Ministerio de **Educación**

NATIONAL CURRICULUM SPECIFICATIONS

TEACHING AND LEARNING OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

LEVEL A1

EIGHTH–NINTH–TENTH YEAR EDUCACIÓN GENERAL BÁSICA (EGB)

FIRST–SECOND–THIRD YEAR BACHILLERATO

Ministerio
de **Educación**

LEVEL A1.1

CONTENTS

1. Introduction

The present specifications are a practical reference of minimum core content (i.e. functions, grammar, and vocabulary) to be studied in order to allow (1) to broaden the information given in the National Curriculum Guidelines and (2) to make the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) standards more tangible in Ecuadorian English classrooms.

The aim of these curriculum guidelines is to also support and guide the English teaching and learning processes by providing a set of methodological suggestions to apply the Communicative Language Teaching method and its techniques—both in and outside the classroom—so learners can gradually develop their B1 communicative language competence benchmark.

These specifications, however, do not attempt to tell teachers prescriptively what to teach because they do not replace a needs analysis or survey of students' interests. Rather, educators can judiciously select the text types and activities they consider most appropriate to meet the needs of their specific groups of learners.

Since the levels of proficiency proposed in the curriculum adjustment carried out by the Ministry of Education since 2012 (A1.1, A1.2, A2.1, A2.2, B1.1 and B1.2) have been gradually implemented, users of this document should carefully consider the information in the table below, which summarizes and facilitates an understanding of the aforementioned projected implementation process in the public educational system in Ecuador.

CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION PROJECTION							
Régimen Sierra (Highlands and the Amazon)							
Area	**School Year**	**2012-2013**	**2013-2014**	**2014-2015**	**2015-2016**	**2016-2017**	**2017-2018**
English as a Foreing Language	Eighth year EGB	Level A1.1		Level A1.1	Level A1.1	Level A1.1	Level A1.1
	Ninth year EGB			Level A1.2	Level A1.2	Level A1.2	Level A1.2
	Tenth year EGB		Level A1.2		Level A2.1	Level A2.1	Level A2.1
	First year EGB	Level A1.2		Level A2.1		Level A2.2	Level A2.2
	Second year EGB		Level A2.1		Level A2.2	Level B1.1	Level B1.1
	Third year EGB			Level A2.2			Level B1.2
Régimen Costa (Coast and the Galápagos Islands)							
Area	**School Year**	**2013-2014**	**2014-2015**	**2015-2016**	**2016-2017**	**2017-2018**	**2018-2019**
English as a Foreing Language	Eighth year EGB	Level A1.1		Level A1.1	Level A1.1	Level A1.1	Level A1.1
	Ninth year EGB			Level A1.2	Level A1.2	Level A1.2	Level A1.2
	Tenth year EGB		Level A1.2		Level A2.1	Level A2.1	Level A2.1
	First year EGB	Level A1.2		Level A2.1		Level A2.2	Level A2.2
	Second year EGB		Level A2.1		Level A2.2	Level B1.1	Level B1.1
	Third year EGB			Level A2.2			Level B1.2

2. Curriculum Specifications for English: Level A1.1

2.1 Educational Overall Objectives

By the end of level A1.1, students will be able to:

Linguistically:

- Have a very basic vocabulary repertoire of words and phrases related to their **personal**[1] and **educational**[2] background.

- Have limited control over few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a learned repertoire, which relates to their personal and educational background.

Sociolinguistically:

- Use basic expressions to impart and elicit factual information as well as socialize (e.g. greetings, addressing forms, introducing oneself and others, and saying 'good-bye', etc.).

Pragmatically:

- Link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like *and* or *or*.

2.2 Teaching and learning specifications

Level A1.1 students are expected to develop both skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and subskills not only to face communicative challenges in their immediate school and community environment, but also in the tasks and activities that a basic user of the English language carries out daily in his/her social and academic life under different conditions and restrictions[3].

Therefore, according to their age, level of knowledge (empirical and academic), and the language skills they develop, students should gradually be able to resort to different communicative and learning strategies to use English in writing and orally.

What it means is that since English communicative skills—in their **linguistic**, **sociolinguistic,** and **pragmatic** components—are developed through various language activities, those activities are "possible in relation to texts in oral or written form or both" (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 14).

In other words, in the personal, public, occupational and above all, educational domains, language learning involves doing tasks which require not only the use of the language, but also the processing of an oral or written text—e.g. when a student wants to translate a song, and therefore, uses a dictionary or asks his/her teacher a question. It is necessary, for that that one reason, to specify the **genre**[4] types of texts (authentic, pedagogical, student-made, manuals, etc.) that will assist language teachers in their class endeavors.

Another reason to specify genres is that different texts have very different purposes, they are written for different situations and have very different characteristics to which readers are sensitive. For instance, a

---

1. **Personal background:** *includes personal identification; house, home, and environment; daily life; free time and entertainment; and relations with other people (Trim, 2009).*
2. **Educational background:** *includes issues related to school and instruction—e.g. curricular subjects, classroom equipment, eductional roles, etc. (Trim, 2009).*
3. *According to the Council of Europe (2003), external conditions which impose various constraints on the user/learner and his/her interlocutors may be physical (e.g. clarity of pronunciation, noise, etc.), written (e.g. poor reproduction of print, difficult handwriting, etc.), and social (e.g. familiarity of interlocutors, relative status of participants, etc.).*
4. **Genres:** *in agreement with Brown (2007) and Hudson (2011) "genres" will be used in this document narrowly to refer to types or categories of written text representing ideal types that are recognizable in their use in language classrooms, even though traditional rhetoric identifies exposition, argument, description, and narration as four distinct types of discourse that are frequently termed genres (Fairclough, 1995), and moreover, the term genre has recently come to be used as a characterization of almost any pattern or event (i.e. the genre of the music video),*

text written for the purpose of advertising a new car is fundamentally different from a text that explains how that car works or a narrative that chronicles someone's adventure driving that car across the country (Duke & Bennett-Armistead, 2003).

Consequently, exposing learners to a variety of genres is wise because it is one of the dimensions of text (along with predictability, decidability and illustrations, etc.) that might influence the students' ability to read the text (Duke & Bennett-Armistead, 2003).

Finally, with the aid of the genres and text types below described, level A1.1 teachers should facilitate processes for **reception**[5], **production**[6], **interaction**[7], or **mediation**[8], which may ensure students' effective learning and use of English.

2.2.1 Specifications for Choosing Text Types

Within the personal and educational domains addressed in this level (A1.1), teachers should choose from a repertoire of text types such as simple *labels* (i.e. simple name tags affixed to people, items, or animals for identification), *messages* (i.e. phone messages and informal e-mails)**, *forms, ads*** (i.e. newspaper classifieds), *cards* (e.g. identification, membership, invitation, postcards, etc.), and *catalogs*, so that students develop a variety of communicative skills. All of them belong to a genre known as **informational**[9]; in agreement with Duke and Bennett-Armistead (2003), the reason to focus on informational texts in particular lies in a number of arguments that can be summarized as follows:

1. **Informational text is key to success in later schooling**: As learners move through every school year, they will find not only more textbooks but other forms of informational texts as well as tests and curricula that contain a variety of increasingly more difficult informational readings; thus, the more informational text is included in early schooling, the better position learners will find themselves in to be able to handle the reading and writing demands they encounter throughout their school careers.

2. **Informational text is prevalent in society**: Studies that address the kinds of things that people read and write outside of school (i.e. in their workplaces, homes, and communities) show strong evidence of a great deal of nonfiction, including informational text (Venezky, 1982; Smith, 2000 cited by Duke and Bennett- Armistead, 2003). Additionally, 96% of the text in the World Wide Web is expository and therefore, if "we are going to prepare children for this world, we need to be serious about teaching them to read and write informational text" (Duke and Bennett-Armistead, 2003, p.21).

3. **Informational text is preferred reading material for some children:** Those learners who prefer informational text— i.e. "Info- Kids" (Jobe & Dayton-Sakari, 2002 cited by Duke and Bennett-Armistead, 2003) will greatly benefit from including more informational text in classrooms since that may improve attitudes toward reading and even serve as a catalyst for overall literacy development (Caswell & Duke, 1998 cited by Duke and Bennett-Armistead, 2003).

4. **Informational text often addresses children's interests and questions:** Independently from text preferences, learners' reading is likely to improve when the topic of the text is particularly interesting for them. Learners in general usually have real questions about their world and therefore, "including more informational text in classrooms may help us address the interests and questions of more of our

5. **Reception:** *According to the Council of Europe (2003) "receptive activities include silent reading and following the media. They are also important in many forms of learning (understanding course content, consulting textbooks, works of reference and documents" (p.14)*

6. **Production:** *According to the Council of Europe (2003), "Productive activities have an important function in many academic and professional fields (oral presentations, written studies and reports) and particular social value is attached to them…" (p.14)*

7. **Interaction:** *According to the Council of Europe (2003) "in interaction at least two individuals participate in an oral and/or written exchange in which production and reception alternate and may in fact overlap in oral communication" (p.14).*

8. **Mediation:** *According to the Council of Europe (2003) "written and/or oral activities of mediation make communication possible between persons who are unable, for whatever reason, to communicate with each other directly" (p. 14). Examples of mediation are translation or interpretation, a paraphrase, summary, etc.*

9. **Informational:** *Texts designed to convey information about something rather than tell or advance a narrative (http://www.edu-cation.com). They are characterized by the following features: (1) their primary purpose is to convey factual information about the natural and social world, (2) they typically address whole classes of things in a timeless way and (3) they come in many different formats—e.g. books, magazines, handouts, brochures, CD rooms and the internet (Duke & Bennett- Armistead, 2003)*

students" (Duke and Bennett-Armistead, 2003).

Furthermore, the texts to be chosen and understood will have to satisfy the following criteria:

- Have a clear structure, both conceptually and formally.
- The relevant information contained in them is exclusively or mainly offered explicitly.
- Their understanding presupposes little or no familiarity with specific features of a foreign culture.
- Their understanding is mostly confined to the comprehension of factual information.
- They will be related to the concrete personal and educational.

The reason students will be exposed to the aforementioned text types is that they need to able to identify and produce those texts by understanding (1) their common key features, (2) their style and format and (3) their communicational goal.

Finally, since the informational texts students are exposed to will have communicative outcomes aimed at a specific audience and objectives— but in general show structural regularities and require students to produce simple phrases or sentences—they will be grouped into two sets: informal and formal informational texts.

Informal texts

Labels

Short labels allow students to learn that words convey information and asking learners to place word labels on items (e.g. in the classroom, at home, in a store, etc.) helps them to build language skills through vocabulary learning.

Teachers can start by labeling students' desks with their names. Labels can also be put on furniture and objects around the class and school so that learners can familiarize with written forms (Cameron, 2001). Additionally, students should be encouraged to look at the labels and talk about what is on them.

Messages

Messages are individually written, informal methods of communication in which writing is kept to a minimum, and as a result, the information they convey must be as clear and unambiguous as possible.

They can also be characterized as short texts that (1) "go straight to the point", (2) allow us to record the key points of what we have seen, read, or heard, and (3) have no distracting information, such as too many **empty words**[10]—which help us make complete sense of a message but on their own are just meaningless.

Therefore, the value of messages lies in the fact that writing them allows learners to capture key information—there is not too much to read or remember and thus they are easier to refer to again. Moreover, as messages can be easily read, they may serve three purposes: one is to pass on information, another is to clarify things or raise questions and ideas, and finally, the other is to give students instructions.

Teachers may, for example, have an English message board in the classroom with simple statements like "Don't forget your Workbook on Friday", or any other message about class rules: "Keep the classroom clean", etc.

For relatively longer messages, pairs of students can work, for example, with different telephone **scenario**[11] **cards** and **telephone message pads**. One person may be asked to take on the role of phoning and the other to use the telephone message pad to take notes. Teachers should make sure students can ask for things to be repeated within reason (e.g. name of person, how to spell their name, times, and dates).

---

10. **Empty words:** *is another name used for function words which are terms that have little meaning on their own, but which show grammatical relationships in and between sentences. Some examples are conjunctions, prepositions and articles. (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.126)*

11. **Scenario:** *In strategic interaction (an approach to language instruction that calls upon learners to use the target language purposefully and skillfully in communicating with others), the scenario replicates real-life situations and requires language in order to reach a resolution. Students are assigned roles that oblige them to work out and implement personal game plans through dialogs with other role players. Students are always themselves, and personal agendas will inevitably differ, creating the dramatic tension that makes strategic interaction realistic and involving. (Di Pietro,1987)*

Afterwards, teachers should ask pairs to swap roles and use a second scenario and finally , select "volunteers" to write their messages on a flip chart (or on the board).

