes

V.5.3.1. Cognitive: (on-the-spot) factual information processing

V.5.3.2. Psycholinguistic: language processing/formulation process

V.5.3.3. Physical: articulation process

V.5.3.4. Communicative: interaction

V.5.3.1. Cognitive: (on-the-spot) factual information processing

(On-the-spot) factual information processing

V.5.3.2. Psycholinguistic: language processing and formulation process

- Retrieval of words and phrases from memory so that they are assembled into syntactically and propositionally appropriate sequences.
- FORMULATION PROCESS in *CEF* (2001: 91)

The formulation component takes the output from the planning component and assembles it into linguistic form. This involves lexical, grammatical, phonological (and in the case of writing, orthographic) processes which are distinguishable and appear (e.g. in cases of dysphasia) to have some degree of independence but whose exact interrelation is not fully understood.

V.5.3. Specific speaking processes

V.5.3.3. Physical: articulation process

Articulation process in *CEF* (2001: 91):

“The *articulation component* organises *the* motor innervation of the vocal apparatus to convert the output of the phonological processes into co-ordinated movements of the speech organs to produce a train of speech waves constituting the spoken utterance, or alternatively the motor innervation of the musculature of the hand to produce handwritten or typewritten text”.

V.5.3.4. Communicative: interaction

Effective speaking involves a good deal of listening, an understanding of how the other participants are feeling, and linguistic knowledge referred to how to take turns and allow others to do so (see *CEF*, 2001: 92)

[Watch out: *CEF* considers formulation and articulation as *communicative language processes* and not as psycholinguistic and physical processes]

V.5.4. Types of spoken discourse and related pedagogical techniques

(Ur, 1996: 130)

Types of spoken discourse:

1. Interactional use
2. Transactional use
3. Short turns (embedded in interactional use)
4. Long turns
5. Varied situations, feelings, relationships

Pedagogical techniques:

1. Interactional talk: some kinds of role play
2. Transactional talk: prepared talks
3. Long turns: telling stories, telling jokes, detailed description of people and places, short lectures or talks, arguing for and against, etc.
4. Varied situations, feelings, relationships: simulations and role plays.

V.5.5. Types of speaking activities and underlying cognitive processes

**V.5.5.1. Objective: Language practice.
Focus: accuracy**

**V.5.5.2. Objective: Language practice.
Focus: accuracy and fluency**

**V.5.5.3. Objective: Spoken production.
Focus: fluency**

V.5.5.1. Objective: Language practice. Focus: accuracy

- Main level: beginner, elementary and low-intermediate
- Possible types of activities:

- Drills (see Unit 6, slides 22-23)

- Dialogues (Ur, 1996: 131-132)

A: Look, it's stopped raining!

B: So it has! Do you want to go out?

A: Yes, I've got a lot of shopping to do.

B: Right, let's go. Where do you want to go first?

- A way to practise target-language utterances without hesitation and within a wide variety of contexts

- Motivating activity for beginners

- Learning by heart increases learner's vocabulary of ready-made combinations of words or 'formulae'.

- Which general cognitive processes are encouraged?

- Inductive declarativisation (rule and vocabulary knowledge) and

- starting of proceduralisation (form-meaning links in long term memory, since students learn exchanges contextualised in a situation; they need to know suitable replies and their utterances have to make sense within such a situation).

V.5.5.1. Objective: Language practice. Focus: accuracy

- Possible types of activities:

- Drills

- Dialogues

- Communicative games (remember the information gap principle)

- Quizzes

Who was the first man on the moon?

What was the name of the last American president?

When were the Seoul Olympics?

- *Twenty Questions* (yes/no answers; 'Can you use it in the kitchen?'; Is it smaller than a person?')

- Questionnaires

V.5.5.1. Objective: Language practice. Focus: accuracy

- Possible types of activities
 - Drills
 - Dialogues
 - Communicative games (remember the information gap principle)
 - Quizzes
 - Twenty Questions
 - Questionnaires

E.g. Films

NAME OF FILM	Tick if seen	Tick if		
		good	satisfactory	bad

- Practice of the present perfect and past simple tenses (e.g. “have you seen Ben-Hur?”; “Did you like it?”)
- Oral and written skill integration

Thus: information gap activities are drills with a slightly communicative element → more motivating than drills

V.5.5.2. Objective: Language practice. Focus: accuracy and fluency

[depending on the students' level and the emphasis on language]

