UNIVERSITAT DE VIC

TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION DEPARTMENT

LEARNING ENGLISH THROUGH TRANSLATION:

THE AFFECTIVITY AND DIVERSITY APPROACH

DOCTORAL THESIS

PRESENTED BY CRISTINA MALLOL MACAU

DIRECTED BY MARIA GONZÁLEZ DAVIES

Vol. I

VIC, 2006

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My most sincere gratitude to all those who have been asking me again and again through all these years: "Com va la tesi?"

Thanks also to my mother, my father, my brother and my grandparents for their perennial love, support and faith in me. Thanks to my in-law family for their encouragement.

My recognition to Miquel for his endless enthusiasm and unswerving support, for his guidance, love and patience. In many ways this has been a joint venture and a joint achievement.

And finally thanks to my daughter, Abril, for her patience when her mother could not play with her and had to be at the computer, yet again!

Thanks to every one of them.

To Miquel and Abril

If you give a man a fish, he will have a single meal.
If you teach him how to fish, he will eat all his life.

(Kwan – Tzu, 300 a. c.)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

VOLUME I

VOLUME II

I. ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations

ABMT	Analogy-based machine translation
ADA	Affectivity and Diversity Approach
ADPRIMA	Assessment, diagnosis, prescription, reticulation, instruction, motivation and assessment
AI	Artificial intelligence
AMPA	Associació de mares i pares d'alumnes or pupils' parents' association
ASTP	Army specialized training programme
BAGEL	Body posture, accessing cues, gestures, eye movements and language
BG	Big group
C	Control group of students
CAH	Contrastive analysis hypothesis
CLL	Community Language Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
DESC	Described, evaluated, solved and continue
DF	Difficult words
DS	Deep structures
DTS	Descriptive Translation Studies
E	Experimental group of students
EQ	Emotional quotient

ESO	Educación secundária obligatória or compulsory secondary education
Ex	External
Existen.	Existencial
FAHQT	Fully automatic high quality translation
FL	Foreign language
FLA	Foreign language acquisition
FLC	Foreign language class
FLL	Foreign language learning
H_1	Hypothesis one
H_2	Hypothesis two
H_3	Hypothesis three
HQ	High quality
i	Input
I	Internal
Interper.	Interpersonal
Intraper.	Intrapersonal
IQ	Intelligence quotient
Kinaes.	Kinaesthetic
L1	Mother tongue or first language
L2	Second language
LA	Language acquisition
Linguis.	Linguistic
LL	Language learning
MI	Multiple Intelligences
Natura.	Naturalistic
NLP	Neuro-Linguistic Programming
OB-Mod	Organisational Behaviour Modification
PA	Programació d'aula or Classroom syllabus
PAT	Pla d'acció tutorial or Tutorial Action Plan
PC	Projecte curricular or Curriculum Project
PE	Pojecte educatiu or Educational Project
R	Receiver
RBMT	Rule-based machine translation

RRI	Reglament de règim intern or Regulations Governing School Organisation
S	Sender
SG	Small group
SL	Source language
SLA	Second language acquisition
SMART	Specific, timed, acceptable, realizable and measurable
SMOG	Simplified measure of gobbledygook
SS	Surface structures
ST	Source text
T	Text
TAP	Thinking Aloud Protocols
TL	Target language
TOTE	Test, operate, test and exit
TPR	Total Physical Response
TT	Target text
UG	Universal Grammar
VAK	Visual, auditory and kinaesthetic
VAKOG	Visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, olfactory and gustatory
W	Whole class

II. INTRODUCTION

Introduction

"Learning to learn is the lifelong shadow of learning itself."

(Claxton 1999: 9)

This sentence applies to students as well as to teachers. Learning something concrete is not as essential as learning how to learn, which will last a life-time and can be applied to all subject matters. To become an effective learner/teacher one should be aware of one's own potentials, strategies and learning styles and processes. Furthermore, and as will be developed throughout the thesis, the effect of context is also extremely powerful for the learning-teaching process.

Through this dissertation many of the items one should bear in mind while learning about the way one learns and, consequently, while improving teaching practice, are established. Present education systems are accused of not meeting the challenges of the twenty-first century, and it may be because individual learning physical and psychological backgrounds have not been sufficiently taken into consideration while designing the school syllabuses.

An important assumption of this dissertation is that learning to teach is a continuum of: practice, analysis and reflection. The teacher-as-researcher figure has been lately encouraged through the most recent educational literature. Teacher-researchers try to investigate the particular individuals, actions, guidelines, and events that comprise their work, in order to take pedagogical decisions and undertake action that will help them improve their job, and their students learn better.

The research carried out in this thesis is moved by a quest to improve learning practice by changing it, and learning from the change. First of all, we should clarify that this investigation is guided by some social concerns:

- Regardless of the amount of time students spend in the classroom setting learning a foreign language, frequently their reading accuracy in that particular language is far from being suitable.

- Often, the learners' motivation to learn is low and they might not even consciously realise it.

- Some students are not very respectful with others and that might possibly be because of the fact that they may not perceive others –or the others' way of thinking and/or way of life, to be particularly enriching.

Having these current abovementioned worries present, and after going through a self-reflective spiral of: planning, acting, observing and reviewing, this dissertation means to propose a new teaching-learning framework: the Affectivity and Diversity Approach (ADA). This thesis tries to show how ADA can be useful while being applied in the foreign language classroom. Obviously, this approach does not intend to be the only one, but another option for teachers when choosing from a wide variety of methods to use. ADA takes into account the students' Multiple Intelligences (MI) as well as their different perceptual styles. ADA also works under most of the Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) presuppositions –or conscious reflections about the world, people around us and about ourselves– that could help students inside and outside the English classroom setting. Summarizing, ADA tries to consider the **context** of any learning process: the student environmental and physical elements, sociological elements, psychological elements and pedagogical elements.

Therefore, with all these aspects in mind, the teaching practice tends to mix affection and individual attention in its praxis. In addition, this dissertation also deals with translation in the foreign language class (FLC). The idea that translation tasks were to be forbidden in the FLC was widely prevalent not long ago. Translation tasks and activities were said not to be appropriate to learn a foreign language (Lado 1964; Beardsmore 1982; Faerch and Kasper 1983; Brown 2002). However, experience tells us

that students tend to rely on their mother tongue (L1) when faced with a new language –at least at beginner stages (Duff 1992; Malmkjaer 1998; Macaro 2003). Nowadays, the idea that translation tasks –obviously not grammar-translation type of tasks– are not dreadful for the FLC is widely spread but not widely accepted yet (Anton & DiCamilla 1998; Prodromou 2001a; Deller & Rinvolucri 2002; González Davies 2002b). This dissertation wants also to provide evidence that, when used appropriately, translation can be helpful to improve the language level of the learners, as well as to increase their motivation through a feeling-secure-learning-to-use-translation process.

Summarizing, the theoretical framework of this dissertation draws from studies on:

- foreign language learning,
- translation,
- reading accuracy,
- Neuro-Linguistic Programming,
- multiculturality,
- Multiple Intelligences and
- motivation.

The educational practice was carried out during the academic year 2004-2005, after a pilot study, in a La Salle school in Figueres with two groups of students taking the 4th year of ESO: the control group and the experimental group. All students in the 4th year of ESO are divided in four level groups: low, intermediate, high-intermediate and high. As the groups were not modified in any way for the purposes of this investigation, because action-research on pedagogical issues should be based on real life situations so that it can be transferable to other teaching contexts, two of the aforesaid groups were chosen. The control group was the high-intermediate and the experimental group was the high one. Even though their level was a bit different, a pre- and post-test was designed to make the research results as accurate as possible, obviously, bearing in mind this variable.

The major aims were:

1. To develop motivating reading comprehension activities to be carried out by 15 to 16 year old students.

2. To obtain data on the benefits of using translation in the foreign language classroom.

3. To observe the effects of considering ADA when carrying out the classroom tasks.

4. To make students realise that the cultural exchange that occurs inevitably while learning English will enrich them.

To prove whether the aforementioned objectives were reached, a quasi-experimental educational action-research is used. This is a systematic learning process for teachers where critical intellect informs their own performance, and develops them so that individual educational action can be effective to and for others. This investigation employs the sociocritic paradigm to throw light on a hypothesis testing course of action thus reflecting on a newly designed teaching approach (ADA).

For the first, second and third abovementioned objectives, a hypothesis on motivation (H_1) was originated:

- Motivation in the English class improves if translation activities that explore ADA are implemented.

That is the reason why a body of motivating tasks and projects that have ADA in mind was created (see appendix 33). This body of tasks is a mixture of activities reshaped from books, teacher courses and own creativity. All activities' sources are specified, except for the ones that were specifically created for this study. Each task and project follows a similar structure: title, timing, material needed, appendices related, objectives, a description of the activities to be done in the classroom setting and, finally, three tables where the types of intelligences, the modes of perception and the

hypotheses involved are identified. These details are rather helpful while dealing with each and every one of the tasks in the classroom setting.

For the same first, second and third aims, a hypothesis on reading accuracy (H_2) was formulated:

- The explicit use of translation framed by ADA can lead to a significant improvement in English reading accuracy.

Students are accustomed to translation, but they have never been taught how they should employ it in a positive way. As the use of translation cannot be avoided on the one hand, and I argue that can be beneficial in foreign language learning (FLL) on the other, the first endeavour is to teach learners word-for-word non-correspondence and, from this point, go on practicing through real-life activities. All the translation tasks proposed are framed by a consideration of individuals and individual contextual conditions.