Formal texts

Forms

Along with invitations and ads, forms mostly consist of text. For working with them, teachers can simply hand out short personal information forms and review their format. They can elicit some information from students about what pieces of data are included in the forms they have received (e.g. students' name, address and phone number) and have learners fill them out.

If necessary, learners can copy information from other forms or teachers can model appropriate answers from classmates' information forms by asking one learner questions and have him/her answer. Furthermore, teachers can have learners work in pairs to ask and answer questions and demonstrate after they have practiced. As learners do it, teachers can circulate to make notes of any pronunciation problems that need to be reviewed with the class (Norquest College, 2010).

Also, they can divide learners into small groups and hand out a variety of forms to each team for students to look over for similarities and differences; teachers should point out that even though most forms have similar construction and format, and most ask for some information that is familiar, some of the information requested may not be familiar (Norquest College, 2010)—e.g. postal codes for other countries unlike Ecuador.

Cards

The use of **realia**[12] is suggested at this point; according to Brown (2007), "realia are probably the oldest form of classroom aid" (p. 193) and "their effectiveness in helping students to connect language to reality cannot be underestimated". Therefore, teachers are welcome to creatively make use of objects readily available at home or school.

They could, for instance, use samples of cards which are handy in their classrooms (e.g. student cards, ID cards, club membership cards, birthday cards, etc.) and teach vocabulary; samples of student- made and authentic postcards could also be taken to class so that learners can compare them to notice features that make them distinctive (e.g. words that are left out in authentic postcards for writing economy and to save space).

Catalogs

Catalogs are often mentioned among the various examples of **authentic materials**[13] that can effectively be used in the ESL/EFL classroom to enliven classes and create a more positive attitude toward learning (Kelly et al., 2002) Authentic samples of catalogs can be used for vocabulary games and quizzes on clothing, for instance. Teachers should consider important points like making sure the catalogs they intend to use are hard cover to withstand with a lot of handling, they must not have too many pages (unless the pages are clearly numbered for easy reference) and that they have enough copies of the material to be used (Kelly, Ch., et al 2002). The idea is to make use of visual aids that benefit learners because of the stimulation of **kinesthetic experiences**[14].

Furthermore, one of the most important things for teachers to do is to expose learners to different examples of the same genre, so that they can see what they look like, understand its purpose, and learn how to write texts within the proposed genres effectively. Thus, students may be able to do it by creatively choosing among a variety of features to avoid imitating a single specific style, which may result too prescriptive.

---

12. ***Realia:*** *(in language teaching) real objects teachers can easily bring into the classroom and which can be used to teach vocabulary, as prompts for practicing grammatical structures or for building dialogues and narratives, for games and quizzes. Realia also include real texts, such as menus, timetables, leaflets, catalogs, etc. (Sprats, et al., 2005, p.120)*
13. ***Authentic materials:*** *in language teaching, "the use of materials that were not originally developed for pedagogical purposes, such as the use of magazines, newspapers, advertisements, news reports, or songs (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p.43)*
14. ***Kinesthetic experience:*** *the sensation of bodily movement combined with perception and/or production of sound (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.307)*

Finally, teachers are also encouraged to discover other ways to use these resources in their own classroom; teachers need to be able to adapt the genres that have been described to their students' needs and context while maintaining a communicative approach (or philosophy) towards teaching present throughout the process.

2.2.2 Specifications for Listening

According to Harmer (2010), "most students want to be able to understand what people are saying to them in English, either face-to-face, on TV or on the radio, in theatres and cinemas, or on tape, CDs or other recorded media" (p.133). That is why effective teachers find varied ways of meeting their learners' interests and needs.

As the Council of Europe (2003) explains, in aural reception activities, "the language user as a listener receives and processes a spoken **input**[15] produced by one or more speakers" (p.65). Therefore, level A1.1 students are expected to:

- In simple spoken texts understand expressions, words, and sentences related to the learner's personal and educational background (e.g. personal information, house, daily life activities, curricular subjects, classroom equipment, classroom commands, etc.).

- Follow speech which is very slow and carefully articulated, with long pauses for them to assimilate meaning within the personal and educational domains.

To reach such goals, learners have to develop their language skills for listening, comprehension, and input acquisition through the use of various procedures and audio material. For example, besides their teachers' speaking—which should be **graded**[16] yet very close to real language— learners need to listen to other voices that will enable them to (1) acquire good speech habits (e.g. speaking clearly, explaining succinctly, taking pauses and breaths when losing one's train of thought, etc.) as a result of the information they have absorbed and (2) improve their pronunciation. Such voices are the language of schooled native speakers or non-native language proficient speakers, which is available through different material: CDs, MP3 files, DVDs, videos, or the internet (whenever possible).

Listening is good for pronunciation: the more students do it, the better their intonation, accent, individual word sound, and connected speech will get (Harmer, 2010). Teachers should also help students prepare for listening; in other words, learners will need to read instructions first or be exposed to pictures to be able to predict what is coming. As Harmer (2010) has claimed, this is done not only for students to get ready to listen and think about the topic but also for them to engage with the subject and task, thus increasing students' motivation and interest in developing their listening skills.

One of the techniques recommended at this level is to listen to ads, brief directions to get to a place, and short descriptions containing basic personal information. This will help students practice listening for specific information (names, numbers, amounts, prices, schedules, etc). A good idea is to have students write this information in tables, schemes, forms, or any other type of written record.

Besides using as many listening activities as possible in the classroom and encourage learners to listen to as much English as they can, teachers should help them focus on what they are listening to. In other words, they should organize **introductory**[17], **main**[18] and **post- listening activities**[19] that guide learners through the text for them to comprehend it and use the language they have met in the text.

---

15. **Input:** *language which a learner hears or receives and from which he or she can learn. (Richards and Schmidt , 2010, p.286)*
16. **Graded language:** *is classroom language that is adapted to the level of the learners in some way. Many course books use graded language. It can be compared with authentic language, which is not changed in any way. (http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/knowledge-database/graded-language)*
17. **Introductory listening activities:** *"an introduction to the topic of the text and activities focusing on the language of the text" (Spratt, M. et al.,2008, 32)*
18. **Main listening activities:** *"a series of comprehension activities developing different listening subskills" (Spratt, M et al.,2008, 32)*
19. **Post-listening activities:** *"activities which ask learners to talk about how a topic in the text relates to their own lives or give their opinions on parts of the text" (Spratt, M et al., 2008, 32).*

An example of an introductory listening activity that can be done is to present a short text that describes a city and gives directions to move around it. Then, a main listening activity could require students "to listen to a description of a route and trace it on a map" (Brown, 2007, p. 314). Afterwards, learners could look at the same city map, and ask and answer questions for directions.

2.2.2.1 Assessment Indicators

Level A1.1 student are able to:

- Identify the relation between the sound and spelling of English words within their lexical range.
- Recognize and distinguish the words, expressions, and sentences in simple spoken texts related to the learner's personal and educational background.
- Distinguish phonemically distinct words related to the learners' *personal* and *educational* background (e.g.name, address, pencil, desk, etc.)
- Recognize syllable, word, and sentence stress.
- Understand instructions addressed to them carefully and slowly.
- Understand speech that is clear, standard, and delivered slowly and intentionally.
- Extract the gist and key information items from simple informational texts.

2.2.3 Specifications for Reading

There are many reasons for promoting classroom reading, and there is an array of tasks and activities teachers can do to satisfy these needs and expectations. Due to study purposes, for instance, many students want to read texts in English for their careers while others do it simply for leisure.

According to Harmer (2010), reading is useful for language acquisition, and written texts are good writing models in English. More reading, for example, has more positive effect on students' knowledge of vocabulary, spelling, grammar, and even punctuation than substitution, repetition and transformation drills. Furthermore, good reading texts can introduce appealing topics, stimulate discussion, foster creative answers, and become the platform for interesting lessons.

The Council of Europe (2003) explains, "In **visual reception (reading)** activities, the user as a reader receives and processes as input written texts produced by one or more writers" (p.68), which is why level A1.1 students are expected to reach the following goals:

- Understand and identify very simple *informational* texts (e.g. labels, messages, postcards, catalogs, etc.) a single phrase at a time, picking up familiar names, words, and basic phrases and rereading as required.

- Extract the gist and key information items from simple *informational* texts.

To do so, teachers are suggested to facilitate a sequence of actions that allow students to perceive the chosen written genres (visual skills), recognize writing (spelling skills), identify the message (linguistic skills), understand the message (semantic skills), and interpret the message (cognitive skills). Ideally, students should be exposed to **authentic texts**[20] that are easy to understand and whose level of difficulty is appropriate. Therefore, labels, messages, invitations, ads, postcards, and catalogs seem to be the right text genre to do **intensive reading**[21] with level A1.1 learners.

---

20. **Authentic texts:** "texts which are not written especially for language learners, but which are intended for any competent user of the language" (Harmer, 2007, p.100)
21. **Intensive reading:** "refers to the detailed focus on the construction of reading texts which takes place usually (but not always) in classrooms" (Harmer, 2007, p.99). It also refers to the type of activities done to make learners more aware of how language is used. Sometimes we use texts to examine language and therefore, we might ask learners to look for all the words in a text related to a particular topic, or work out the grammar of a particular sentence. (Spratt, et al, 2008)

It is important to stress that according to Brown (2007), such texts should be grammatically and lexically simple and either devised or located in the real world to preserve the natural redundancy, humor, wit and other captivating features that characterize original materials; that way students can compare and contrast these with other types of texts available in our context. Moreover, "teachers should balance authenticity and readability in choosing texts" (Brown, 2007, p. 374); in other words, texts *should* have lexical and structural difficulty but be able to challenge students without overwhelming them (Nuttall, 1996).

Though the success of a reading activity often depends on the level of text chosen for working in class, it is also important to consider the type of classroom reading performance teachers can expose students to. Therefore, besides **intensive reading**, learners should be encouraged to do **extensive reading**[22] through **simplified** or **graded readers**[23]; they should not be too difficult, and they should let students enjoy what they are reading even when there is no teacher's assistance or encouragement to do so.

A basic principle for teaching reading in a foreign language is to choose good reading activities, that is to say, plan on the appropriate type of questions and activities for pre-reading, during- reading, and after- reading phases to (1) predict what is coming), (2) exploit the reading resource wholly and usefully and (3) reinforce what has been learned, for example).

Some examples of pre-reading activities at this level include looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs and their captions or reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures. It is important, however, to keep in mind that pre- reading activities are most important at lower levels of language proficiency and at earlier stages of reading instruction (Mejía, 2010).

Furthermore, in while-reading activities students check their comprehension as they read and as a result when reading for specific information, students need to ask themselves whether or not they have obtained the information they were looking for.

Finally, in post- reading activities and to develop authentic assessment activities, teachers should consider the type of response that reading a particular selection would elicit in a non-classroom situation. For example, after reading a set of instructions, students can repeat them to someone else (Mejía, 2010).

2.2.3.1 Assessment indicators

- Recognize cognate words and loan words from their L1.
- Follow single-step written instructions.
- Understand adapted and authentic texts which are simple and short.
- Understand and identify short, simple *informational* texts (e.g. labels, messages, postcards, timetables, etc.) by making use of clues such as visuals, text shape and layout, and reading one phrase at a time.
- Extract the gist and key information items from short, simple *informational* texts— especially if there is visual support.

2.2.4   Specifications for Speaking

The Council of Europe (2003) says that in **oral production** activities "the language user produces an oral text which is received by an audience of one or more listeners" (p.58). According to Harmer (2010), there are three main reasons "to get students talking" in the classroom.

Firstly, speaking activities provide rehearsal chances to practice real-life speaking in the safety of the classroom. Secondly, speaking tasks in which students try to use any or all of the 'language' they know provide feedback on how successful or problematic learning is for both teachers and students.