- **Possible types of activities:**
 - **Information gap activities (extended utterances). See V.5.5.1**
 - **Questionnaires (extended utterances. E.g. “Why didn’t you like Ben-Hur?”). See V.5.5.1**
 - **Simulations. See V.5.5.3**
 - **Roleplays. See V.5.5.3**
- **Which cognitive process is being encouraged in this activity?**

Proceduralisation (form-meaning links in long term memory). Later stages: no attention to form but to meaning in fluent communication

V.5.5.3. Objective: Spoken production. Focus: fluency

- Main level: upper-intermediate and beyond
- Activity types
 - Questionnaires (extended utterances. E.g. “Why didn’t you like Ben-Hur?”). See V.5.5.1.
 - Simulations (extended utterances) (see next slide)
 - Role plays (extended utterances) (see next slide)
 - Prepared talks: a presentation on a topic of the student’s choice
 - Discussion. See *English File Upper Intermediate*, File 6A, activity 7b, p. 90
- Which cognitive processes are encouraged in these activities? Proceduralisation and automatisisation

V.5.5.3. Objective: Spoken production. Focus: fluency

- Level: upper-intermediate and beyond
- Activity types
 - Questionnaires (extended utterances. E.g. “Why didn’t you like Ben-Hur?”). See V.5.5.1.
 - Simulations

You are the managing committee of a special school for blind children. You want to organize a summer camp for the children, but your school budget is insufficient.

Decide how you might raise the money (Ur, 1996: 132)

- Students “simulate” the real world behaving as themselves.
- The individual participants speak and react as themselves, but the group role, situation and task they are given is an imaginary one.
- Role plays: students play a role, pretending to be someone that they are not. Students are given information about the participants roles (who they are, what they think and what they feel)

E.g. *Knife in the school* (Harmer, 1991: 138).

- Level: upper intermediate (Nivel Avanzado de EEOOII)

The key for good teaching praxis is a balanced and eclectic use of different types of activities depending on the students' level and their learning stage in their process of knowledge attainment

V.5.6. Roles of teacher in speaking activities

(Harmer, 2001)

- a) Prompter (supportively!)
- b) Participant (see yourself as an animator!)
- c) Feedback provider: when should students be corrected and how? In the middle of an activity? At the end? Consider both form and message and be gentle!

V.4. Writing

V.4.1. Essential characteristic of writing

Content and ideas should be emphasised, since the purpose of writing is the expression of ideas and the transmission of a message to a reader. However, the writer also needs to pay attention to formal aspects! (that is to say, neat handwriting, correct spelling and punctuation, as well as acceptable grammar and careful selection of vocabulary)

V.4.2. Writing conventions

- a) Differences between speech and writing (see file named as SPEECH_WRITING_DIFFERENCES_TEMA 7)
- b) Handwriting
- c) Spelling
 - Difficulties in English spelling
 - A single phoneme may have different spellings (paw, poor, pore, pour, daughter, Sean)
 - The same spelling may have many different sounds (or, word, information, worry, correspond)
 - Students should study listening transcripts and copy down sections
 - Which English variety? UK? USA?: apologise/apologize
 - Teachers should make clear which variety to focus on and to provide exposure to others
- d) Layout and punctuation
- e) Different writing communities (both between and within cultures) obey different punctuation and layout conventions in communications such as letters, reports, and publicity
 - E.g. openings in informal letters, use of commas, capitalisation

V.4.3. Characteristics of L2 writers (from Williams, 2005: 31-32)

Are the writing/composing processes of native speakers and L2 writers the same?

- **L2 writers are less fluent and accurate in their word selection and syntactic choices.**
- **L2 writers use their L1 at some point during composing, making the process less automatic.**
- **L2 writers spend less time planning. L2 writers, because they have to pay attention to language issues when they write, are unable to devote as much attention to global planning of their writing.**
- **L2 writers spend less time reviewing and revising their work and they do so less deeply, compared to native speakers, attending more to sentence-level errors.**
- **Low proficiency L2 learners tend to fix on surface-level features (such as grammatical choices and mechanics), rather than on rhetorical problems and audience awareness.**
- **Low proficiency L2 learners are often limited to retelling information from other texts and resources, as opposed to experienced L2 learners, who can also interpret and create new texts of their own.**
- **L2 writing proficiency is rooted in L2 linguistic knowledge, which is acquired primarily through exposure to input. Extensive reading would lead to increase writing proficiency, so writing should wait the development of substantial linguistic knowledge.**
- **Better L1 readers, better L1 writers (more exposure to input); better L2 readers, better L2 writers (more exposure to input).**
- **Benefits of reading for different aspects of the development of L2 ability: rule and vocabulary knowledge, writing proficiency.**