For the third and fourth objectives, a hypothesis on culture (H_3) was devised:

- The consideration and work on ADA while dealing with English texts makes students improve their culture of the Anglo-Saxon world.

Some students tend to be not very respectful with other cultures, as they think that their own is the best one. It may be due to the fact that their knowledge of other cultures is limited to stereotypes. Through a considerable amount of oral and written texts and some tasks –with ADA in mind– prepared to work on them, the students can develop their perceptions and can increase their knowledge of the Anglo-Saxon culture.

From the hypotheses formulated, one can deduce that ADA has a central part in this dissertation. And, thus, the final step of this thesis is to check whether all these hypotheses have been accomplished. This would give a clue on the possibilities and potentials of ADA.

Dissertation structure

This thesis has been divided into seven sections: 1. Abbreviations, 2. Introduction, 3. Theoretical Framework, 4. Educational Practice, 5. Discussion, Conclusions and Further Research, 6. Bibliography and 7. Appendices.

The first section, "Abbreviations", is meant to clarify any acronym to facilitate the reading process. The second section, "Introduction", contains a general view of the action-research project carried out for this dissertation.

In the "Theoretical Framework" section there are three chapters. In the first chapter a big chunk of content is a revision of the literature written about the way languages –either first, second or foreign languages– are acquired and/or learned, and the different theories, approaches and methods to teach them. Special emphasis is put on Neuro-Linguistic Programming, which would help reinforce the Affectivity and Diversity Approach mainly in its affectivity field.

In the second chapter one can find an initial frame of reference to set down the foundations of ADA through a theoretical scaffold. This second chapter is subdivided into four subchapters. First of all, there is a suggestion to comprise the whole context the learners are in while learning, that is to say, all the physical, sociological, psychological and pedagogical elements that surround any learning process. Then, the focus turns to the learners themselves and their psychological skills. Here, the Multiple Intelligences theories play an important part, as every learner has a unique profile. After that, the sequences of a learning process are established. All the above mentioned

sections deal with the learners particular individual characteristics, which ADA takes into account. Thus, in the fourth subchapter ADA is specifically delimited.

The third chapter deals with the use of translation in the foreign language classroom. First of all, there is an overview of the main approaches to translation followed by present day trends. Afterwards, there is a translation model proposal guided by other scholars' models. Finally, the last division of this chapter deals with the advantages and disadvantages of using translation tasks in the foreign language class as well as the teacher's and student's requirements to put it into practice.

The fourth chapter, which starts the fourth section: "Educational Practice", is extremely useful to situate the reader in the actual context of the research that is going to take place. That means, for example, the weight of the English language in the curricular design, the school and classroom atmosphere, the human, spatial and material resources the English teacher has available, as well as the English class dynamics. After that, the teacher's, parents' and students' roles are defined. Finally, the evaluation criteria and the remedial work to improve the learning practice are established among other information that can be of utmost importance to the investigation.

The fifth chapter is exclusively devoted to the quasi-experimental educational action-research itself. First of all, the objectives and the hypotheses are formulated; subsequently the different type of data collected (either quantitative or qualitative) is divided between the instruments to check the hypotheses and the other instruments used to redirect the research practice. Then, the data is analysed throughout different graphs and, at the end, some conclusions are drawn.

In the fifth section, after some broad discussions, general conclusions are established to verify whether ADA is considered to be an appropriate approach to be put into practice in the foreign language classroom.

The sixth section lists all the references consulted during the completion process of this dissertation: either books, magazines, newspapers, web pages or even lectures.

Finally, the seventh section provides the reader with the necessary material to follow this dissertation: the activities, tasks and projects used in class; some students' productions; as well as other types of useful information that have enlightened this research.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1. Setting the foundations for foreign language learning

Most people know what learning is though it is hard to define. According to Jeremy Harmer (2004: 25), in the field of foreign language learning, learning ought to consist of three steps:

A. **engagement**: the person should be engaged. Learners have to be interested and motivated to learn (see point 2.1.4) and this can be attained involving individuals' feelings and emotions (see also point 1.1.4.12).

B. The effectiveness of the learning will depend upon the **studying**. Not only formal school settings are important to learn, society in general and family in particular are other good sources of learning. The need to learn leads to the need to study (formal or informal) and, consequently, to the learning or, in some cases, to the acquisition (see below) of what is required.

C. **Activation** is the last step. When learners activate their knowledge, it means that they have consolidated it and that they are able to put it into practice (see point 2.3.7).

However, when one looks at the way people learn in the school setting, one can think that learning refers only to two components: a process (studying) and a product (activation); that is to say the mental recording of the information we have been exposed to and the results from the recording. Following this traditional two-component classification, we could say that learning is the processing of information we encounter,

which guides us to changes or an enlargement in our knowledge and abilities (Paolo 2004). Fincher (1994) also defines learning, following the two-component classification, as a course of progressive change from ignorance to knowledge, from inability to competence, and from ignorance to understanding.

But, where does the engagement process appear in these definitions? Is it finally important? Loris Malaguzzi (1993) describes learning as a satisfying experience. He goes on saying that once learners are assisted to view themselves as authors or inventors, once they are helped to discover the pleasure of inquiry, their motivation and interest explodes. In this definition, motivation and, thus, engagement starts to be considered an important issue. Sylwester (1995) defines learning by saying that body and brain form a learning duet and most sensory stimuli are filtered by the individual's emotions, shaped by their interrelationships and their physical surrounding. Hence, it can be inferred that despite the fact that learning can be defined as a two component classification, these two aforementioned scholars, among others, consider the affective engagement as fundamental for meaningful learning.

Going a bit further, another completely different definition for learning worth mentioning is the one uttered by Hart (1983). He states that learning is acquiring mental programs. Mental programs allow humans to use the patterns they have identified, understood and internalised. The way mental programs organise the information in the brain will be discussed later on (see point 2.3.4), but a concept that may seem identical to learning has arisen from this last definition: acquisition. However, **learning** and **acquisition** should be distinguished, as they will be two concepts frequently used during this dissertation. The leading difference between acquisition and learning, in the second language learning context, is, as claimed by Krashen (1982: 10):

> Acquisition is a process similar, if not identical, to the way children develop ability in their first language. Language acquisition is a subconscious process; language acquirers are not usually aware of the fact that they are acquiring language. (...) The result of language acquisition, acquired competence, is also subconscious. We are generally not consciously aware of the rules of the languages we have acquired. Instead, we have a "feel" for correctness. (...) Another way to develop competence in a second language is by language learning. We will use the term "learning" henceforth to refer to conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and

being able to talk about them. In non-technical terms, learning is "knowing about" a language, known to most people as "grammar", or "rules."

Acquisition is seen as an ongoing process. It is "concrete, immediate and confined to a specific activity; it is not concerned with general principles" (Rogers 2003: 18). Some have referred to this kind of learning as unconscious or implicit. However, Rogers (2003: 21) suggests that even though learners might not be conscious of learning, they are usually aware of the specific task in hand. The concept "learning" arises from the process of assisting learning; "learning itself is the task. What formalised learning does is to make learning more conscious in order to enhance it" (Rogers 2003: 27). As Smith (2003) states these different ways of learning can emerge in the same situation. So, in many circumstances, acquisition and learning can be seen as forming a whole; in some activities, individuals are more conscious of learning and in others they are more task-centred.

From this reflection it can be inferred that our First Language (L1) is, in a great part, acquired (mother corrections, for example, help children learn the L1). To acquire any mother tongue or L1, a capacity to produce and understand language is needed, but is this capacity innate? This is a question without an only answer as there are many scholars that discuss the pros and the cons of this statement; the teacher-researcher will not delve too deeply into this matter (see point 1.1.1.2). On the other hand, another question individuals should ask themselves is: "Is learning characterised by consciousness?" According Krashen (1982) the answer would be: yes.

McCombs and Whisler (1997) define the acquisition-learning process as natural, as people normally want to attain personal objectives. The acquisition-learning process is an active and internal practice to discover and construct meaning from information and experience. Experience plays an exceptionally essential part in the learning process. Neurologists such as D. C. Chugani (Professor of Pediatrics, Neurology and Radiology at Wayne State University) (in Chugani & Chugani 2003), have discovered how the brain can be altered permanently if an individual does not have a mind-record of past experiences. Nevertheless, in the aforementioned definition of the acquisition-learning process, there are other clue concepts that will be dealt with during this dissertation: active, internal, discover and construct, meaning and information.

Learning as well as teaching are terms embraced by the concept "education". The learning process in the education field can be seen as a self-nourishing practice, while teaching can be perceived as an assisted exploration and help to obtain knowledge. Education begins even before a baby is born and continues throughout life. So, daily life experience is even more instructive than formal education or schooling.

A school is any site designated for learning. The range of institutions covered by this term varies from country to country. Although the learning-acquisition process can take place in many different situations, this thesis will focus on a formal school or place of learning and understanding that challenges the students' intellect in many subject areas, as it is where "professional teachers"[1] can exert a biggest effect.

1.1. Language learning and language teaching

Before writing about Foreign Language Acquisition (FLA), the key issue in this dissertation, the teacher-researcher shall set down other concepts she would not like to take for granted. First of all, she will start with possible definitions of the most basic concept: **language**.

> Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols. (Sapir 1921: 8)

> A language is a 'finite or infinite' set of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements. (Chomsky 1957: 93)

It is worth saying, though, that according to Lyons (1981: 1) the question: "What is language?" is comparable to the question "What is life?" They are both complex sentences difficult to define. It is not the question itself that is ambiguous but the possible interpretations that it could have. I agree with Lyons and I would like to add

_____

[1] Although relatives, peers, mates… can be teachers in specific situations, as they can help individuals to acquire knowledge, they are not considered "professional teachers". By "professional teachers" I mean any member of the teaching staff one finds in formal schools and who have been through an official training programme.

that there is a great range of applications of the word "language", so I would need a full book to explain this concept. However, I would like to propose here an operative definition to clarify the concept "language" in the notions: "foreign language learning" and "foreign language acquisition":

1. The words, their pronunciation, and the methods of combining them used and understood by a considerable community and established by long usage. 2.a. Audible, articulate, meaningful sounds as produced by the action of the vocal organs. 2.b. A systematic means of communicating ideas or feelings by the use of conventionalised signs, sounds, gestures, or marks having understood meanings. 2.c. An artificially constructed primarily formal system of signs and symbols (as symbolic logic) including rules for the formation of admissible expressions and for their transformation. 2.d. The means by which animals communicate or are thought to communicate with each other. 3. The faculty of verbal expression and the use of words in human intercourse... significant communication. 4. A special manner or use of expression. (Webster 1961: 562)

One has now a notion of the complexity of defining a word that could seem very simple at the beginning. I would also like to suggest my own operative definition: *language is a system of oral, written or gestured meaningful signs used consciously or unconsciously to communicate with members of a given community. And all these signs, which are different according to each society, are also regulated by different rules*. From this definition, the approaches to language learning and acquisition relevant to this research can be outlined.

1.1.1. Overview of the main pedagogical approaches to L1 and FL learning and teaching

At this point, when one has a clearer idea about what language is, we can start talking about the learning or acquisition of a language. One should bear in mind that no one knows perfectly well how languages work in our brain; it is an extremely complicated field of study. Two main areas have been studied: the Broca area and the Wernicke area. Its respective names come from the scientists who discovered them.

The Broca area is involved with motor elaboration of all movements for expressive language. Wernicke's area is classically considered to be the receptive language, or language comprehension centre. Both of them have been classified from the damage of the parts involved in the brain of a sick person (Guyton 1992: 663).

Finally, another part of the brain essential to be able to use language is the cerebellum, which has been discovered as an extremely vital structure that can help motor and non-motor regions, both of which are needed for the emergence of fluent human language (Leiner & Leiner 1997).

Even though this lack of scientific knowledge is a fact, Ausubel (in Anderson & Ausubel 1965: 8) stated that: "Learning takes place through a meaningful process of relating new events or items to already existing cognitive concepts or prepositions". Although this statement is a good starting point, I want to clarify that I think that emotional aspects should also be considered. Going back to the definition, it means that new individual items that come into the head of any human being, always have to be connected to existing knowledge for learning to occur meaningfully.

All knowledge is open up to further learning. The construction of any knowledge requires planning because individuals' minds are like a network system. Although people are born without a guide to help them use their intellect, individuals learn how to use it (Kotulak 2001). Kotulak is reaffirming what many other scholars think (see point 2.3.4). Nearly everybody is capable of learning how to learn, and motivation is one of the most important factors that contribute to enlarge our intellectual capacity.

1.1.1.1. Theories of language

Exploring the language concept, one should bear in mind the three theories of language which, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001: 23-24), are:

- **Structural**

Language is a system of related elements to codify meaning.

- **Functional**

Language is a vehicle to express a functional meaning, so communication is the most essential thing.

- **Interactive**

Language is a vehicle to develop personal relations and social transactions among individuals.

These language theories will lead, evidently, to different theories of language acquisition.

1.1.1.2. Theories of language acquisition

According to the theories of Language Acquisition (LA), in his *Encyclopaedia of Language* (1998: 236-237) Crystal proclaims that there are four:

- **Imitation**

LA has long been thought of as a process of imitation and reinforcement. Children copy the utterances heard around them. The adult provides them with corrections and that is how children construct their language.

- **Innateness**

The limitation of the imitation theory leads to innateness. Children must be born with an innate capacity for language development which prepares the human brain to be ready to acquire a language.

- **Cognition**

Language acquisition must be viewed within the context of a child's intellectual development. Linguistic structures will emerge if there is an established cognitive foundation.

- **Input**

The input children receive is very important; parents do not talk to their children in the same way as they talk to an adult. This adaptation is what one calls Motherese or Parentese, and it facilitates language acquisition.

1.1.1.3. Some approaches to L1 acquisition

There are a couple of central approaches to L1 acquisition:

- **the Socioconstructivist Approach** whose main figure is Vygotsky, and
- **the Constructivist Approach** represented by Piaget.

As will be asserted later on (see point 2.1.3), the socioconstructivist approach views "social interaction as primary for development" (Hickmann, Fletcher & Garman 1986: 9). Vygotsky talks about a very important concept in the world of children's development, central to this approach: "the zone of proximal development" (in Hickmann, Fletcher & Garman 1986: 9), that is, the period that goes from when the child cannot solve a problem on his/her own and desperately needs interaction, called "scaffolding", with other people till when (s)he can reach a solution alone. On the other hand, according to Piaget (1969), the constructivist approach perceives individual cognitive processes as being extremely important in development. A notional functional approach followed which considered that "different notions of context, functions and intentions have been used to interpret child language in other frameworks" (Hickmann, Fletcher & Garman 1986: 9). This approach was very popular and has been widely used.

1.1.1.4. Stages of L1 acquisition

What is clear is that there are many stages of L1 acquisition. According to Crystal (1998: 236), these stages can be classified in:

- **Prelinguistic stage**

It is constituted by the period of basic biological noises: laughing, vocal play and babbling period. It occurs when the child produces the first sounds which, to some degree, resemble words.

- **Linguistic stage**

It is formed by several periods: The holographic (where children use invented words that have a clear meaning for their authors), the two-words period (the child already puts two words together to be understood), the telegraph (the boy or girl is nearly able to construct sentences, though only the main words are used) and, finally, the whole language period (where the child has already acquired and learned the adults' language).

At this point, and before going any further, I would like to differentiate between hypotheses, approaches, theories, methods and techniques because I have found many controversies among ways of defining these words, and it will also help to clarify further statements. In this study, a **hypothesis** or supposition is an idea which has to be

checked in order to be considered feasible. An **approach** or **theory** is a group of specified hypothesis, a way of seeing things. A **method** is the level at which the theory is put into practice, a concrete way of doing or a way of applying thoughts. A **technique** is the use of a group of procedures, i.e. what teachers apply in a classroom, i.e. everyday reality (Pym 1963: 63-67). Summing up, and according to Richards & Rogers (1986: 16), "a method is theoretically related to an approach, is organisationally determined by a design, and is practically realized in procedure".

1.1.2. Learning a second or foreign language

At this moment, one could wonder whether other languages are learned the same way as the mother tongue is acquired. Despite the fact that there are "nativist" views of L2 or FL acquisition that assume, explicitly or implicitly, that somehow learning an FL can be like acquiring an L1 (e.g. Communicative Language Teaching (see point 1.1.4.3)), learning a foreign language is according to O'Neill (1988) very different from acquiring the mother tongue because:

- maybe the FL is not an essential life-skill in the same way the L1 is.
- FL learning is not often an essential aspect of an individual's general development.
- There could be a kind of conscious or unconscious resistence to FL learning.

While the above arguments can be discussed, a more scientific point of view is the one presented by Albert and Obler (1978). They argued that the FL is represented in the brain more globally than the L1 and that the right hemisphere plays a more important role in its representation. They went on stating that the cortical areas activated in response to FL learning are rather modest when compared to the network that responds to L1. So, one can deduce that excluding very concrete cases, L1 acquisition and FL learning are not alike.

Now, what is the difference between foreign and second language learning? In second language (L2) learning students are in contact with the language in their everyday life but in FL acquisition the practice of the language is all or nearly all restricted to the classroom setting (González Davies & Celaya 1992: 111-113).

Why should we learn second or foreign languages? Because, nowadays, languages are an important part of the real world to communicate with each other in all academic and professional fields. In the report by Colin Baker (2001: 21-23) there are ten advantages in language learning:

- Communication advantages:
1.   Wider communication.
2.   Literacy.
- Cultural advantages:
3.   Wider culture taking.
4.   Greater tolerance.
- Curriculum advantages:
5.   Increased curriculum achievements when both languages are well developed.
6.   Easier to learn a third or fourth language.
- Thinking advantages:
7.   Cognitive benefits.
- Character advantages:
8.   Raised self-esteem in knowing two, three... languages and cultures.
9.   Security in identity.
- Cash advantages:
10.   Economic and employment benefits.

Michael West (in Asher, Heys & West 1995) divides motivation into two types: inner or outer. An example of the former would be the interest to communicate with foreigners, or the desire to know another culture, that is to say, for personal satisfaction. An example of the latter would be the need to complete the school syllabus in order to obtain a diploma. All students should be motivated in order to learn, the more motivated, the quicker and the better they will learn. Since motivation is an important aspect to bear in mind, Celaya and González Davies (1992) also talk about it, and say there are two kinds of motivation: integrative and instrumental. The aim of the former is to interact with members of the Foreign Language (FL) speaking community. The aim of the latter is more specific, e.g. obtaining a post. But motivation is not always directed to what people want (see point 2.1.4).