22   *Extensive reading: means reading in quantity and in order to gain a general understanding of what is read. It is intended to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage a liking for reading. (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.212). Examples are reading long pieces of text like a story or an article.*

23   *Graded readers: Also simplified reader is a text written for children learning their mother tongue, or for second or foreign language learners, in which the language content is based on a language grading scheme. A graded reader may use a restricted vocabulary or set of grammatical structures (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.251)*

Thirdly, because "the more students have opportunities to **activate**[24] the various elements of language they have stored in their brains, the more **automatic**[25] their use of these elements become" (Harmer, 2010, p. 123). This is why working on useful, meaningful speaking activities can and should be really motivating for learners. Harmer (2010) has said, for instance, that asking students to make predictions before listening to something is an example of an engaging activity.

Level A1.1 learners are, consequently, expected to:

- Produce slow, hesitant, planned monologues (i.e. with frequent pauses to search for expressions, **backtracking**[26], errors, etc.)

- Interact in a simple way by asking and answering simple questions about the learners' personal and educational background. Communication is highly dependent on repetition at a slower rate of speech, rephrasing, and **repair**[27].

As a result and since the CLT approach accentuates the philosophy that "genuine communication can take place from the very first day of a language class" (Brown, 2007, 181), the activities suggested for the development of spoken production in the A1.1 level include but go beyond the **controlled practice**[28] of the language.

Not only can students use a specific grammatical item or function in a **drill**[29] but they should also be encouraged to use the language at their disposal to reach a goal, which is partially but not wholly linguistic. According to Brown (2007), "communicative techniques for beginners involve appropriate small chunks of language and build in some repetition of patterns for establishing fluency" (p.181).

On their first day of class, for example, students can learn how to ask and respond to questions such as: "How are you?", "What's your name?", "Where do you live?", "How old are you?" etc. (Brown, 2007, p.182). Also, learners should not only read something simple out loud but also make short interviews and surveys and have uncomplicated discussions on topics they have chosen, supported by notes or simple visual aids (tables or charts, schemes, images, graphs, etc.).

When organizing oral practice activities, furthermore, teachers should make sure students understand what they have to do exactly either by giving slow, clear instructions and/or by **modeling**[30] how the activity works with one or many students to avoid misunderstandings or doubts. Also, Harmer (2010) has suggested that in order to give learners time to prepare their conversations, they can be asked to work in pairs or groups; an advantage of doing it like this is that students that are usually afraid of talking in front of a large group have more opportunities to talk and interact in smaller groups.

Surveys, for example, are especially useful for beginning levels because not much information needs to be asked or recorded and only one or two questions and answers need to be learned. A survey at the A1.1 level may consist of one question that simply requires students to ask and record the name of every person in the class (either first or last but probably not both at once).

---

24. *Activate: means that learners put to use all and any language at their disposal or command and which may be appropriate for a given situation or topic. According to Harmer (2007), "This element describes exercises and activities which are designed to get students using language as freely and communicatively as they can" (p.53).*
25. **Automatic:** *this means that learners will be able to use words and phrases fluently without very much conscious thought (Brown, 2007).*
26. **Backtracking:** *returning to a previous point or subject, as in a discussion or lecture (www.thefreedictionary.com)*
27. *Repair: a term for ways in which errors, unintended forms, or misunderstandings are corrected by speakers or others during conversation (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p. 495)—e.g. I have a, uhm…what do you call it… pencil case (self-initiated repair).*
28. *Controlled practice: "activities in which learner output is managed and controlled by the teacher or the materials to avoid the possibility of student errors" (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.448)*

29. **Drill:** *a technique commonly used in older methods of language teaching particularly the audio-lingual method and used for practicing sounds or sentence patterns in a language, based on guided repetition or practice. A drill which practices some aspect of grammar or sentence formation is often known as pattern practice (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.184)*

30. **Modeling:** *providing a model (e.g. a sentence, a question, a behavior, an action) as an example for someone learning a language to imitate it. (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.370)*

The CAL Center for Applied Linguistics (2010) has suggested using a survey form as simple as the one here presented:

Name:

Date:

Directions: Please, ask every student in class this question.

What is your first name? (Spell it, please)   Where are you from?

……………………………………….   ………………………

……………………………………….   ………………………

They have suggested several ideas to use the survey above:

• Pre-teach and practice the questions and vocabulary to answer the questions before handing out the forms and explaining the task to the learners.
• Model the procedures with one or two learners and check for comprehension of the instructions before asking them to walk around the room, asking everyone, and recording the answers, and
• Monitor the process and be ready to assist learners if they ask for help.

For processing the information, the CAL Center for Applied Linguistics (2010) has also added that it is important to:

• Pass on another blank list for learners to alphabetize first names in pairs or small groups.
• Alphabetize on the board, an overhead projector or poster, as an alternative.
• Follow up the activity by conducting a survey using the last names or any other piece of information learners are familiar with.

What needs to be highlighted at this point is the fact that "not only is it important for learners to know all the other learner's names… but asking each other the question 'What is your first name' helps learners to navigate first name and family name issues as a real life skill" (CAL Center for applied linguistics, 2010,p.44). Additionally, in all facets of life learners must spell their names so they need to be familiar with the chunk "Spell it, please".

Another aid type that may be used is a grid like this:

What is your first name? (Spell it, please)	Where are you from?	What is your address?
Juan Carlos J-U-A-N-C-A-R-L-O-S	The U.S.A	Tumbaco, Norberto Salazar 3551 y Santa Rosa.

A variation of the above activity requires learners to form two lines (A & B, one facing the other). The learners in line A stay stationary to ask the same questions several times (e.g. What's your name? Where are you from? etc.) while the students in line B listen to the questions, respond and move to the right and face another learner in the line ; all learners talk at once, the last person moves to the beginning of line B and "the activity continues until everyone in line A has asked a question to everyone in line B" (CAL Center for Applied Linguistics, 2010, p. 48).

Because such activities are designed for informal, spontaneous conversations, teachers should (1) make sure that students use the proposed aid types (e.g. survey form, grid) instead of scripts, (2) help them prepare their conversations (e.g. working on basic questionnaires), and (3) give them time to do it.

As for teachers' role, finally, educators are suggested to make accurate, useful corrections which are as subtle as possible so that communication is not inhibited and to help students avoid confusion or doubts.

2.2.4.1 Assessment indicators

Level A1.1 learners are able to:

Production

- Pronounce words, expressions, and statements in their personal and educational repertoire intelligibly, phonetically differentiating distinct words so as to avoid misunderstandings.
- Place stress on the correct syllables of mono- and polysyllabic words and sentences in their repertoire.
- Use simple phrases and sentences to describe themselves, what they do, where they live, what they have, etc.
- Read aloud a short set of written instructions which are clear and simple.

Interaction

- Deliver a very short, rehearsed monologue (e.g. introduce a speaker and use basic greeting and saying 'good-bye' expressions).
- Participate in short conversations on very familiar topics within the personal and educational domains.
- Ask and answer simple **display questions**[31] delivered directly to them in clear, slow non- idiomatic speech and in areas of immediate need.
- Ask people for things and give people things.
- Ask and answer questions about themselves and other people, where they live, people they know, things they have.
- Respond with simple, direct answers given that the interviewer is patient and co-operative.
- Speech is clear at times, though it exhibits problems with pronunciation, intonation or pacing and so may require significant listener effort.

2.2.5 Specifications for Writing

According to the Council of Europe (2003), "In ***written production (writing)*** activities the language user as writer produces a written text which is received by a readership of one or more readers" (p. 61) and the type of writing that teachers ask their students to produce (and how to do it) will depend on their age, proficiency level, learning style, and interests.

In general, level A1.1 students are expected to:

- Produce very simple *informational* texts that can have little or no detail, can have little variety in sentence structure, and may have some usage error.

To reach that aim, students are suggested to complete forms and questionnaires (write numbers, dates, their names, nationalities, addresses, ages, birth, or arrival dates—exactly as it is done in a hotel record).

Moreover, when writing brief simple postcards, on the other hand, teachers can initially give students clear models to follow, so that learners can write something quite similar to what they have seen in the original text. As Harmer (2010) stated, "if students are given a model for postcard-writing, it is easy to come up with their own slightly different version" (p.329).

---

31. *Display question: "a question which is not a real question (i.e. which does not seek information unknown to the teacher) but which serves to elicit language practice—e.g. Is this a book? Yes, it's a book." (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p. 178).*

This sort of **guided writing**[32] will help students produce appropriate texts even when students' English levels are still fairly limited. Furthermore, learners can also write postcards from a picture teachers give them or reorder phrases teachers have provided.

Activities with postcards may include the tasks aforementioned but can also involve starting a brief analysis of their structure (where the author is, activities s/he is involved in, closing and signature), However, as learners' language skills improve, teachers should make sure students' writing expresses their own creativity within a specific genre rather than limiting their work to imitating. That can be done by having students write descriptions of themselves in an imaginary vacation spot. "They can discuss their holiday in pairs or small groups, deciding where they will send the postcard from and what they want to say" (Harmer, 2010).

In the case technological resources are readily available (e.g. an English lab equipped with computers), it is important for students to become acquainted with short e-mail writing (i.e. introductory greetings, body, and endings using an appropriate **register**[33]). In spite of limited class time or the use of short texts, teachers should explain the process for constructing written products to students and encourage them to plan, draft, edit, re-draft, and proofread. The aim is to allow learners to understand that the **writing process**[34] is as important as the final product.

As a result, if students get involved in writing activities that are easy and pleasant from the very beginning, it will not only become a standard classroom component, but also a means for learners to be successful. We want students to acquire good early foreign language writing habits to promote greater involvement in the production of different text types and to foster a more appropriate and motivated learning environment.

Regarding assessment, teachers are suggested to avoid overcorrection, which may have a discouraging effect on students. When a written assignment contains many mistakes, it is important for teachers to balance **accuracy**[35] on the one side, and treat students thoughtfully, on the other side. A way to prevent overcorrection is for teachers to tell their students that only punctuation, grammar, or spelling errors will be corrected for a specific writing task. In other words, teachers do not have to correct "everything" on "every assignment"; choose one or two issues you wish to focus on and only correct those.

The way we react to students' writing will depend, of course, on what kind of writing it is; when students write with electronic media, for example, teachers can tactfully use editing tools such as Track Changes to make it easier for students to write correct versions of their drafts but without being too discouraging (Harmer, 2010). Nevertheless, the techniques above mentioned can readily be used when we assess final products.

As when students are engaged in the writing process, however, these correction techniques will not help them edit their own work; thus, teachers should respond to learners' work by telling them what the teacher thinks, suggesting alternatives or recommending something, highlighting both strengths and weaknesses, etc.

Finally, teachers should respond not only to the form (grammar) but also the content of students' writing (by pointing out whether or not meaning is clear, cohesive, etc.) so that learners collect their work in a **portfolio**[36] provided that they have understood and made strong efforts to improve their last draft.

---

32. *Guided writing: a technique for teaching writing where the teacher provides detailed guidance in the form of questions, an outline, a model, or some other way of focusing and directing students' writing. Guided writing seeks to reduce the number of student errors and to provide a specific focus on some aspect of either the form or content of a piece of writing or both (Richards and Schmidt , 2010, p. 257)*

33. *Register: Variation in a person's speech or writing. It usually varies from casual to formal according to the type of situation, the person or persons addressed, the location, the topic discussed, etc. (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.566).*

34. *Writing process: the strategies, procedures and decision- making employed by writers as they write. Writing is viewed as the result of complex processes of planning, drafting, reviewing and revising and some approaches to the teaching of first and second language writing teach students to use these processes (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.640)*

35. *Accuracy: refers to the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences but may not include the ability to speak or write fluently (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.222)*

36. *Portfolio: a purposeful collection of work that provides information about someone's effort, progress or achievement in a given area. It is a learning as well as assessment tool (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.443)*

2.2.5.1 Assessment Indicators

Level A1.1 students will be able to:

- Spell personal and educational details (e.g. own name, numbers and dates, nationality, address, age, date of birth, school, etc.).
- Take down in writing a dictated or recorded message within the limits of their repertoire for the level.
- Write isolated phrases and sentences for simple *informational* texts such as labels, messages, forms, cards, etc. by using basic appropriate punctuation marks (i.e. commas and period).
- Conduct a correspondence (e.g. email) with a partner, giving and eliciting personal and educational information.