V.4.4. Writing teaching objectives and underlying cognitive processes

- Teaching objectives (Ur, 1996: 162).
 - Writing as a means:
E.g. *English File Upper Intermediate*, File 6C, activity PRACTICE a (p. 98)
 - Writing as an end:
E.g. *English File Upper Intermediate*, File 6A, activity 4c
 - Writing as a means and as an end:
E.g. *English File Upper Intermediate*, File 6C, activity PRACTICE b (p. 98)
- Which cognitive process underlies each of the types of writing above from *English File Upper Intermediate*?
 - Writing as a means
Declarativisation (language practice focused on consolidation of declarative knowledge. See Unit 6, slides 20, 22)
 - Writing as an end
Automatisation (see Unit 6, slide 24)
 - Writing as both a means and an end
Proceduralisation (see Unit 6, slides 21-23)

V.3.4.4. PRÁCTICA II (in class). Classify the following activities as writing as an end in itself, writing as a means and end and writing as a means (Ur, 1996: 163, 173)

- A. The sentences in the following paragraph have been jumbled. Write them out in the correct order. **MEANS**
- B. Finish the following sentences in a way that makes the underlined word clear. For example: *An expert is someone who...* **MEANS AND END**
- C. The following story is written in the present tense. Rewrite it in the past. **MEANS**
- D. We have come to an exciting point in the story. Write down what you think will happen next, and why. **MEANS AND END**
- E. For a survey on child education in this country: could you please state your main criticisms of the way you were brought up? **END**

V.4.5. Teaching approaches to writing

V.4.5.1. Product approach

V.4.5.2. Process approach

V.4.5.1. Product approach (from Williams, 2005: 32)

- Assumes that writing is a linear process, with writers starting at the beginning of a piece and writing straight through to the end
- Assumes that writing is a solitary process
- Emphasises correctness of the final text
- Focuses on the final product rather than on the processes that lead up to it; and
- Sees the teacher's role as a judge and corrector

V.4.5.2. Process approach (see Harmer, 2001, Hedge, 2000, Silva, 1993, White & Arndt, 1991, Williams, 2005, among others)

- Stresses the recursive nature of writing, writing as communication, the importance of audience, and the benefits of collaboration. L2 writers should write for a variety of purposes and for a diverse audience, not just for the teacher.
- Pays attention to the various stages of writing a text.
- Learners might use a variety of techniques for generating ideas, together, in pairs or on their own.
- Learners are encouraged to write multiple drafts.
- Between drafts, learners will often receive feedback from teacher and peers, which focuses on content and organisation and not simply on language forms.
- Writers are expected to actively and thoughtfully revise content and organisation based on such feedback.
- Also: attention to form, which some teachers delay until a later stage. Why do you think so?
- Can you think of any drawbacks of process approaches?
 - Authentic academic tasks are often timed
 - They take a lot of time in the classroom
 - They may ignore formal accuracy
- Example of process-approach (at least in consideration of audience and context): *English File Upper Intermediate, File 6A, activity 4c, p. 87*

In both writing approaches: example of coding system for correcting written work (Hedge, 2000: 316)

V.2.6. Roles of teacher in speaking activities

(Harmer, 2001):

a) Motivator

b) Resource: supply information and language when necessary

c) Feedback provider:

- When and how? During writing drafts or only in the final product?**
- Consider both form and message and be gentle!**

FOR A VERY DETAILED EXPLANATION OF TYPES OF ACTIVITIES FOR THE FOUR SKILLS, SEE CHAPTER IV, SECTION 3 (*TIPOLOGÍA DE ACTIVIDADES SEGÚN DESTREZAS*) IN SÁNCHEZ, A. (2004). *LA ENSEÑANZA Y APRENDIZAJE EN LA CLASE DE IDIOMAS*. Madrid: SGEL, S.A.

VI. A BRIEF NOTE ON STUDY SKILLS: ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES IN POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION)

- **listening and taking notes in lectures;**
- **speaking in seminars and presentations;**
- **reading a wide variety of texts and analysing complex sentences and authors' stance;**
- **writing coherent and cohesive assignments**

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