David Crystal (1998: 362-378) also deals with motivation in the factors that contribute to satisfactory learning:

1. Nearly everybody can learn; one just needs: motivation, intelligence and opportunities.

2. Learning to learn is a central point, so the strategies are fundamental.

3. A regular exposition to the language.

4. Exposition to native speakers.

5. Choosing and graduating objectives.

6. Flexible didactic methods.

7. The possibility to learn more than one language.

8. The foreign language should be respected by those students respect (e.g. parents, teachers, etc.).

9. Competent teachers.

There are other factors claimed by Gass and Selinker (1993: 232-270) that contribute to successful language learning: the aptitude of the students (even if a language can be learned differently, students with a linguistic intelligence profile will be more eager to learn another language) (see point 2.2.1.1), the social-psychological factors (e.g. motivation, attitude) (see point 2.1.4), the personality (e.g. extroversion, introversion, risk taking, independence) (see point 2.2), anxiety (see also point 2.2), the cognitive style (see point 2.1.4.), the hemisphere specialisation (see point 2.3.2), the learning strategies used (see point 2.1.4), and the age of the learner (see below).

When should individuals start learning a second or foreign language? The earlier, the better, but in combination with "higher levels of exposure time" (Muñoz et al. 2003). A child is able to produce a wide range of sounds that adults, in general, find more difficult to generate because their system is sometimes blocked with their L1 sounds. That is why, although a lot may depend on many variables such as ability or even motivation, McLaughlin (1978) concludes one of his studies saying that the younger the better; and Larsen and Long (1997: 155) agree in saying "older is faster, but younger is better". Both statements may be true when referring to phonology, but it is also true that Gass and Selinker (1993/2001) have demonstrated that adults generally acquire better syntax than children, and that might be because according to a research study carried out by Muñoz, et al. (2003), adults have more resources to learn languages than young children, for example.

Bearing in mind all the aforementioned features, in my opinion, in the school setting, teachers should contribute to the students' learning by helping pupils "to learn to learn" (Ellis & Sinclair 1989) applying more learner and learning process centred approaches and letting respect for individuality grow. Teachers should also imply the students more in the teaching methodology: negotiating about course content, sharing information, encouraging discussion, helping learners become aware of the strategies, creating a proper environment, allowing learners to form their own conclusions, counselling, etc.

Finally, I agree with Bartram and Walton (1994: 2-3) when they say teachers should be in constant development. This means constant questioning of both the general principles by which teaching is guided, and the specific practice which is actually adopted. There should be a continuing refreshment and critique of what is and what should be happening in the classroom. As learners should become more and more responsible for their own learning, teachers must become more and more responsible for their own teaching. Thus, theories and methods for learning and teaching foreign languages should be constantly reconsidered.

1.1.3. Foreign language learning theories

There are different learning theories. Some are similar to acquisition theories and, hence, they relate L1 to an FL:

1.1.3.1. Conductism or Behaviourism

This theory is based on imitation and reinforcement. L1 influences positively when words or grammar structures in L1 are similar to FL; this is called positive transfer. Negative transfer occurs when words or grammar structures in L1 are different from FL (see point 3.1). The latter are errors that obstruct the language learning process. This theory is linked to the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). CAH is applied to compare English structure for example, through phonology, morphology, syntax or semantics, with a variety of other languages.

1.1.3.2. Cognitivism

According to this theory, languages are learned through stages. The interlanguage stage, for example, is a stage where students are in control of a language system that is neither equivalent to the L1 nor to the L2 or FL and that everyone has to go through (see page 130). According to this approach, people are creative, they formulate hypotheses in order to assimilate knowledge so errors inform about the learning process and, consequently, they are very useful. This method proclaims:

At first, learners have to pay attention to any aspect of the language and gradually through experience and practice they become able to use certain parts of their knowledge so automatically that they are not even aware of it. (Howatt 1985: 284).

1.1.3.3. Creative Construction

Chomsky (1980) states that learners construct inner representations or mental images of the language being learned. The inner processing is associated to input and acquisition occurs internally. According to these premises, Krashen & Terrell (1983) expose five central hypotheses:

1. Acquisition-learning hypothesis (as the teacher-researcher has already explained, according to Krashen, learning and acquisition are different concepts).
2. Monitor hypothesis (the learned system acts as a monitor or editor).
3. Natural order hypothesis (the easy rules are not necessarily the first to be acquired).
4. Input hypothesis (one acquires a language by receiving comprehensible input).
5. Affective filter hypothesis (it is an imaginary barrier which prevents from using input owing to the environment).

Krashen was very influential in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and many teachers followed these trends.

1.1.3.4. Interactionist View

Every learner is exposed to modified input because both comprehension and interaction are necessary for language acquisition. Learners have two kinds of linguistic information at their disposal: positive evidences, which refer to a set of well-formed utterances, and negative evidences which are information provided to a learner that his/her utterance is deviant in some way (Gass & Selinker 1993: 214-221).

These theories presented according to LightBrown and Spada (1995: 23-31), are based on the assumption that L1 and FL learning are similar. However, as I have argued in point 1.1.2, L1 acquisition and FL learning are different.

1.1.4. Resulting methods for teaching foreign languages

There are different ways of teaching a foreign language. The methods have changed through history as the linguistic competence required has changed through time. Now, the main aim of language study implies all four skills: reading, listening, speaking and writing, whereas in ancient times the objective was focused on the written expression and on reading. The change in the methodologies has also reflected the theoretical changes regarding the nature of language and its learning.

1.1.4.1. Grammar-Translation Method

The Grammar-Translation Method is an old method initiated in Greece and Rome. It was used to learn classical languages such as Latin, Greek, etc. According to Richards & Rodgers (2001: 11) "its aim was to know everything about anything more than the thing itself".

The characteristics of the Grammar-Translation Method were:

- Learn a language in order to be able to read its literature.
- Approach a language through the analysis of its grammar rules.
- Focus on reading and writing, not on the oral skills.
- Learn vocabulary words through bilingual lists.
- The more sentences one translates, the better. The sentences are basic units of meaning.

- Correction is the base of everything.

- Grammar is taught deductively.

- In order to learn, the teacher uses the student's L1. Comparisons are frequent.

- This method does not require much from the teacher, and the student is passive.

Kirsten Malmkjaer (1998: 5-6) mentions some critiques that this method received:

- Translation is independent of the four skills which define language competence: reading, writing, speaking and listening.

- Translation is radically different from the four skills.

- Translation takes up valuable time which could be sued to teach these four skills.

- Translation is unnatural.

- Translation misleads students into thinking that expressions in two languages correspond one-to-one.

- Translation prevents students from thinking in the foreign language.

- Translation produces interferences.

- Translation is a bad test of language skills.

- Translation is only appropriate for training translators.

The Grammar-Translation Method dominated the teaching of European languages and foreign languages for a long time, and today it is still used.

At the end of the 19th century an opposition to this method was developed. This reform movement put the basis for the new methods to teach languages.

1.1.4.2. Reform Movement

From 1880 linguists such as Sweet defended four principles of language teaching:

1. select what should be taught,
2. limit what should be taught,

3. distribute what should be taught in the four skills, and

4. grade the material used from simple to complex.

Around the end of the 19th century, Viëtor in Germany and Passy in France became interested in the practical aspects of language learning. Phonetics was established and it opened new perspectives to the speaking process. They considered speaking as one of the primary language skills, and one of their first objectives was to improve the teaching of modern languages.

They vindicate the following (in Richards & Rodgers 2001: 15-16):

- the study of the spoken language,

- a formation in phonetics in order to establish good pronunciation habits,

- the use of conversation texts and dialogues to introduce expressions into the oral language,

- an inductive methodology in grammar teaching, and

- the teaching of new meanings through the development of associations in the target language.

The reformists also believed that:

- the input should be first done orally, and

- the words should be presented in sentences and the sentences in contexts.

Within this reform movement one can distinguish between alternative methods to Grammar-Translation:

- **Phonetic Method**

With the Grammar-Translation Method, oral expression was not important. As a reaction, the phonetic field was thoroughly studied and considered essential to learn modern languages as they had to be used to communicate, understand and make oneself understood.

- **Natural Method**

Followers of this method held that FLA followed the same process as L1 acquisition. So, the FL was taught the same way as a child learns his/her L1. This method main features were:

- the introduction of spoken language is taught first, and

- the new words relate to the world referent.

1.1.4.3. Direct Method

This was a combination of the Phonetic and the Natural Methods and it was based on the involvement of the learner in speaking and listening to the FL in realistic situations. Learners were encouraged to think in their Target Language (TL) and translation was forbidden. Formal grammatical rules were avoided. It was not an easy method to use in the artificial setting of a classroom. This method was also known for its tolerance towards errors.

Berlitz was one of its scholars. Let me go through some of his principles (in Titone 1968: 100-101):

a) Do not translate: prove.

b) Do not explain: perform.

c) Do not make a lecture: ask.

d) Do not imitate errors: correct.

e) Do not use decontextualised words: use sentences.

f) Do not speak a lot: make students talk.

g) Do not use books: use your syllabus.

h) Do not go very quickly: follow the student's pace.

i) Do not talk very slowly: talk normally.

j) Do not be impatient: be calm.

As one can see above, the most important aspect of this method is that the student recovered importance and everything revolved round the learner.