2.2.6 Specifications for Reflecting on English Linguistic Elements

Level A1.1 students should efficiently manage language that is functional to the spoken and written texts they will produce. Details on the proposed functions, vocabulary, and grammar to be dealt with are given below:

Type of discourse	Skill	Function	Exponents	
			Vocabulary	Structures
Spoken	Listening Speaking	• Saying hello and good-bye • Identifying oneself and others	Introductions (formal & informal) Greetings and farewells (formal & informal)	This is+ noun Subject pronouns: I, you, we, they, etc. Verb to be: I'm, you're, she's, etc. Possessive adjectives: my, your, her, etc. Conjunction: and
Spoken	Listening Speaking	• Giving and understanding commands, instructions, prohibitions • Making and understanding requests	Common classroom expressions	Please + positive imperatives: please sit down Negative imperatives: Don't… Definite article: the Can you …? How do you…? What does…..mean? What's the meaning of…?
Spoken Written	Listening Speaking Writing	• Identifying and finding out the names of objects/things in English	Classroom items and supplies Personal belongings Adjectives (size, shape, length, etc.)	Question word: what Subject pronoun: it Demonstrative pronouns: this, that, these, those. Indefinite articles: a/an
Spoken Written	Listening Speaking Reading Writing	• Exchanging personal information (place of origin, age, address, telephone number, etc.)	Numbers 1-100 Alphabet Countries Nationalities Av. & St. Occupations	Affirmative statements with be Contracted forms Question words: what, where, who, how Possessive adjectives: my, your, his, her, etc. Prepositions: from & in

	Skills	Functions	Vocabulary	Grammar
Spoken Written	Reading Listening Speaking Writing	• Identifying and describing people • Talking about family members	Occupations Family members Positive and negative adjectives (to describe physical appearance) Colors	Negative statements with be, yes/ no questions, short answers. Question word: who Possessive adjectives: his, her, their, our, your (pl.) Plural of nouns (-s, -es and irregular case) Simple present: do verbs (e.g. speak, know, study, work, understand, live, etc.) Affirmative & negative statements with have Yes/ no questions and questions with how many Affirmative and negative answers. Possessive case: 's
Spoken Written	Reading Speaking Listening Writing	• Talking about school, teachers, and friends • Describing one's house or apartment and other places • Exchanging information about people, things and places.	School subjects Adjectives to describe appearance Hobbies House and furniture Prepositions of place: under, next to, between, etc. Some/any	Possessive case: 's Possessive adjectives Negative statements with have and questions with *how, what, where, who, how many, how old.* Preposition: with Adverbs: here/there
Spoken Written	Listening Speaking Reading Writing	• Talking about special occasions • Talking about plans and wants • Telling the time	Worldwide holidays Common gifts Days of the week Months of the year Clock time (formal & informal).	Verb to want+ infinitive or object Object pronouns: me, you, her, him, it, us, them. Prepositions: for, at, in, to Question words: when/ what time?
Spoken Written	Listening Speaking Reading Writing	• Expressing likes and dislikes • Talking about activities, places and food. • Talking about possessions	Leisure activities (hobbies) Sports Food items (snacks, dishes, etc.) Expressions (Great, me too, ugh!)	Simple present tense: Verb to like + infinitive or object (Affirmative, negative, question form and short answers) Verb to have: statements, question form and short answers

LEVEL A1.2

3. Curriculum Specifications for English: Level A1.2

3.1   Educational objectives

In addition to what was learned in level A1.1, by the end of level A1.2, students will be able to:

Linguistically:

- Have a basic vocabulary repertoire of words and phrases related to their **social background**[37].

- Have limited control of few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a learned repertoire, which relates to their social background.

Sociolinguistically:

- Establish basic social contact by using the simplest everyday polite forms to say *please*, *thank you*, *sorry*, etc., in accordance with the most important conventions of the community concerned.

Pragmatically:

- Link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like *but* or *then*.

3.2   Teaching and Learning Specifications

In the area of foreign languages students are expected to develop both skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and sub skills to face communicative challenges in their immediate environment and in the tasks and activities that a basic user of the English language carries out daily in his/her social and academic life under different conditions and **restrictions**[38].

To fulfill such purpose, specific spoken and reading and writing **genres**[39] will be used as the means to develop the receptive (i.e. listening and reading) as well as productive skills (i.e. writing and speaking).

3.2.1 Specifications for Choosing Text Types

Level A1.2 learners should be exposed to three specific genres: **transactional**, **expository** and **informational**. Therefore, text types they will be working with include *notes, personal letters*, *dialogues, short autobiographies, news articles, menus, signs*, *flyers,* and *posters*.

Notes, personal letters and *dialogues* can be associated because they are all transactional genres of writing that serve as a means for communicating ideas and information between individuals. Also, a feature that allows us to relate them is that they mostly consist of text.

---

37. Social background: includes public entertainment, travel, health and body care, shopping, food and drink, and services (Trim, 2009).
38. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR, 2002) describes different external conditions under which communication occurs and which impose various constraints on the user/learner and his/her interlocutors: physical conditions for speech: clarity of pronunciation, ambient noise, interference, distortions, etc., and for writing: poor reproduction of print, difficult handwriting, etc. Also, social conditions (number and familiarity of interlocutors, relative status of participants, etc.) and time pressures (preparation time, limitations on time allowed, etc.)
39. Genres: A type of discourse that occurs in a particular setting, that has distinctive and recognizable patterns and norms of organization and structure, and that has particular and distinctive communicative functions. For example: business reports, news broadcasts, speeches, letters, advertisements, etc. In constructing texts, the writer must employ certain features conventionally associated with texts from the genre in which he or she is writing. In reading a text the reader similarly anticipates certain features of the text based on genre expectations. (Richards and Schmidt , 2010, p.245)

Expository texts, such as *biographies* and *news articles*, on the other hand, are a genre that informs, describes or explains something mostly through written elements that are relatively more formal than the transactional type; finally *signs, menus, flyers* and *posters*, are informational genres which can consist of a combination of text and pictures as an important feature of their layout.

Since each genre has certain rules or conventions for its manifestation, learners should be able to identify their distinctive features (as to immediately distinguish a form from a telephone message or a letter from an invitation), find out differences among one another and to know what to look for within the text. When students encounter one of the above, they should be able to know what their purpose is in reading or writing it, and therefore, also know what to select and what not to select for **short-**[40]and **long- term memory**[41]; in other words, they should be aware of the various **schemata**[42] they bring to bear on the message that they have chosen to retain.

The reason is that according to Brown (2007), part of a teacher's job is "to enlighten your students on features of these genres and to help them to develop strategies for extracting necessary meaning from each" (p. 363) because that is what they will encounter when they read English.

Transactional texts
Notes

As with messages and emails—which were studied in the A1.1 level—the essential difference between *notes* and other more formal ways of communication is the brevity of information, i.e. key information is passed on in as concise a manner as possible without compromising the message.

Furthermore, in-depth explanation or description is not a characterizing feature of notes and as a result "the language used is generally less formal and uses abbreviations and shortened forms of words to speed up the writing and eventual reading of the information" (TUC union learn, 2012, p. 6).

On the whole, therefore, notes are designed to be read quickly and not kept for long but their writing tone needs to be carefully considered to convey the message intended by the sender. That is why teachers should make sure that learners understand what is meant by key information and how important this is to how effectively notes, messages and emails are written.

In order to do it, teachers can support learners to highlight key words, pointing out that if these words were pulled out from the body of the text, students could probably understand what the message was trying to say. Also, they can provide students with examples of common abbreviations they can use in notes such as **e.g**. ("for example") or acronyms like **ASAP** ("as soon as possible").

Personal letters

As for *personal letters*-which are written with a friendly tone and often about topics of personal interest-teachers can provide students with samples or ask them to look for examples of informal letters for highlighting their main parts (heading, greeting, body, closing, signature and P.S) as well as have a short discussion about what kinds of things learners think they might write about in a friendly letter. Teachers can, of course, make use of any idea they may find useful or find their own creative way to do it.

Dialogues

As a transactional genre, on the other hand, *dialogues* can be used in many ways in a classroom even though "neither resourceful teachers nor imaginative students can completely neutralize the artificiality of the classroom situation" (Murphy, 1995, p.2).

---

40. *Short-term memory: refers to that part of the memory where information which is received is stored for short periods of time while it is being analyzed and interpreted. (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.359)*
41. *Long-term memory: is that part of the memory system where information is stored more permanently. Information in long-term memory may not be stored in the same form in which it is received. (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.359)*
42. *Schemata: serve as a reference store from which a person can retrieve relevant existing knowledge and into which new information is assimilated. When encountering a topic in reading or listening, the reader activates the schema for that topic and makes use of it to anticipate, infer and make different kinds of judgments and decisions about it. (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.510)*

Some suggestions for using dialogues in the classroom are given below:

- To introduce new vocabulary and help students become familiar with standard formulas used when discussing various topics.

- As gap fill exercises for students as a listening exercise.

- Have students write dialogues to test key vocabulary and language formulas.

- For **role- plays**[43]

Expository texts
Autobiographies

As a type of expository genre, biographies describe the story of the facts and events of a person's life and therefore, it is important for teachers to help students get acquainted with the characteristics of this type of text and how to write it effectively (i.e. what information to include, the tone to be used, person— either the 1st person singular or plural, or the 3rd personal singular or plural— and even what information not to include).

Again, providing students with samples bios for famous people or asking them to look for some may allow learners to write autobiographies or bios for people learners know well, once they have gotten a feel for the exercise.

News articles

Harmer (2010) has said that "there is almost no limit to the kinds of activity which can be done with newspapers (or their online equivalents)" (p. 108). He proposes, for instance, to do matching exercises where students couple articles with their headlines or with relevant pictures or to get them to read the letters page from a newspaper and try to imagine what the writers look like or what kind of lives they have to later ask students to reply to those letters (Harmer, 2007).

He has also said that "the different kinds of text found in newspapers offer a range of possibilities for **genre analysis**[44], followed by writing within that genre" (Harmer, 2010, p.119). For instance, teachers can get students to look at a range of different articles and ask them to analyze how headlines are constructed, and how articles are normally arranged (e.g. the first paragraph often—but not always— offers a summary of the whole article). Then, they can write an article about a real or imaginary news story that interests them (Harmer, 2010).

Informational texts
Signs

Signs may be used with a variety of purposes and allow both teachers and learners have some fun while doing classwork. Some of them can be used to monitor the classroom and control behavior (e.g. Please, stay quiet! raise your hand, no noise, etc.). In other words, they can be used as a classroom management and behavior management tool. Teachers can cut them out and glue them onto Popsicle sticks. Other signs with school themes (e.g. breakfast, school, homework, lunch, Math, Recess, etc.) may be hung up around the classroom or placed in a pocket chart for students to see the daily schedule or to acquire vocabulary (e.g. days of the week, months of the year, etc.).

Menus

Menus are examples of authentic materials that can be used to help beginners gain survival skills such as the ability to order food in a restaurant. **Lanternfish ESL**[45], for instance, proposes a set of activities in

---

43. *Role plays: in language teaching drama-like classroom activities in which students take the ROLES of different participants in a situation and act out what might typically happen in that situation. (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p. 359).*
44. *Genre analysis: consists in showing learners examples of text within a genre (for example, a variety of different kinds of written news articles) so that they get a feel for the conventions of that genre and are able to make choices to write it effectively.*
45. *Lanternfish ESL: an interesting website that claims to be maintained by a group of ESL teachers in Asia and North America and whose aim is to provide English teachers with free quality printable resources for teachers and parents.*

which students work in groups and are given specific roles to play. Teachers start by modeling the kind of interaction that is expected by inviting one student up to the front of the class and handing her/him a menu. After allowing the learner to take a few minutes to read the information, the teacher asks "May I take your order" so that very basic answers like "Hamburger" are elicited.

The teacher makes it clear that s/he has been bothered by the straightforward request—which in real life may be even rude—through miming, for example, and attempts to elicit more sophisticated answers from the learner. Once the learners come up with a more respectful request (e.g. A hamburger, please), the teacher writes the example on the board and starts discussing other ways of ordering food (e.g. "I'll have a hamburger, please" or "I'd like the seafood spaghetti").

Next, a role- play activity for ordering food takes place and the teacher divides the class into three groups. One third of the class becomes waiters and the other two thirds partner up and go around to the various restaurants and order food. Both groups are given a sample conversation as well as directions on what to do while performing their roles; for example, waiters should (1) welcome customers, (2) Give menus, (3) Tell the guest the special of the day, (4) Give them some time to look at the menu, (5) Take their orders, (6) Confirm their orders and (7) Ask how the meal was and if they want a dessert (www.bogglesworldesl.com, Waiter's activity sheet).

As waiters should also receive a 'Special of the Day' prompt card and an activity sheet, they have to write down their customers' orders on their activity sheets. Likewise, the customers should write down what they ordered on a customer activity sheets.

Flyers

Yigitoglu (2007) has said that in daily life, for example, "shopping flyers are used frequently and thus, this type of authentic material can also help students to learn about the real language and target culture" (p.1). The author suggests using supermarket flyers (which could be easily downloaded from the internet) to help students understand quantifiers such as a cup of, a gallon of, etc. as well as differences between the English and metric system.

Since quantifiers may not be easy to acquire and even confusing for learners— especially in the lower levels—as a warm-up, Yigitoglu (2007) has suggested teachers to provide students with a handout of a paragraph describing what they have in the refrigerator/ shopping list, ask them to read it for two minutes (while they put some authentic materials on the table: boxes, bottles—depending on what they have written on the handout) and have students try to fill in the blanks by looking at the objects teachers have just set over there.

Next, the author has said students can be given flyers (2 per student) and handouts to find similarities and differences in pairs by describing to each other what is in each flyer they have received. If necessary, the discussion or pair work can be supported with picture dictionaries, which may raise learners' awareness of vocabulary knowledge. Students could finally "read aloud similar and different items they may find" (Yigitoglu, 2007, p.1).

As Frodesen (2001 cited by Yigitoglu, 2007) has acknowledged, the value of this activity lies in the fact that students "can greatly benefit from learning how various grammatical features and grammatical systems are used in authentic written texts" (p. 237).

Posters

In posters, images are bright because they may be a marketing means for advertisement, protest or to deliver messages of any kind. The goals of an advertising poster—either political, for movies, trips, concerts, etc—differ from a poster as an educational resource, however. Unlike advertising ones (which are informational and persuasive), educational posters can attempt to teach, inform, change behaviors or even contribute to learners' **cultural baggage**[46], which is something teachers may take for granted but students also need. That is why an educational poster is also **formative**[47].

---

46. **Cultural baggage:** *its meaning is positive here and refers to a set of things, knowledge and news a person from a specific culture owns and is part of his/her thinking, speech and behavior.*
47. **Formative:** *in this context it refers to something that yields some form of educational outcome.*

It is important for students to familiarize with posters' planning, making and delivery. Therefore, teachers are recommended to foster discussions on the text, images, and choice of what is written on a poster and to highlight the importance of following a construction process which includes multiple drafts until devising an impacting idea to be shared.

The idea again is for students to get good early writing habits in the foreign language so that they get involved in the production of different text types and are enthused by it.

3.2.2 Specifications for Listening

It has been estimated that around 90% of the information students receive at school—through instructors and peers—is aural input and that adults spend almost half their communication time listening (Mejía, 2010).

Therefore, listening skills are highly used and important in language learning and teaching, and helping learners become effective listeners in situations they are likely to encounter in and outside the classroom is, unquestionably, a common concern for **TESL**[48]/**TEFL**[49] teachers— who now have a wide range of published listening materials to their disposal (White, 2008).

Even though there is currently "a certain uniformity of approach to listening in many of those materials" (White, 2008, p.3), and in level A1.1 a relatively comfortable routine procedure has been suggested– for teachers at least— (i.e. pre- listening, while- listening and post- listening activities), it is important for level A1.2 teachers to start assigning learners a role in the choice of materials and types of activities, and some control of the process.

The reason is that in real life, we actually play an active role as participants in a conversation not just by answering and asking questions but even causing the speakers to adjust or repeat what they are saying if we do not understand. What happens in most language classrooms is, however, quite the opposite.

As Brown (2007) has perceptively said, for instance, students in the classroom are too often listening to disembodied and unfamiliar voices on a tape recorder which they cannot stop, interrogate, or interact with in any way. Furthermore, teachers are the ones to control the stop/pause button either on a video or tape recorder and while doing a task and, therefore, learners' control of when to hear something again is absolutely limited (White, 2008).

The idea is, consequently, to encourage level A1.2 learners become active participants in the listening process so that their level of responsibility for their own listening development is increased and listening is more personal to them.

Then, in order to do this, teachers should help learners to:

- In simple spoken texts, understand expressions, words, and sentences related to the learner's social background (e.g. shopping, entertainment, services, etc.), which is complementary to the personal and educational background with which they are already familiar.

- Understand speech which is very slow and carefully articulated, with long pauses for them to assimilate meaning within the public domain.

Additionally, teachers may also find it important to address a few *strategies* to compensate for uncertainties in understanding easy texts (i.e. texts that are shorter and feature familiar voices and topics) and whose length and level of difficulty gradually increases, as well as allowing learners to be participants rather than just over hearers.

---

48. **TESL:** *is the acronym for Teaching English as a Second Language.*
49. **TEFL:** *is the acronym for Teaching English as a Foreign Language.*

Warm- ups

Good listening warmers to start level A1.2 may be activities that allow learners to review what they learned in the previous level (i.e. A1.1). For example, after revising the use of *–ing* to denote actions happening right away, students can be asked to close their eyes and totally concentrate on listening to see how many sounds they can hear: footsteps in the corridor, a ticking clock, someone's stomach rumbling, and so on. Teachers can tell students they will do it for 30 seconds and then ask students which sounds they heard.

Also, teachers can extend the activity and ask students to listen again with their eyes closed while educators perform an action (some suggestions are: writing on the board, opening the window, crumpling some paper and throwing it in the bin, pushing a chair under a desk, etc.)

Additionally but provided the resources are available (i.e. a tape recorder or a cell-phone with audio and video recorder), learners can be told that instead of writing a letter to a prospective penfriend, they are going to send an audio or video tape to one of their classmates—i.e. their "tapefriend"—in order to introduce themselves, for example.

In pairs, they can be asked to take turns to record themselves for one to two minutes and say a little bit about their age, family, hobbies, and the town/city where they live (these topics are familiar for them because they studied them in level A1.1).

White (2008) suggests that students also say who they would like as a "tapefriend"—boy or girl, age, interests, and so on and that teachers give learners a few minutes to take notes on what they are going to say. In case the class is large, teachers may want to either divide it up into groups, each with its own tape recorder or cell phone or "spread the activity over a couple classes" (White, 2008, p. 15).

Afterwards, the teachers can write a few questions like the following on the board: "Who speaks the fastest/slowest?", "Who speaks the loudest/softest?, "Who says the most/the least?", "Who has the clearest pronunciation?", or "Who is the most interesting?"; "Did anybody use any words you did not know?", "What were they?", "Could you guess the meaning?", "Did you notice any mistake?". Finally, teachers can simply ask students to compare their reactions in pairs or ask the class to share their responses to the questions on the board positively and sensitively, i.e. "it should not become too critical of individuals" (White, 2008, p.16).

Listening strategies

As for the teaching of strategies, teachers can ask learners to find or write a short text that the students will find interesting (e.g. their own biography, a news article). The texts should have a fairly chatty tone and students in pairs will have to read them to each other. While one of the students in the pair reads the text, s/he will have to obscure some of the words—one for every 20 words or so words of the story is enough (White, 2008)—by coughing, muttering and mumbling so that her/his peer asks questions to be able to understand (e.g. "Excuse me, can you say that again?" "Could you repeat that?"). Then, they will switch roles.

That way, students will be encouraged to use the strategy called "asking for clarification" and to realize it is not always their fault when they do not understand (White, 2008).

Dialogues

For working with dialogues, teachers can choose from six to eight consecutive exchanges from the beginning of the transcript of a dialogue that describes people, jobs, places, and/or quantities and prices (e.g. one that teachers have been able to prepare and whose tape they have or one they have found in a coursebook) and write the lines down in jumbled order on the board. Alternatively, teachers can also give students copies of the jumbled dialogue and ask them to get into pairs and see if they can put it in the right order.

Once students think they have gotten the right order, teachers can play the tape for the dialogue to the end of the section they have given students so that learners can check if they were right; students can be also asked what clues they used to help them.

After that, students can be given around five minutes to discuss about the questions below:

- "Who do you think the two speakers are?"

- "Who do you think are the other people in the dialogue?"

- "What is the situation?"

- "What do you think is going to happen next?"

Next, teachers can play the rest of the tape, ask the students to listen and see if any of the topics they had in their dialogue were also mentioned on the tape and finally ask for learners' opinions on the most interesting dialogues (White, 2008).

Recorded passages

Recorded passages are nowadays readily available for language classrooms thanks to the internet and the advent of high-tech tape recorders; according to Bedjou (2006), for instance, "teachers can now download the scripts of various listening passages, select any program on the site of a native-speaker *radio* channel, and connect the computers' speakers to a tape recorder, using recording wire" (p.28, italics is this document's).

Bedjou (2006) has added that radio can be especially useful in developing countries, most of which have access to shortwave transistors and tape players but lack other equipment that could be used to show authentic English-language content, such as videotape recorders or film projectors.

A highly recommended website for free audio and script samples is **VOA**[50] (Voice of America) whose link is facilitated on the Ministry of Education's web page in the "*Fortalecimiento de Inglés*" tab, web resources submenu (both for teachers and learners).

Provided teachers have access to these recorded passages, they can assign students genuine and relevant tasks to do before, while and after listening. An example of a set of activities organized around radio programs that can be adapted to meet specific needs is the use of a short recorded piece of news, story or report. Teachers can choose, for instance, an interesting radio program with a special end, such as a consequence, opinion, or solution to a problem and get the script for the first part of the program to design comprehension activities around it.

Once teachers have done it, Bedjou (2006) has suggested the following procedure: for the pre-listening phase, for example, teachers can ask a few Wh-questions (who, what, when, where, why) and start a discussion about the subject they are going to be dealing with in the listening passage.

For the while-listening phase, teachers can use the comprehension activities they had previously designed (i.e. they may include answering questions, anticipating, judging whether statements are right or wrong, or working on difficult vocabulary) to help students understand and get involved in the passage.

Once students understand the first part of the program, teachers can play the remainder of the program and have students take *notes* as they listen. Teachers can also help learners with short answer questions if necessary and "if the passage is interesting, the students will be motivated to listen carefully to it because they will be eager to discover how it ends" (Bedjou, 2006).

Finally, as a post reading and listening task, students can write a summary of the entire passage, students can describe the kinds of feelings the passage aroused in them (if any) and they can even expand the discussion initiated at the beginning (if useful).

---

50. *VOA: is a helpful website (www.voanews.com) and source of teaching materials that provides access to listening passages (news, programs, interviews, and such), and the written version of most of the passages.*

Using teachers' voices

For scenarios lacking most (if not all) of the technological resources above described where the teacher's voice is the only source of input for language acquisition, White (2008) has suggested the following sets of activities:

- **Gossips:** The class will be warned someone may come in and that they should listen very carefully and try to remember as much as they can of what the person tells them (that person may be another member of staff in the school who can speak English and tells the class about something dramatic that has just happened to them, e.g. s/he has won the national lottery, or just had her/his purse or wallet stolen and caught sight of the thief running away.

  The person can include a few unbelievable elements to make it more dramatic but should have prepared what to say, speak non-stop for one or two minutes and arrange a time to burst into the classroom. At the pre-arranged time, the member of staff should burst dramatically into the classroom, tell her/his story, and leave just as dramatically.

  Afterwards and in pairs, students should compare what they understood and remember from what the person told them. Finally, teachers should ask the whole class to pool all the information they can remember and inquire on whether or not they believe everything they heard or if there is anything that seemed impossible to them (White, 2008, p.47). As a variation, other members of staff can come into the classroom and tell the students about some highly improbable (but non- malicious) gossip about the school, students, or members of staff, instead of the dramatic story.

  The whole goal of this set of activities is to have students listen to familiar voices and listen for detail (White, 2008).

- **Describe and draw:** teachers can choose or invent a description of a room or a person and tell students they will listen to the description so that they can draw (the place or individual) afterwards.

  Learners can be first asked about their general impression of the room or person and teachers can explain/ elicit the meaning of any vocabulary which the students do not know. Afterwards, students can be actually asked to draw the room (teachers can read the description as many times as they want while they draw) and whey they finish they can compare their drawings with a classmate.

  Finally, a discussion on what the room shows about the personality of the individual or individuals who furnished it may take place and students can even be asked if they like the room or person they have drawn and why. The goal of this activity is again to listen to a familiar voice (the teacher's) and to listen for detail to make a response (White, 2008).

3.2.2.1 Assessment Indicators

Level A1.2 learners should be able to:

- Identify and preserve the vowel and consonant contrasts of the English language in their own speech.