Along the 20th century this method was slightly remodelled and its name changed. The first variant was called **Audio-Oral Method**. Again the phonetic field was emphasised as well as the oral work: listening and speaking. Its slogan describes

perfectly well the methodology being used: "The eye is the enemy of the ear" (Crystal 1998: 378).

In the late second half of the 20th century another variant appeared, but this time it was not based on the Direct but on the Audio-Oral Method, it was now named **Situational Language Teaching**. The most outstanding aspect of it is the importance that Firth, one of the theorists of this method, gives to context and situation saying that meaning depends on cultural context and that visual aids such as flashcards are essential. He sees language as a social ability, and he is the first to talk about the meaning of varieties of language and register.

After some years applying Situational Language Teaching, as with other methods, it was found that it did not work as well as expected.

> At the end of the 70s it seemed clear that the situational approach... had finished its run. There was no future in trying to predict the language through situations. What was needed was a thorough study of the language and promote a back trip to the traditional concept that said that the enunciations had meaning on their own and expressed the meanings and intentions of the speakers and of the authors that created them. (Howatt 1984: 280)

From then on **Communicative Approach** was one of the standards of language teaching.

1.1.4.4. Audio-Lingual Method

Also known as Aural-Oral Method, it views language as a process of habit formation. This method stems from Skinner's behaviourist theory and the emphasis lies on correction. Language is first heard and practised orally before being used in the written form. Structural patterns are imitated and drilled until the learner's responses become automatic. That is why this method was also called the Mim-Mem (Mime-Memorise) Method. They used L1-FL comparison to obtain positive and negative transfer.

One of the applications of this method was the **Army Specialised Training Programme (ASTP),** intensive teaching with a reduced number of motivated students

who had the need to learn. The teachers were native speakers and it gave really good results.

Later, Chomsky (1988: 5) reacted against behaviourism as he thought that: "language is rule-based creativity". According to this approach, grammar rules were based on universal principles. He invented a concept called Universal Grammar that "would account for the range of linguistic variation that is humanly possible" (in Crystal 1998: 84-85). According to Chomsky (1988: 5), language is acquired through "trial-and-error" processes, and errors are tolerated.

1.1.4.5. Audio-Visual Method

It was a method developed in France and was similar to the Audio-Lingual as it also used drills and emphasised oral work. There were two main differences: the Audio-Visual method used film-strips and picture sequences as visual aids and they considered communication as the basis for language learning.

1.1.4.6. Notional-Functional Method

This method, propounded by Wilkins, van Ek, Trim and Richterich, considers communicative competence to be the final aim. As the name of the method indicates, it is based on notions (general (abstract concepts) and specific (what people actually say)) and functions (the aim). The Notional-Functional Method teaches the four skills according to a strong interdependence between language and communication that one can perceive studying this method. As Littlewood (1981: 1) states: "one of the characteristics of communicative language teaching is that the functional aspects are as important as the structural ones".

1.1.4.7. Suggestopedia

This method, developed by Lozanov around 1978, is built on the science of suggestion. Crystal (1998: 379) explains: "The method is based on the view that the brain (especially the right hemisphere) has great unused potential which can be exploited through the power of suggestion". The main objective for the student is to achieve a good self-image in order to be predisposed to learn. The means is to provide

an atmosphere of total relaxation to convey that language learning is easy and natural. It draws attention to: the decoration, the furniture, the classroom organisation, the use of music, etc. Summing up, this theory is about manipulating the learner's concentration in order to obtain better results (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 138-148).

> ...three elements of the Lozanov Method are considered essential for the system to work effectively: (1) an attractive classroom (with soft lighting) and a pleasant classroom atmosphere; (2) a teacher with a dynamic personality who is able to act out the materials and motivate the students to learn; (3) a state of relaxed alertness in the students. (Krashen 1982: 143)

- **Inner Track, Silva Mind Control and Neuro-Linguistic Programming**

With the Inner Track method, students learn through games, plays and dialogues, and drills are excluded. González Davies & Celaya (1992: 35) state that "the Inner Track Method derives from Suggestopedia and draws on two methods, namely, **Silva Mind Control** and **Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP)** to make it less teacher centred". The teacher-researcher will deal with NLP later on (see point 1.1.4.12) as it is one of the key points in this dissertation.

1.1.4.8. The Silent Way

This method, put forward by Gattegno around 1972, tries to encourage learners to develop their own learning ways by reducing the teacher talk to a minimum. The teacher introduces limited FL vocabulary (maybe through charts) to enable students to talk from the very beginning.

1.1.4.9. Total Physical Response (TPR)

This method, proposed by Asher, stresses aural comprehension above all. The name derives from the actions students have to perform as they are given orders or commands. From time to time, these orders should be bizarre so as to catch the students' attention. Listening and body movement are essential parts of this method.

Another important premise is that learners do not have to talk unless they feel ready to do so.

Extensions of TPR are Winitz's **Comprehension Approach** and Winitz and Reeds' **Aural Discrimination Method** (González Davies & Celaya 1992: 36-37).

Almost no one teaching a foreign language method has possibilities to have success if it doesn't include a lot of class work consisting on the part of the student in performing the orders given by the teacher. (Palmer & Palmer 1959: 39)

1.1.4.10. Community Language Learning (CLL)

Advocated by Curran around 1972, this method is built on the idea of "whole person" relationships. The main goal is to build strong personal links between the teacher (counsellor) and the learner (client). Pupils talk naturally in their L1 and ask the teacher for FL equivalents. The instructor provides a translation and the student repeats it. CLL has the trainee in mind, it is student-centred, and tries to motivate the learners in order for them to assimilate the language better.

1.1.4.11. The Natural Approach

Developed by Krashen and Terrell around 1983, this method emphasises the role of natural language acquisition. L1 can be used and students should try to underscore the parallels between FL and L1 to attain a better learning. It stresses the importance of emotional rather than cognitive factors in the academic attainment, and vocabulary rather than grammar (Crystal 1998: 379).

The main idea behind this approach is Krashen's Input Hypothesis. The input (i) the learners should receive has to be slightly beyond their level: i+1 (in González Davies & Celaya 1992: 37-38).

Krashen and Terrell (1983: 17) view communication as the most important function of language and, as its approach is centred on teaching communicative abilities, the Natural Approach is for them an example of Communicative Approach.

Douglas Robinson in his book *The Translator's Turn* (1991) indicates that one of the surest modes to obstruct the learning of an FL is to teach it –frequently an

idealised standard form of it– through inert grammatical rules and vocabulary lists, all in isolation from real-use contexts. Language taught this way is disembodied *language*, not richly somatic *parole*.

1.1.4.12. Neuro-Linguistic Programming

Here I would like to clarify that I am going to devote a deeper reflection to this method because it is one of the pillars of the Affectivity and Diversity Approach (ADA).

Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) was created in the early 60s at the University of California by the mathematician Richard Bandler and the professor of linguistics John Grinder. They studied three top therapists: Fritz Perls, Virginia Satir and Milton Erickson. They did not concern themselves with theories; they just produced successful models from which NLP developed in two guidelines (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 3):

a) as a process to discover the patterns of excellence in any field, and

b) as the effective way of thinking and communicating used by outstanding people.

NLP is a powerful model of human experience and communication. It is a "multi-dimensional process that involves the development of behavioural competence and flexibility, but it also involves strategic thinking and an understanding of the mental and cognitive processes behind behaviour" (Dilts 1999: 2). Summing up, NLP is about the way different people think, how unlike they can be and how individuals learn.

As stated before, human beings are born without a handbook on how to use their brains, so they have to work out how to do it, by trial and error. Because "we all had to work this out in our own ways, we all code, file and process information in different ways" (Beaver 1999: 3). So everybody should learn how to use their brain as it was designed.

Why is this approach to personal change called NLP?

- N stands for Neuro and it refers to people's nervous system, the mental pathway of their five senses by which a person sees, hears, feels, tastes and smells. People experience the world through their senses and they create meanings with the captured information. Neurology covers the invisible

thoughts and the visible reactions to ideas and events. Body and mind form a unity (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 26).

- L: linguistic refers to individuals' ability to use language and how specific words and phrases mirror the mental worlds. Linguistic also refers to the "Silent Language": postures, gestures and habits that reveal our thinking styles, beliefs, etc. (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 26). That is to say, it is concerned with the way people use the language, which shapes as well as reflects individual experiences of the world and holds that, if they change the way they speak and think about anything received, they will also be able to change their behaviour.

- P: Programming is a word borrowed from the computing world and it advocates that people's thoughts, feelings and actions are habitual programs that can be changed (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 26). So, it refers to ways individuals can choose to organise their ideas and actions to produce results (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 3).

Neuro-Linguistic Programming is based on many presuppositions, which, at the same time, are grounded on four pillars (Revell & Norman 1997: 16): Outcomes, Sensory acuity, Rapport and Flexibility. As even scientists say human beings cannot prove that anything is always right, NLP works on presuppositions, which are effective till proved otherwise.

I have classified the presuppositions into two groups to clarify ideas and to order them: the group "knowledge", and the group "communication". "Knowledge" can be about oneself, about people around oneself or about the world in general. "Communication" can be between one and oneself, one and the people around oneself or one and the world.

Knowledge

- **world** — The map is not the territory.
- **people around oneself** — Modelling excellence leads to excellence.
- **oneself**
  - The mind and body are parts of the same system.
  - The resources people need are within themselves.
  - If individuals know what they want it helps them to get it.

Communication

- **one-world**
  - All behaviour has a positive intention
  - There is no failure, only feedback.
  - The meaning of any communication is the response one gets.
  - If what individuals are doing is not working, they should do something else.
- **one-people around this person** — Individuals cannot not communicate.
- **one-oneself** — The non-conscious mind is benevolent.

The map is not the territory

This presupposition is related to the perceptual styles, one of the key points in the Affectivity and Diversity Approach (ADA) guidelines. There are many definitions of the term "sensory acuity", which is one of the main elements in NLP. It is defined as the ability of "observing through all our senses without making quick judgements so that we can respond appropriately" (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 26) or "the development of a rich awareness in each of our physical senses" (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 26).

The map is not the territory means that mental maps of the world are not the world itself (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 35). The world and the experience of the world people have are not the same thing because this experience goes through the senses. The world one perceives is a map made by each person's neurology (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 5).

So, as has been explained before, people experience the world through their five senses: visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, olfactory and gustatory, the VAKOG system. But: How do individuals know if someone is thinking visually, kinaesthetically or auditorily? The "BAGEL" model (Body posture, Accessing cues, Gestures, Eye movements and Language) (Dilts & Epstein 1995: 56-66) helps to identify the activated senses; however, for purposes of this study, and due to real life limitations, the teacher-researcher used questionnaires that, through some queries, try to illustrate how learners themselves access some given information (see appendices 8, 9). The BAGEL model:

The **body posture** could be described related to the different senses as follows:

- visual people use a backwards body inclination with raised or lowered shoulders, superficial breathing, quick movements and high muscle tension with their heads up.

- The auditory person uses a forward body inclination with the head bowed on one side, the shoulders raised and crossed arms, the head balanced on the shoulders or slightly at an angle. Lastly, this person will probably have rhythmical body movements.

- Finally, if someone is kinaesthetic, they frequently position their shoulders and head downwards, and present slow movements and muscle relaxation.

The **accessing cues** would be (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 39-40):

- a person thinking in visual images will generally speak quickly and at a high pitch as images happen fast in his/her brain. Breathing will be high in the chest, superficial and quick.

- Those who think auditory breathe using the whole chest area (diaphragm breathing), and their voice tonality is clear, expressive and resonant.

- Kinaesthetic people breathe deeply in the stomach area accompanied by a deep voice tonality; they will speak slowly.

Gestures can also help to discover how someone is thinking. If individuals touch or point at their eyes or make gestures above eye level, they are visual thinkers; if their gestures are often near their ears or pointing at them, they think auditorily; and if, on the contrary, their gestures are made in front of them in a low position, near their stomach or chest, they think kinaesthetically.

The **eye movements** give information about the internal process of the human brain, as well (Revell & Norman 1997: 39). In the following figure "construct" means "imagine"; and "recall" or "remember" means "experiences in life".

Visual construct

Auditory construct

Body sensation recall

Visual recall

Auditory recall

Emotion recall

Olfactory recall

Gustatory recall

Front position: Sensory Synthesis
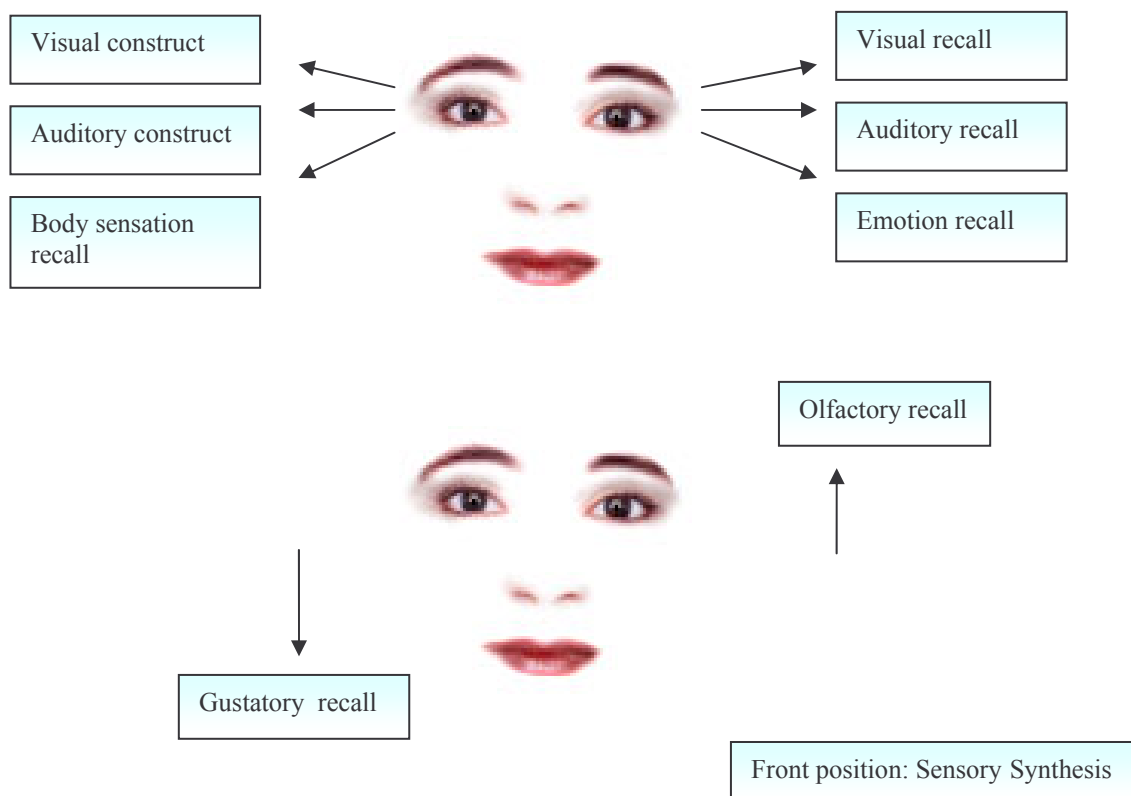
According to eye position anyone can know whether a person is thinking in any of the VAKOG "representational systems".

The words people use, our **language**, also indicate which representational system people are employing (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 46-48). For example, a visual thinker would use the following words: look, clarify, focus, notice; an auditory thinker would prefer: accent, sound, remark, quiet; a person who thinks kinaesthetically would either employ: handle, solid, pressure, hold; olfactory people: nosy, fresh, scented, stale; gustatory people: flavour, taste, sweet, bitter; and finally, there are also neutral words such as: decide, think, know, consider. The sensory-based words, adjectives, adverbs and verbs, are called "predicates" in NLP.

Besides these example words, there are sensory based phrases or metaphors that can also be clearly classified: "I see what you mean" (visual), "It rings a bell" (auditory), "I will get in touch with you" (kinaesthetic), "That is a fishy situation" (olfactory) or "He is a sweet person" (gustatory).

The language can be also used through questions to know how one's own knowledge or that of speakers has been encoded and how to deal with other people's or one's own emotions (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 262-287). The information one gets from a person can be very distorted depending on the representational system being used. The more emotional a person is, the more information (s)he will tend to omit, and a good listener will have to ask for the missing information. Individuals also tend to reduce an experience to a single word or "label", which may have a total different meaning from person to person. When people are emotionally involved in a process, they tend to exaggerate in their report, also, generalisations may be interpreted as "universal truths". The so-called freedom restrictions such as "I am not allowed to cry" make people restrain their emotions. People also tend to connect pieces of experience as if they were particular truths, cause and effect relationships, for example.

People can speak in so many ways that they are not specifically realistic. Through questions individuals can know how a sentence has been encoded from perception (input channels or sensory information) going through the deep structure (meaning internally experienced), the surface structure (set of words heard or read) and the transformation (process in which an event is transformed into a deep structure and,

at the same time, this deep structure is transformed into a superficial structure). These differences between deep and surface structures come from Chomsky (see point 3.3.1).

As Revell & Norman (1997: 26) declare, "we all see, hear, feel, smell and taste things externally (Ex) and internally (I), we do so in different ways and to different degrees". So, according to Revell and Norman, there are two types of states while dealing with the senses: senses can be used outwardly to perceive the world, and inwardly to self re-present experiences. The state of turning the senses to the outside world is known as "Uptime". However, there is also a state that takes people deep into their own mind and, the more deeply they go in, the less they are aware of outside stimuli; this is known as "downtime". "Downtime" is where one goes to daydream, plan, fantasise, create, etc. The images from the "Downtime" are constructed or remembered. People's everyday conscience is a mixture of internal and external awareness, and turning the senses inwardly or outwardly will depend on the circumstance (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 111). So, as humans also access information internally, they have a special system for this purpose: they use the "lead system".

There is even a third system called the "reference system" which is used to double check, that is to say, to answer the question: "are you sure?". These three systems may or may not use the same sense. For example, if someone offers another person a Coke, this other person may get a picture of a glass of Coke which does not appeal (visual lead system) and say "No, thank you!" If the offer persists with: "Are you sure?" this other person may then get a feeling (of not needing anything) which confirms the first decision or a feeling (of fresh sweet bubbles in his/her mouth) which might make him/her say: "OK, thanks!".