- Recognize and distinguish the words, expressions, and sentences in simple spoken texts related to the learner's social as well as their personal and educational background.

- Distinguish phonemically distinct words related to the learners' *social* (e.g. movie, holiday, etc.) as well as their *personal and educational* background.

- Recognize basic intonation patterns (e.g. distinguishing a question from a statement or exclamation) and reduced forms (e.g. didja, gonna).

- Follow short, simple directions.

- Understand speech characterized by frequent pauses, repetitions, and rephrasing, which give the listener enough time to absorb the message.

- Extract the gist and key information items from simple informational, transactional, and expository texts.

3.2.3 Specifications for Reading

Richards and Renandya (2002) have said that in many second and foreign language situations, reading receives a special focus and there are *a number of reasons* for that. As described in the specifications for level A1.1 learners, one is that in "most EFL situations, the ability to read in a foreign language is all that students ever want to acquire" (p. 273); in fact, many foreign language students often have reading as one of their most important goals because they want to be able to read for information and pleasure, for their career, and for study purposes.

The second reason, on the other side, is that written texts serve different pedagogical purposes such as enhancing the process of language acquisition, providing good models for writing, opportunities to introduce new topics, stimulate discussion and to study language (e.g. vocabulary, grammar, and idioms).

Therefore and in spite of the very well-known fact that reading proficiency develops gradually over a long period of time through reading extensively, many skills and strategies involved in effective reading can be learned in the classroom (Murphy1997).

Level A1.2 learners are expected to understand and identify simple *transactional, expository,* and *informational* texts (e.g. signs, personal letters, short autobiographies, etc.) a single phrase at a time, picking up familiar names, words, and basic phrases and rereading as required. Therefore, the type of texts they will be reading includes short, personal letters, flyers and newspaper articles.

Personal letters

Hudson (2011) has said that reading and writing have been traditionally taught separately, but that more recently attention has come to be placed on the relationships between the two skills. Harmer (2010), for example, has said that reading has a positive effect on students' writing because reading texts "provide good models for English writing" (p.99).

Indeed, we can use reading material to demonstrate the way we construct sentences, paragraphs and whole texts (Spratt, 2008) and for writing a personal letter, this technique does not seem to be an exception. Since level A1.2 learners should be familiar with this type of informal letters, teachers should plan on exercises that focus on helping students improve their understanding of the proper style and type of language that is used in them.

A way to understand proper style is by looking at a number of exemplars, analyze what has to be done and perhaps what does not have to be done. As described in the level A1.2 specifications for choosing texts, teachers can, for instance, provide students with samples of very simple letters for learners not only to be able to read but also notice and point out their layout and language features (i.e. address and date, salutation, no indentation, use of contracted verb forms, use of colloquial language—i.e. language that is appropriate for speech but not really for writing—and the use of the active voice to sound more conversational and interesting, among other characteristics).

Furthermore, sample letters— with many mistakes (i.e. in language, tone or even register)—can be provided for learners to identify errors and rewrite them.

Flyers

Murphy (1997) has said that, "there are many ways to facilitate the development of reading skills, some of which have only recently been introduced into the EFL classroom" (p. 2) and the use of **authentic materials**[51] is one of them.

An activity suggested by a popular ESL/EFL teaching website (*busyteacher.org)* and called "Food sorting" can promote the use of supermarket flyers for reading; a summary of what teachers should do is given below:

- Give students several supermarket flyers and have them cut out all the foods (they are often filled with pictures).

- Have students label the foods.

- Place all of the pictures in one big pile and teachers give your students a large sheet of poster board.

- Tell students they must first sort the foods into different groups: dairy, meats, fruits, vegetables, cereals, etc.

- Finally, tell students to glue the different groups onto the poster board.

- Optionally, you can teach learners about the food pyramid and have learners illustrate it with pictures.

The website (*busyteacher.org)* also suggests that in case some vocabulary items in the flyers are unfamiliar for the learners, teachers can start by playing a vocabulary game with cards containing definitions for "Flyers vocabulary items". A couple adapted examples are given below:

Dairy products	**Cereals**
This is food produced from the milk of mammals such as cows, goats and sheep.	This food derives from starchy grains such as wheat, oats and corn.

Teachers should make sure to have enough cards and divide the class into teams; then a member from each group should take a card and read it out loud for their team to guess the word. Teachers can also allow two/three questions for each group and if their guess is correct, the group would score one point. Otherwise, they would lose a point but still have fun doing it (*busyteacher.org)*. Such activity would allow teachers to help students build some background knowledge before the actual use of flyers.

Newspaper articles

Newspaper articles are written to communicate information about a specific subject, topic, event or process. These texts use vocabulary, special design elements, and organizational patterns to express ideas clearly, and make them easier to read; therefore, providing students with an approach to reading this type of text may help them become effective readers (Fenner et al., 2001).

---

51. *Authentic materials: In language teaching, the use of materials that were not originally developed for pedagogical purposes, such as the use of magazines, newspapers, advertisements, news reports, or songs. Such materials are often thought to contain more realistic and natural examples of language use than those found in textbooks and other specially developed teaching materials.*

As with students in the prior level (i.e. A1.1), level A1.2 learners will not only become familiar with the elements and features of a specific written genre— namely newspaper articles—but also use a range of strategies for before, during and after reading that students will be able to apply to different course-related materials. For example, news articles use a special organizational pattern called the inverted pyramid and present the facts and supporting details in order of importance. Consequently, for getting acquainted with newspaper articles' features it is important to help students be aware of such format (i.e. all of the important information the newspaper article has is in the opening paragraph). By bringing different samples to class, which are at the right level of difficulty, teachers can help learners discover the five parts an article contains, namely **headline**[52], **byline**[53], **lead paragraph**[54], **explanation**[55] and **additional information**[56].

The methodology recommended by a group of teachers with expertise in adolescent literacy and ESL (i.e. Think Literacy- Cross Curricular approaches, 2001) to lead students in the comprehension process may include but is not limited to considering the following tips (teachers may make good use of one or a pair in each category):

Before reading:

Teachers should help students to connect new content and ideas to their prior knowledge by encouraging them to think about what they already know about the topic or the type of reading material. For example:

- Ask students to **brainstorm**[57] related ideas, concepts and vocabulary, **recall**[58] previous experiences and feelings related to the subject, recall what they have learned about the topic, or *list questions* they might have about the topic.

- Provide students with related experiences, discussion topics, readings, or background information to *increase* **background knowledge**[59].

- Ask students to set a purpose for reading (they should ask themselves why they are reading this particular text).

- Ask them to look over the text to see which elements appear (such as headings, subheadings, illustrations and captions, etc.).

- Students should also examine the titles, headings, and subheadings, and scan for words that stand out.

- Learners should also look for words and phrases that might give them clues about how the information is organized.

- Afterwards, students should examine each illustration and read the titles or captions.

- Finally, teachers should ask learners to recall what they already know about the topic.

---

52. Headline: short attention- getting statement about the event. .
53. Byline: tells who wrote the story.
54. Lead paragraph: answers the questions who, what, when, where, why and how in the opening sentence(s) of the article.
55. Explanation: Other facts or details the reader might want to know. This section can include direct quotes from witnesses or bystanders.
56. Additional information: This part can include information about a similar event.
57. Brainstorm: (in language teaching) a group activity in which learners have a free and relatively unstructured discussion on an assigned topic as a way of generating ideas (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.62).
58. Recall: the ability to bring an event, idea, word, etc. that is stored in memory into conscious awareness. In certain memory tests, subjects are asked to recall (remember) items that were previously encountered, for example in a training session (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.486)
59. Background knowledge: in reading, PRIOR KNOWLEDGE that readers make use of in understanding a text. This can include topic-related knowledge, as well as cultural, linguistic and world- knowledge (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p.48).

While reading:

During reading, support students to link the information and ideas in the text to what they already know as they **monitor their understanding**[60]. For example:

- Ask learners to divide the reading task into smaller chunks (chunking the text into paragraphs, chunking sections by sub-headings, etc.).

- Tell students to read a **chunk**[61], pause and think about what they read, and write a brief one-sentence summary or brief point-form notes to help learners remember important and interesting information.

- Instruct learners to read quickly, then slowly and to **skim**[62] the sections they think will support their purpose for reading.

- When learners find specific information they want, ask them to slow down and read it word by word. They may need to reread the passage several times.

- Ask learners to read the selection and jot down thoughts, responses to your questions and new questions that occur to you.

After reading:

- Help students consolidate and extend their understanding of the article content:

- Ask learners to read the selection again to confirm the main idea and supporting details.

- Help them make connections to what they already know about the topic (e.g. ask them to wonder how the information they read added to or altered what they knew about the topic).

- Finally, ask learners to record their thinking about and responses to the text. For example, have students write a short summary, complete a **graphic organizer**[63], create a sketch, or orally retell to yourself or a friend.

3.2.3.1 Assessment indicators

Level A1.2 students should be able to:

- Use visual aids and knowledge on familiar words to guess meanings of unknown terms.

- Follow multiple-step written directions (e.g. to go from X to Y).

- Understand adapted and authentic texts which are simple but longer than those in 8th EGB.

- Understand and identify simple *informational, transactional,* and *expository* texts (e.g. personal letters, short biographies, signs, etc.) by making use of clues such as visuals, text shape and layout.

- Extract the gist and key information items from simple, longer (than those in 8th EGB) *informational, transactional*, and *expository* texts— especially if there is visual support—and with the aid of a dictionary.

---

60. *Monitoring their understanding: means recognizing when confusion occurs and identifying strategies that help to regain meaning" (Think Literacy- Cross Curricular approaches, 2001, p.81).*
61. *Chunk: a unit of language that forms a syntactic or semantic unit but also has internal structure, for example: (1) a unit of text that is longer than a sentence and shorter than a paragraph; (2) a unit of language longer than a word but shorter than a sentence and which plays a role in comprehension and production (Richards and Schmidt, p. 77).*
62. *Skimming: a type of reading strategy in which the reader samples segments of a text in order to achieve a general understanding of its meaning. (Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics, p. 532).*
63. *Graphic organizer: Graphic organizers are one way for visual thinkers to arrange their ideasand they have many names including visual maps, mind mapping, and visual organizers.*
   Graphic organizers can be used in all phases of learning from brainstorming ideas to presenting findings and they can be used individually or in large groups (Teacher tap, 2007, http://eduscapes.com/tap/topic73.htm)

3.2.4 Specifications for Speaking

Since our main concern as language teachers today is to promote the use of the language for a variety of communicative purposes and in order to develop the skills needed for this— especially the oral ones of understanding and speaking— teachers have to cope with a number of unfavorable conditions, it is actually not easy to provide effective oral practice, especially in large classes.

According to Byrne (1997), EFL teachers do face several serious constraints at school that have to do with the size of their classrooms (often thirty or more learners), the classroom arrangement (which rarely favors communication) or the number of hours available for teaching the language (which cannot and should not all be spent on oral work); however, it is important for language educators "to have a clear understanding and firm grasp of the wide range of techniques and procedures through which oral ability can be developed" (Byrne, 1997, p.1).

The reason is that these techniques and procedures can become "a way of accommodating language learning to the unfavorable environment of the classroom" (Byrne, 1997, p.1) and as a result the role of the language teachers—like that of any other teacher— is to create the best conditions for learning.

Regarding speaking, Level A1.2 learners are expected to:

•   Produce slow, hesitant, planned dialogues (i.e. communication still depends on repetition, rephrasing and repair, however).

•   Interact and participate in brief informal discussions, in a simple way by asking and answering simple questions about the learners' personal, educational and social background. Communication is dependent on repetition at a slower rate of speech, rephrasing, and repair.

Since it is simply not sufficient to expose the learners to those samples of spoken language which have been described earlier (i.e. teacher's talk or recorded passages) and samples of spoken language in a coursebook do not usually mirror real life language (i.e. they do not contain a sufficiently high proportion of the features of natural speech, e.g. hesitations, **false starts**[64], etc., or utterances tend to be carefully structured and complete and the level of redundancy is generally low), learners will need much more than that if they are going to be able to cope with real-life language situations.

Dialogues

Since teachers have used dialogues in a wide variety of ways following a scale from rigidly manipulative (i.e. for drilling, memorization, and eventual recitation in class) to relatively creative (i.e. learners are invited to use their knowledge and imagination in the process of constructing them), a graduated approach that moves from composing dialogues from material provided (i.e. Composition through selection) to constructing dialogues with suggested words (i.e. Composition from key words) is suggested.

Drawing from Murphy (1995) it is suggested that as a first small step in the creative process, students can be provided with couples of sentences from which they will have to make dialogues that are concealed. Then they can be provided with lists of scrambled conversational utterances to discover hidden dialogues (i.e. Selection from a list). The following two examples where each partner has four utterances have been taken from Murphy (1995):

Example 1. *There is one dialogue hidden in the eight sentences below. Each partner has four utterances.*

-   Not really. But I didn´t study for it.
-   If there is a next time.
-   I don't want to talk about it.
-   How was the test, Jack?

---

64. *False start: It occurs when the speaker says something then rearranges what he/she says, a kind of re-drafting. An example is: "…and I think he's, he told me he's glad he has one of those". It is found in spontaneous speech (not planned basically).*

- Oh. Don't worry. Better luck next time!
- Do you think that you failed?
- Why not? Was it difficult?
- Well, I don't see how I could pass it. (Murphy, 1995, p.10)

Example 2. *There are two separate dialogues hidden in the sixteen sentences below. Each partner has four utterances in each dialogue.*

- Do you have any with a wide collar?
- I was looking for something "sporty" to wear at work.
- Over here, next to the ties.
- Excuse me. Do you have summer dresses on sale?
- Yes. I think we have something in that size. Here's a cotton shirt in pink.
- Over here on the left.
- Let me look. What neck size do you have?
- Yes. We do. We have a special on short sleeve dresses this week.
- How about this one in green?
- Why don't you try it on and see?
- Excuse me. Where are your men's shirts?
- Yes, I do. With a wide collar, just as you wanted.
- O.K. Where are the fitting rooms?
- Fifteen. And I wear a thirty-two sleeve.
- Yes. I like the color. I'm not sure about the size, though.
- I would prefer white, if you have it. (Murphy, 1995, p.11)

Moreover, learners can be required to construct dialogues by using suggested words that are provided to them (i.e. Composition from key words). For instance, teachers could use and adapt the following example:

Stephanie: / Stalin / How / Hi / you? /
Stalin: / thanks. / you? / Fine, /
Stephanie: / today. / have / I / OK., / sore throat /
Stalin: /sound/ a bit/ you / Yes, /different/
Stephanie: too/ Well, / it / serious/ not /
Stalin: / hope / I / want / to come / you / birthday party / Friday./
Stephanie: /fine /Oh,/ I'll / in a few / days. / invitation. / Thanks for/

Teachers should ask students to construct an acceptable dialogue from the key words provided, working from sentence to sentence. Learners should be also asked to supply any and all forms necessary to make the sentences grammatically and meaningfully correct (in case learners feel that it is necessary, they can unquestionably include any other key words as they proceed). As a result, students' final versions will, of course, differ and creativity will be fostered.

Role plays

As a follow-up and once teachers have been able to check for dialogues acceptability and all corrections have been made, level A1.2 learners could be asked to work in pairs to role- play the conversations they have been able to build with a pair. Even though they will be using a dialogue they have scripted themselves, learners should not be pushed to remember it by heart while role playing it but instead, they can just use it as a reference (to keep in mind the topic and situation) during their performance.

Since the ultimate goal is to help learners produce meaningful speech eventually, teachers can choose only the exercises which they find more promising to their particular context and avoid any others they feel ineffectual or inappropriate (Murphy, 1995); what is actually important for teachers is to start making choices when provided with several options—for dialogue presentation and role- playing in this case—by

considering students needs, interests and how useful these activities can be in their class endeavors.

Brief rehearsed presentations

From the Communicative Approach perspective, the ultimate goal in language learning is for students to be able to express their thoughts and words in unrehearsed speech; thus, brief rehearsed presentations can be done with level A1.2 learners to start developing more spontaneous communication.

Harmer (2010) has said, for example, that "for students to benefit from doing oral presentations, teachers need to invest some time in the procedures and processes they are involved in" (p. 351). In the first place, he adds, teachers need to give learners time to prepare their talks (and help in preparing them if necessary) and afterwards they need a chance to rehearse their presentations. The latter can be done by getting students to present to each other in pairs or small groups first (Harmer, 2010). Therefore, a good example of brief rehearsed presentation for level A1.2 learners is the display and description of a graded reader poster. Maggs (2007) has, for instance, suggested this fun and enjoyable way for students to practice story presentations in small groups.

The author has claimed that with the help of drawings, maps and photographs, "the visual appeal of posters makes presentations more interactive" (Maggs, 2007, p. 1) and that teachers may be surprised at how much effort some students put into the design of their posters. The procedure suggested would take around two hours (30 minutes to explain how to make the poster, one week before the presentation day, and from one to an hour and a half to make the poster presentation and to discuss the books and posters on the presentation day). Furthermore, the presentation would include a preparation phase (i.e. setting up the poster presentation) and delivery phase (Managing the Poster presentation activities), each one following specific steps which may be summarized as follows:

PHASE 1: For an overview of the tasks learners will have to do before the presentation, teachers will briefly explain students will select a graded reader (i.e. level 2 or 3 for beginners), read it at home (along a week) and prepare a short presentation on the book (around 3 minutes).

Then, teachers will write some headings on the board and ask students to copy them in their notebooks (optionally a handout could be given if resources are available). The headings would include information such as (1) the book's title, (2) author & nationality, (3) genre (i.e. comedy, horror, adventure, etc.), (4) main characters (name, job, basic personality, etc. in a few words),(5) the story (just five lines so that students are encouraged to make a minimum volume of notes from which to retell the story), (6) the book's rating (1= bad to 5= fantastic), and (7) a conclusion (for learners to explain why they selected the book and whether or not they would recommend it).

Afterwards, teachers will model how to complete the headings using **note style**[65] and give students final instructions on poster making (i.e. one week to read the book and make a poster on A3 paper, English language use only in **note form**[66], and their names on the back of the poster only.

As a final activity for this phase, moreover, teachers should set up a student discussion on "What makes a good poster" (e.g. by bringing in some quality posters, some ideas could be prompted: big size, drawings, clear handwriting, key words, etc.).

PHASE 2: On the presentation day, students can be asked to space their posters out on empty desks around the room and take a relaxing walk around, look at all the posters and discuss the posters they like with their friends; optionally, they could also choose the top three posters by placing a mark under the appropriate numbers on the blackboard.

Next, teachers will **model**[67] briefly what they are expecting from students and give them guidelines (e.g. you will be given three minutes but can speak a little longer, your classmates have to close their posters up, at the end of your presentation ask your peers whether or not they are interested in reading the book

---

65. *Note style: It means, "Teachers can encourage students to abbreviate the main characters' names to just one letter per character, and to circle it. This will encourage note making, and allow the students to make the poster a little more quickly" (Maggs, 2007, step 3).*
66. *Note form: That is to say by using key words, signs, abbreviations only (teachers should make it clear that no sentences are allowed on the poster).*
67. *Model: One idea is for the teacher to model a bad start to a presentation, then a good way using one student poster from a different class. Teachers should make it clear, though, that sentences are required (Maggs, 2007).*

and why); additionally, learners will be grouped in threes and do "scissors, paper, stone" to decide on their presentation order.

When finishing, students will have to repeat their presentations with other groups of 3 (to gain more confidence with the material and to improve fluency) and at the end teachers will give a lot of **positive feedback** [68](since making posters and presenting books is a challenging and time-consuming set of activities for students). Lastly, as a wrap- up, students will be asked to discuss in pairs about the poster presentations they liked the most and on whether or not they have gotten any new ideas for their next poster; teachers, on the other hand, may collect all posters and use them as a form of assessment or to use the better ones for future classes as examples of how to make good posters (Maggs, 2007)

3.2.4.1 Assessment Indicators

Level A1.2 learners will be able to:

Production

- Pronounce words, expressions, and statements in their social as well as personal and educational repertoire intelligibly, phonetically differentiating distinct words so as to avoid misunderstandings.
- Use rising and falling intonation patterns to signal questions as opposed to statements and exclamations.
- Use more detailed phrases and sentences about people and places.
- Read aloud a written text which is clearly written in simple language.

Interaction

- Deliver a short, rehearsed dialogue/brief speech on a familiar topic (e.g. ask how people are and react to news).
- Participate in brief informal discussions among friends in a relatively quiet atmosphere and on very familiar topics within the personal, educational and social domains.
- Ask and answer display and simple **referential questions**[69] delivered directly to them in clear, slow non- idiomatic speech and in areas of immediate need.
- Handle numbers, quantities, cost and time.
- Indicate time by using expressions that indicate present and immediate present.
- Make brief contributions, given that interlocutors are patient and cooperative.
- Speech is generally clear but exhibits minor difficulties with pronunciation, intonation and pacing and may require some listener effort at times.

3.2.5 Specifications for Writing

Richards and Renandya (2002) have said that the difficulty learners have to master writing in the L2 often lies "not only in generating and organizing ideas, but also in translating these ideas into readable text" (p. 303), and added that "the difficulty becomes even more pronounced if their language proficiency is weak" (Richards & Renandya, 2002, p. 303). Therefore, students should be widely exposed to different text types and given sufficient practice in them so that their written processes and products are successful.

---

68. *Comments on the following areas are recommended: their hard work, the cool designs, the good note style (hold up a few poster examples perhaps), their good explanations of the story etc. This last point is particularly important to boost confidence and encourage motivation for any future poster presentations (Maggs, 2007).*

69. *Referential questions: "a question which asks for information which is not known to the teacher" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 178)—e.g. What is your town like?*

Level A1.2 learners are expected to produce informational, transactional and expository texts consisting of a sequence of simple sentences that have more detail and show more variety in lexical range and sentence structure. Therefore, the types of text they will be producing are: short biographies, personal letters, and 'thank you' notes or simple messages for a host family.

Short auto biographies

Huston (2008) has said that "writing an autobiography allows students to write on a topic they are most knowledgeable about" (p.1) and that as an assignment, an autobiography allows students to learn the conventions of writing and be as creative as possible. In fact, biographies are valuable stories full of history, honesty and heroism and there are several ways to make them a material of choice in great English writing classrooms (Education World, 2010[70]).

A short autobiography (i.e. no more than one or two paragraphs) is used to convey basic information about students that readers may find useful. Therefore, knowing how to write them (i.e. which details are important and how to convey them in the briefest manner possible) is a trick level A1.2 learners need to know.

According to Vaux (2010), there are several things that need to be considered when writing short biographies: (1) the context of the biography has to be examined (i.e. what is the audience and the information it may be interested in reading: educational background, hobbies, etc.); (2) key events and accomplishments that provide a comprehensive look at who the writers are need to be highlighted and written in as short a space as possible (i.e. a sentence or two); (3) writers should think about how much of their personal lives should be included in the description and determine their pertinence in the context of the biography; (4) the list of personal information needs to be examined to select one or two details at the most; (5) the first statement of the biography should be used as a springboard to other details that bolster the writers' reputation and underscore their pertinent achievements; (6) the biography should end with a single sentence or two dedicated to the writers' personal lives (e.g. I/he/she live(s) in Cuenca with my/ his/her husband Ronnie and two children).

Additionally, Huston (2008) has suggested a lesson plan for autobiographies that could be used for a couple weeks (depending on the time teachers want to devote for it). Students need to do the research involved and write a few chapters based on the guidelines and content suggested. One of the chapters could talk about the time before students were born (i.e. it would be titled before I was born). Students would need to ask their parents or grandparents for information about the history of the family (including interesting anecdotes or ancestors' names, and even a family tree); the students could be given guidelines questions like: "Where did my great grandparents come from and why?", "What kinds of jobs did they do"? "Are there any family stories that are passed down from one generation to the next?" etc.

Another chapter named "My entrance" could include details about the learners' birth. They could include details about the weather, doctor, hospital where the learners were born and students could gain insights into their own lives when asking their family. According to Huston (2008), other chapters could include information about their early years (early childhood games, songs, movies, or TV shows), the learners' immediate families (parents, siblings, pets, where they live, etc.), and school years (friends, teachers' names, favorite classes or activities and memories)

Personal letters

A way to understand the type of language in informal letters is by providing learners with a copy of an incomplete friendly letter to read and decide which word or phrase *a*, *b* or *c* is missing in each gap. For example:

---

70. *"A complete online resource that educators could visit each day to find high-quality lesson plans and research materials". (http://www.educationworld.com)*

Dear Frank,

Thanks for your post card from Ecuador. Glad to hear you 1) _____ a good time there. I don't like 2) _____ abroad but I'm glad you did! The truth is I didn't have 3) _____ money to afford the trip either. Did 4) _____ chance to visit the Amazon region? Sorry I wasn't home when you returned, but I 5) _____ _____ back a week from Monday, so we can meet to watch all your photos from Ecuador.