Human beings experience the world in different ways, and react to the world in different ways, too. So they should take into account that there are other ways of doing things as valid as their own:

> The idea is to be aware of difference rather than to impose uniformity. It is the difference and the tension between these different ways of looking at the world that is important. Excitement and invention come from seeing things in a different way. Sameness breeds boredom, mediocrity and struggle. (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 77)

People cannot assimilate all the information they get through their senses; their brain filters the information and brings to their attention things which seem to be of importance to them. The filters they put in their perception determine the type of world they live in:

> The world is an infinity of possible sense impressions and we are able to perceive a very small part of it. That part we can perceive is filtered by our unique experiences, culture, language, beliefs, values, interests and assumptions... The world is so vast and rich that we have to give it meaning. Map making is a good analogy for what we do; it is how we make meaning of the world. (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 4)

There are three types of filters (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 261-262):

1. Neurological filters, which are determined genetically (e.g. deafness).
2. Socio-cultural filters, typical of a certain social standard or culture: education, religion, media, arts or literature, etc. (e.g. conflicts are unpleasant).
3. Personal filters, which make every person unique: they result from the interaction with the environment people live in (e.g. my parents have taught me to be obedient).

The non-conscious filters of people's brain that habitually select the relevant information from their sensory experience are called "metaprograms". Once their brain finds a way of behaving that works, it repeats it and it becomes a habit or a "program". These filters determine what they are able to perceive at a given moment in time and, thus, they determine their interaction with the world.

There are many patterns that might qualify as metaprograms; their use may depend on the context and the outcome individuals want (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 149-157):

a) Proactive-Reactive. The proactive person initiates action (go to it!) and the reactive person waits for others to initiate it (think about it!).
b) Towards-Away from. There are two different things that motivate people to success: inspiration and desperation so, according to NLP, there are two

key elements of motivation: "towards" (e.g. what people want is pleasure, comfort and relaxation) or "away from" (e.g. what people do not want is pain, discomfort or stress). "Towards orientation is more goal-directed and away-from orientation is more directed towards identifying and solving problems" (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 60). People with "away from" motivation experience pain and worry before they act. The choice then for one or the other would be determined by life experiences. Summing up, a "towards" motivation focuses on the goals to achieve, "away" people focus on the things they want to avoid (see also point 2.1.4).

c) Internal-External: "internal" people have inner standards and use them when deciding for themselves, it is hard for them to accept management; "external" people wait for others to supply standards and direction, they know something is well-done if someone tells them so.

d) Options-Procedures: An "options" person has several alternatives from which to choose, (s)he will not be satisfied just following a procedure to reach success; the "procedures" person follows courses of action but does not develop them, that is to say, (s)he is more concerned with "how" than "why" to do something.

e) General-Specific: General or global thinkers see the big picture, specific people are more centred in details and, as a consequence, need smaller chunks of information.

f) Match-Mismatch: Some people notice the similarities (matching) and others notice the differences (mismatching) when comparing two things.

g) Convincer patterns: How does a person become convinced? There are two aspects to take into account:

- channel: see or read (need to see the evidence), hear (need to be told) or do (need to act);
- mode: need to have the information a number of times, automatic (need only partial information), consistent (need to be convinced), need the information to remain consistent for a period of time.

Merlevede, Bridoux, and Vandamme (1999: 200-213) add some factors to the ones explicitly given above:

a) The direction of people's attention can be towards themselves or others, depending on whether they like to express their emotions or keep them to themselves. The other person may adapt him/herself to the speaker.

b) The sense of time: "in-time" or "through-time". If people live in the moment, they are "in-time". If they see the progression of time thinking about what people should be doing later they are "through time" people (see also page 56).

c) Reaction under stress: emphasis on feelings, choices or thinking. Feeling is when people react emotionally without thinking. Choice is people who decide to react emotionally or not depending on the situation they are living in. And thinking people are those who keep cool and do not normally show their emotions (see also point 2.2.1.2).

d) Working style: independent, proximity, co-operative. Independent people want to do things on their own. Proximity people want to reach a goal together with others but they need defined responsibilities. A co-operative person likes to work with others and thinks team spirit is very important.

e) Emphasis on working organisations: people versus things. A "people" person puts more emphasis on thoughts, feelings and people; but a "things" person emphasises more on objects like products, tasks, etc.

An emotionally skilled person will have a bit of all the personalities described above though some in a higher degree depending on each real life situation. There are some states people experience in reaction to the world they live in, they are outwardly focused and Michael Hall calls them "Primary States". Other emotions arise in response to people's responses, they are the "Meta States", which are those that individuals experience every day thanks to the ability to reflect about themselves.

Bearing in mind all the things mentioned above, learning how to link and move from one way of thinking to another would be really useful, and on this will depend the richness and range of our thoughts (an immediate and unconscious link across the senses is called a "synesthesia").

The primary systems are used all the time although people tend to favour some over others, depending on what they are doing. The representational systems are not

mutually exclusive (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 28). According to this approach, individuals have to promote the system they use the most, as well as develop those systems that they tend to use less in order to improve their memories, understand other people and definitely improve themselves as human beings. As O'Connor & Seymour avow (1990: 34) "Just as translation from one language to another preserves the meaning but totally changes the form, so experiences can be translated between internal senses".

People with problems in a particular circumstance where others do not experience them, may operate out of a representational system that may not serve them in that specific situation. Or if two individuals speaking the same language are having a very serious problem about understanding each other, it may be because they are not using the same representational system. The more one practices at switching from one representational system to the other, the easier it will be to cope with difficult situations.

In short, the ability to adapt and modify our maps so that they become more similar to the real world experience is a sign of emotional intelligence. But individuals should be careful as the "superficialisation" of life occurs when they ignore or neglect the information they receive from their senses (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 148-150).

Modelling excellence leads to excellence

According to Andreas and Faulkner (1999: 36) "if one person can do something, anyone can learn to do it". Motivation, persuasion, confidence, self-esteem, decision making or creativity, among others, are skills everyone can learn. There is a structure to achievement and imitating or, as NLP calls it, modelling the world's greatest achievers, can lead the imitators to create the same kind of achievements for themselves (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 43).

Modelling can be defined as the process of replicating human excellence. There are three phases in the modelling process (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 180-182):

1)   People have to be with their model when (s)he is doing what they are interested in. Find out how and why the model does it. Individuals have to imagine themselves in their model's reality and do what (s)he does until they obtain the same results.

2) People should take out elements of their model behaviour to see what makes the difference.

3) The skill learned should be designed to be taught to others to check understanding.

The main lesson great achievers teach us is: You should be convinced of what you do! If anyone finds a person who can do something really well and finds out exactly what (s)he does (external behaviour and internal mental processes), the first person too will probably be able to achieve excellence. But modelling is not very easy as there are only a few people who have the ability to tell exactly what it is that they have done and how they have done it, this ability is called "metacognition". So, "until you can isolate the difference that makes the difference, you need to model it" (Revell & Norman 1997: 39).

The mind and body are parts of the same system

The mind affects the body and the body affects the mind, so the better the body feels, the better the mind functions. Relaxation helps to improve inner aptitudes, a good way of achieving it is to smile or even yawn (Revell & Norman 1997: 20). Thinking oneself in a really good state will lead this person to experience good feelings. There are two different perspectives that can help people to get into or get out of any positive or negative state: "association" and "dissociation". "Association" or "self" is the state that people, through any sense, recall themselves participating directly in an experience. Watching, seeing or feeling any experience at a distance is "dissociation" –which is the same as being an "observer"– and, at the same time, it is a more detached and calming position.

The advantage of being able to associate oneself to an experience is that this individual will be able to go through the experience in all its richness and be him/herself. The disadvantage is that one will be too deep into the experience to work with it. On the contrary, the advantages of dissociating from any experience are: discovering meaning and patterns and knowing what is inside oneself, knowing how to behave. And the main disadvantage is being too far away from the experience to work with it (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 49).

Emotionally intelligent people will be able to choose at a particular moment to completely access or not their emotions and describe them or reflect upon them.

If you were able to choose to be associated inside all the wonderful experiences you have had in life and you were also able to distance yourself, to dissociate and get outside of all the unpleasant experiences of your life, you would have the feelings of all your positive experiences and perspective on your mistakes. (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 32)

Another angle that could be added to "association" and "dissociation" would be: the "other" position in which anyone can take on someone else's experiences. And a new fourth perspective in which an individual perceives the experience through double spectacles resulting from joining his/her map with that of the other person.

Handling all these perspectives will lead people to solve conflicts easily as their thinking frame will be able to change at their will. In a conflictive situation information gets interpreted and ends up being subjective; by going through all the positions, individuals will be able to gather as much available information as possible about the conflict, so that one can know a situation completely.

Other ways of feeling better using the mind could be changing the characteristics of one's own mental pictures, sounds, etc. If people want to feel good memories more intensely, they should move them closer to them in their "mind's eye", put bright colours on them, make them lighter and vice versa if people want their negative memories to be less intense. One can also neutralise bad memories using movie music or the picture frame technique (which consists in putting a frame to a picture of a bad memory and hanging it, like other life pictures, in an imaginary world museum).

To increase emotional intelligence, individuals should be able to see their experiences from different viewpoints depending on the situation they live in.

The resources people need are within themselves

Resources are positive qualities everyone has to make the changes (s)he wants to. Though people tend to think that if they may have a particular resource in certain contexts, they may not have it in others, this is not true. The point is that anyone needs to practice to transfer their own strategies to different contexts. "Skills" and "resources"

are two different concepts that should be clarified. Although people might not have a skill in a particular situation, they have the resources to learn that skill. And this is what should be encouraged.