Best regards,

Susana

Select from the choices given below:

1. a) have   b) had   c) are having
2. a) travelling   b) travel   c) traveled
3. a) too   b) very   c) much
4. a) have you   b) you have   c) you had
5. a) will be   b) am   c) come

Source: adapted from Langenscheidt, ELT, 2006

Both reading comprehension and grammar can be reviewed and then learners can be given the answer key to compare their responses. By bringing samples to class— as suggested for informal letters at the beginning of this document—teachers should help students discover the components of informal letters and ask them to write one by using the following guidelines from "The Writing - lover's Website", for example:

- **Address and date**: the address should be written in the right hand corner followed by the date (after a line has been left).

- **Salutation:** the most common one is "Dear" followed by a comma. However, more informal ones like "Hello!" or "Hi!" can be used at discretion.

- **Body:** paragraphs are usually indented; however, the use of computers is making no indentation more popular nowadays. The first paragraph generally expresses a greeting, followed by wishes of good health. Also, try to be as friendly and conversational as possible (i.e. you are allowed to use **colloquial language**[71]). Moreover, do not neglect good spelling and punctuation (also use the active voice, and be consistent in using tenses). Finally, ask questions you would like the recipient to answer in his/her reply.

---

71. *Colloquial language: language that is appropriate for speech but not really for writing (The Writing- lover's website (http://www. writing-lovers.com/informal_letter.html).*

- **Complementary close**: Use "Love", "Lots of love", "Best wishes", "Missing you lots", etc. and a comma to sign off.

- **Post script:** Use a P.S. to add a short message after the complementary close (i.e. especially to jot down something you have forgotten in the body of the letter).

Thank you notes

According to **English, baby!**[72]—an ESL online community owned by Versation (2012)—"thank you" notes have been traditionally used in the U.S when people receive a gift, even though it seems many Americans from the younger generations are losing the custom. The website adds that thank you notes are "considered the minimum courtesy toward the gift-giver to acknowledge the thoughtfulness and usefulness of the gift" (English, baby! 2012, webpage).

Therefore, since level A1.2 learners are expected to develop the pragmatic component of their communicative skills—along with the linguistic and sociolinguistic component, which were explained in the specs for year 8th EGB—they will have to not only be explained but also examine simple samples and produce write brief *thank you notes* that may foster simple but thought- provoking and interesting discussions.

Teachers can first explain to students that if they travel to the United States, for example, and someone gives them a gift to honor their arrival, their birthday, a holiday or any other occasion, it is best to write them a card thanking them for the gift (English, baby!, 2012, webpage).

An example given by the same online community is shown below and teachers can use it as a reference:

> Dear Mrs. Robinson,
>
> Thank you so much for the bracelet you gave me for my birthday. It will always remind me of you and of my visit to your city. I appreciate your thinking of me.
>
> Warm regards,
>
> Kaya

What is important for learners is to notice four basic elements from the sample: (1) greeting the giver, (2) expressing gratitude as in the first statement (and appreciation for the gesture when receiving money, for example, but not directly mentioning the cash denomination or amount), (3) mentioning the past and alluding to the future (as in the second statement), and (4) expressing grace once more before the final regards (English, baby!, 2012, webpage).

As a follow up and once learners have been able to produce an invitation card themselves, a short discussion on why students think the custom of sending "thank you" notes in the U.S has faded can take place (e.g. learners may assume people don't take the time to write a thank you note or claim that new generations weren't taught that is the polite thing to do, for example). Finally, a cross-cultural discussion on what learners think about writing "thank you" notes and what people do in Ecuador when they receive a gift and can also be initiated.

---

72. *http://www.englishbaby.com*

3.2.5.1 Assessment Indicators

Level A1.2 learners will be able to:

- Copy familiar words and short phrases (e.g. simple signs, instructions, names of everyday objects, shops, and set phrases used regularly).

- Take simple notes from a dictated or recorded message within the limits of their vocabulary for the level.

- Write sequences of simple phrases and sentences about themselves and imaginary people, where they live and what they do for short *informational*, *transactional* and *expository* texts (e.g. flyers, posters, personal letters, autobiographies, etc.) by using basic appropriate punctuation marks.

- Conduct correspondence (e.g. personal letter) with a partner, giving and eliciting information and advice on personal, educational, and public issues.

3.2.6 Specifications for reflecting on English linguistic elements

Level A1.2 students should efficiently manage language that is functional to the spoken and written texts they will produce. Details on the proposed functions, vocabulary, and grammar that will be studied are given below:

Type of discourse	Skill	Function	Exponents	
			Structures	Vocabulary
Spoken Written	Reading Speaking Listening Writing	• Expressing likes, dislikes and preferences • Offering, accepting or refusing something • Discussing food, music, sports, shows, etc. • Expressing abilities.	Food items (national & international) TV shows (national & international) Movie genres Music genres (national & international) Local sports Action verbs (e.g. swim, dance, etc.)	Simple present: like, love, prefer Expressions of quantity: a/an, some, any Count/Non- count nouns Would like What kind of…? How about? Questions: how many, how much Quantifiers: many, much So, too, either & neither
Spoken Written	Speaking Listening Reading Writing	• Talking about habitual actions • Talking about times of the day • Talking about frequency	Daily routines Weekend activities TV programs Types of music	Simple present tense: third person endings. Verbs to have/ to make: have/make lunch/ dinner/breakfast. Adverbs of frequency: usually, always, often, etc. Time expressions: in the morning, at night, every day, etc. Adverbs: before, after, then Preposition: by + means of transportation Question words: When & How often
Spoken Written	Reading Speaking Listening Writing	• Describing places • Locating people and places • Asking for clarification	Local places in a city, town (airport, grocery store, bank, etc.) Compound nouns (movie theater, food court, shopping mall, etc.)	There is/ there are Affirmative and negative statements with there is/ there are Yes/ no questions with there is/are Prepositions of place: at vs. in, on the corner (of), across from Adverbs: near, far. Conjunction: or

Skills	Functions	Topics/Vocabulary	Language Structures
Spoken Written Listening Speaking Reading Writing	• Talking about actions happening now • Asking for and giving or refusing permission • Talking on the phone • Expressing approval and disapproval	House and furniture Local places in a city, town Common activities in a city or town Apologies Expressions of opinion	Present progressive tense (action verbs) Verb + prepositions: to, for (studying for, listening to, etc.) Can/ may used to ask for permission. I'm sorry That's all right/too bad, etc.
Spoken Written Reading Speaking Writing Listening	• Describing people and events in the past • Talking about lifestyles (past vs. present) • Saying where one was and what was there. • Expressing good wishes and leave- takings. • Expressing and responding to gratitude	The neighborhood Past and present famous people Months of the year Days of the week Expressions for good wishes (E.g. Have a nice...; Give my regards/best wishes to) Greetings & leave taking expressions (E.g. Welcome...; I hope to see you again) Gratitude expressions (E.g. Thanks a lot; that's very kind of you, etc.)	Past tense verb to be: was/were (all forms) Affirmative, negative statements, yes/ no and information questions and answers. There was/ there were How long…?
Spoken Written Reading Speaking Writing Listening	• Talking about past actions • Giving opinions about past experiences • Contrasting the past & the future	Leisure activities First-time and last-time experiences Collocations (do, go, have, etc.) Chores and activities Occupations	Simple past tense: regular and irregular verbs Affirmative, negative statements, yes/ no & information questions and answers Expressions of time: last, yesterday, ago, in... Future with will There will/ won' t be

References

Brown, D. (2007). *Teaching by principles. An interactive approach to language pedagogy.* New York, NY: Pearson Longman.

Bedjou, A. (2006). Using radio programs in the EFL classroom. *English Teaching Forum, 44, 1*, 28-31.

Byrne, D. (1997). *Teaching oral English.* England, UK: Longman.

Cameron, L. (2001). Teaching languages to young learners. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

CAL Center for Applied Linguistics & the National Center for Family Literacy (2010). Activities to promote interaction and communication in the *Practitioner Toolkit: Working with Adult English Language Learners*. Retrieved from: http://www.cal.org/adultspeak/instruction/instructional-activity-packets.html

Council of Europe. (2003). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. United Kingdom, U.K: Cambridge University Press.

Di Pietro, R. J. (1987). *Strategic interaction: Learning languages through scenarios.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Duke, N. & Benett-Armistead, V.S. (2003). *Reading and writing informational text in the primary grades. Research-based practices*. United States of America, USA: Scholastic, Inc.

Fairclough, N. (1995). Discourse analysis: The critical study of Language. London, UK: Longman.

Fenner, D., Leitenberg, G. & Andersen, N. (2001). *Cross- curricular literacy: Key strategies for improving secondary students' reading and writing skills*. Toronto District School Board, Library and learning resources.

Harmer, J. (2010). *How to teach English.* England, UK: Pearson Longman.

Harmer, J. (2010). *The practice of english language teaching*. England, UK: Pearson Longman.

Howarth, P. (2006). Register and degrees of formality. *British Council BBC, Teaching English*. Retrieved from http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/articles/register-degrees-formality on April 22, 2012.

Hudson, T. (2011). *Teaching Second Language Reading*. United Kingdom, UK: Oxford University Press.

Huston, K. (2008). Writing an autobiography. An English paper that helps students write their personal histories. *In Middle/Highschool at suite 101*. Available at: http://suite101.com/article/autobiography-assignment-part-1-a74414

Kelly, Ch., Kelly, L., Offner, M. & Vorland, B. (2002). Effective ways to use authentic materials with ESL/ EFL students. *The Internet TESL journal. Volume VII, 11.* Retrieved from: http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Kelly-Authentic.html

Maggs, A. (2007). Teaching graded poster presentations to ESL/EFL students. *The Internet TESL Journal, volume XIII, 11.* Retrieved from: http://iteslj.org/Lessons/Maggs-GradedReaderPosters.html

Mejía, P. (2010). *Módulo de Didáctica del Idioma II*. Quito- Ecuador: UCE, Didactic Compilation Series, System Graphic.

Murphy, R. (1995). *From practice to performance: A manual of teacher training workshop activities*. Volume 1, Washington, D.C: English Language Programs Division. United States Information Agency.

Murphy, R. (1997). *From practice to performance: A manual of teacher training workshop activities*. Volume 2, Wahsington, D.C: English Language Programs Division. United States Information Agency.

NorQuest College. (2010). Multi-level ESL lesson plans, level 6. Based on the ESL resource package for Alberta Communities. Rural Routes Initiative. Retrieved from: http://www.norquest.ca/pdf/edresources/RRI_MLLP_CLB_6.pdf

Nuttall, C. (1996). *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language.*Oxford: Heinemann.

Richards, J.C. & Renandya, W.A. (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. & Schmidt, R. (2010). *Dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics.* Great Britain, UK: Longman.

Spratt, M., Pulverness, A. & Williams, M. (2008). *The TKT: Teaching knowledge Test Course*. United Kingdom, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Trim, J. (2009). *Breakthrough: An objective at Level A1 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR), based on the model employed for the Council of Europe publications Waystage 1990 (A2), Threshold 1990 (B1) and Vantage (B2), revised in the light of CEFR.* Retrieved from: http://www.englishprofile.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=45:availability-of-breakthrough-draft-specification-&catid=901:news&Itemid=9

TUC union learn. (2012). *Unit 3: Writing notes and memos in Writing at work*. Getting on at work framework (GoaW framework), support material. Retrieved from: www.unionlearn.org.uk/extrasUL/Initiatives/GoaW/WritingWork/WAW%20unit%204_HH_Proofed_CT_PDF.pdf

White, G. (2008). *Listening*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Yigitoglu, N. (2007). Using supermarket flyers in ESL/EFL classes. *The Internet TESL Journal, volume XIII, 7.* Retrieved from: http://iteslj.org/Lessons/Yigitoglu-SupermarketFlyers.html

Vaux, R. (2010). *How to write a short biography in eHow*. Retrieved from: http://www.ehow.co.uk/how_4780928_write-short-biography.html

Ministerio
de **Educación**

www.educacion.gob.ec