Through anchoring, resources can be transferred from one area of life to another. An anchor is anything that accesses an emotional state. They are so obvious and widespread that people hardly notice them (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 53-55). Anchors are created through repetition or can be set in a single instance if the emotion is strong enough. So, for example, if a person touches his/her left ear every time (s)he feels happy, that anchor will become stronger and stronger and finally it will be ready to be used when needed (kinaesthetic anchor). The anchors can also be visual (a symbol or an image of what one was seeing when experiencing that situation), auditory (a word or phrase said internally to oneself in a particular tone), olfactory or gustatory. Summing up, "Anchoring is making conscious or deliberate something that happens naturally" (Revell & Norman 1997: 84), so the person can access that feeling whenever (s)he wants or needs to.

There are different types of anchoring:
1. external means (taking a shower),
2. external behaviour (crossing your arms),
3. internal behaviour (filling the lungs with air), and
4. thoughts, words (an image of a landscape or "eureka!").

Anchors need to be (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 58):
a) timed just as the state is reaching its peak,
b) unique and distinctive,
c) easy to repeat exactly, and
d) linked to a state that is cleanly and completely re-experienced.

The technique of adding different resources or states to the same anchor is called "stacking resources" and it produces very powerful feelings. Anchors can also be chained so that one leads to another; this allows individuals to move through a sequence of different states easily and automatically. Another resource in the anchors sphere to annihilate a negative feeling is that, when trying to engage two incompatible emotions at the same time, after a short period of confusion, the negative state is changed and a different and positive state comes into being (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 61). Personal

history can be changed through anchors. As O'Connor & Seymour state (1990: 62) "anchoring enables us to increase our emotional freedom by escaping from the tyranny of past negative experiences and creating a more positive future".

The process of guiding someone into a particular state is called "elicitation". The simplest way is to ask people to think of a past time when they were experiencing that emotion and to feel associated with that time. If the trainers' voice tone, words, facial expression and body posture match the response they are asking for, they will be more likely to obtain it. When trying to put people into a calm state to communicate something to them, the way of talking to them should not be loud, for example (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 51). This could be a useful resource in a classroom setting.

To access unconscious resources there is a model in NLP, which is the Milton Model (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 113-118):

1. Pace and lead the person's reality (tune into their world). Pacing means adjusting oneself to the other person, while leading means that one person mismatches the other person and the latter re-synchronises following the first person's lead.

2. Distract and utilise the conscious mind (provide context to content). If one leaves out information of any kind, (s)he will keep the conscious mind busy, so, the unconscious will be much easier to use. The less specific people are, the less risk of a clash with another person's experience.

3. Access the unconscious and resources. People mark out important words in everyday conversations with gestures, voice tone, etc. So there are some conversational postulates that are used unconsciously –or sometimes maybe consciously– that help receivers to give an appropriate response.

A message anyone wants to transmit to other people requires always an unconscious interpretation. From the message people want to transmit, going through the message they actually transmit, to the message the speaker receives and arriving at his/her interpretation, the information can become absolutely distorted. An option to permit a minimum interpretation would be to split any communication into four parts, following the DESC concept (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 247-248):

1. the facts should be **D**escribed as precisely as possible,

2. the individual opinion about these facts should be **E**valuated,

3. the problem ought to be **S**olved among speakers, and

4. everything will have to **C**ontinue with a conclusion of the communication.

If speakers do not split the information they give in relation to this concept, listeners should do it. This model has a lot to do with Grice's principles (see point 3.3.1.1) as, for example, being precise in a communication would be related to the quantity principle, or reaching a conclusion would relate to the quality principle; the co-operation principle can also be related to reaching a joint conclusion. So, Grice's co-operation, quantity, quality, relation and manner principles should all be considered the precursor of the best way of communicating with each other. Analysing any communication will help to gather emotional intelligence.

If individuals know what they want, it helps them to get it

The more precisely and positively you can define what you want, and the more you program your brain to seek out and notice possibilities, the more likely you are to get what you want. (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 10)

Any human being needs to be clear about what (s)he wants as it is difficult to move towards goals if they are not defined. People with plans focus on developing their skills and being better every day.

The individual's aims are the centre of their lives. The objectives in life "reflect who I am, define how I use my inner abilities. And this guides how I act in the world" (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 101). According to people's aims, they play certain roles in different contexts and every role has different goals to be achieved. To find out about one's goals (s)he should ask: "What do I want?" If the goals are not defined, they will obviously not be fulfilled.

Once the point of departure and the arrival point are clear, determining the steps or actions to follow would be the next step, as "well begun is half won". And while being on the way, evaluating whether the actions taken are the right ones, would be essential. This can be seen applying the TOTE model (see page 66).

The goals anyone aims at can also relate to our emotions. First of all, people should estimate and evaluate their own emotions and then decide whether what they are feeling is what they want to; if not, they should force themselves to really take action,

carry out the actions and evaluate their effect. These steps will help anybody to feel self-satisfaction and be more predisposed to reach other non-emotional goals.

Well-formed goals should follow the SMART principle (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 126):

- Specific (positive and specific terms),
- Measurable (quantifiable),
- Acceptable (ecological),
- Realizable (under control) and
- Timed (set a realistic and flexible deadline without placing them too far into the future).

According to this approach the imagination can help to envision a picture of past, present and future events which will serve to specify the aims. Now, how do people envision their timelines? There are two ways: "In time", the time line goes from front to back and people usually associate themselves to their memories; and "Through time", the past is on the left and the future on the right, people with this timeline usually have dissociated memories. I have dealt with the difference between association and dissociation in *The mind and body are parts of the same system* (see page 51).
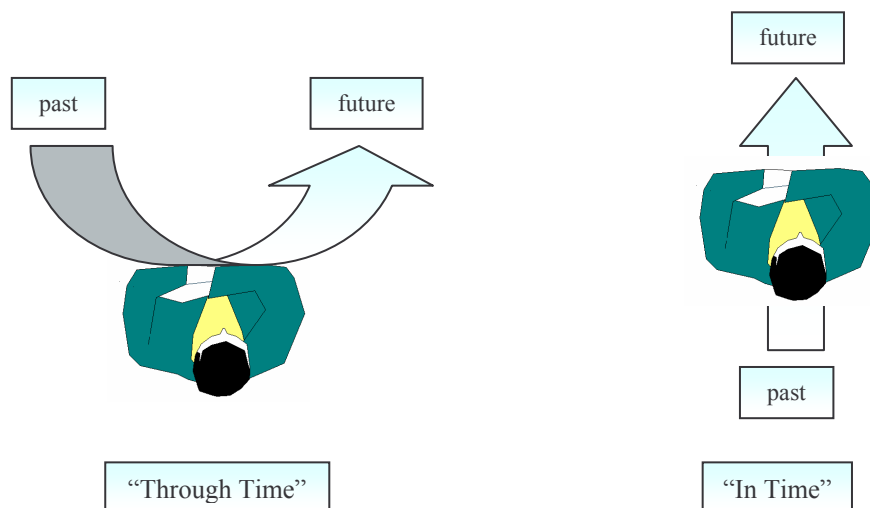
As has been said, either envisioning may help to develop any plan.

There are four thoughts people could have in mind to go for their goals (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 107-110):

1. Vacation: the person feels a need to escape from day-to-day life.

2. Seduction by status-based advertising: are the person's goals status based? Whose desires these goals are should be examined before dedicating much time to achieve them. The plans should not be someone else's.

3. If/then financial goals: people who pursue money as an end usually lack a goal supported by deep values.

4. Means versus ends: if a goal becomes the person's whole aim, disconnected from deep values, (s)he may feel the need to use pressure rather than honesty to achieve it.

Once the objective is clear and people know why they want to accomplish it, then they should develop a plan and take action in order to attain results. While trying to rehearse their goals, people should take into consideration the sensory based evidence that will let them know they have got what they want and the adequate resources and choices to obtain the outcomes.

NLP followers believe that human beings can achieve what they want to achieve only if they think their goals are achievable and worthwhile. Once that is clear, they rehearse it in their mind and think about the steps they need to take. Some people think of a dream (short or long-term) and make plans to reach it, but if they do not get closer, instead of changing their plans, they change their dreams. "Be true to yourself!" (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 101) and "Keep your dreams!" (Revell & Norman 1997: 57) are key statements to develop emotional intelligence. If individuals are convinced of what they are doing, they will probably achieve their aims without difficulty. So, a very worthy advice to take into consideration is: "Choose to do the things you want to do!"

All behaviour has a positive intention.

Every behaviour has a positive purpose in its origin. The NLP basic filters, often referred to as behavioural frames –that are ways of thinking about how people act– are (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 5-6):

a) outcomes rather than problems,

b) "how" rather than "why",

c) feedback versus failure,

d)   possibilities rather than necessities, and

e)   curiosities and fascination rather than assumptions.

This does not mean that the positive intention should be positive for everybody in any circumstance, but it is positive for the person who puts it into practice (consciously or unconsciously). So, if individuals want to change their behaviour, they need to know the positive intention behind it to find another way of satisfying it.

> Reframing is a specific way of contacting the portion or part –for lack of a better word– of the person that is causing a certain behaviour to occur, or that is preventing a certain behaviour from occurring. (Bandler & Grinder 1979: 138)

The heart of reframing is to mark the distinction between the intention and the behaviour. What works for someone in a specific circumstance does not necessarily have to work for someone else as their intentions or behaviours might have been different. Motivation, for example, depends on the person's state of mind in that context, the topic and the way it is presented. "Metaphors", in NLP, are reframing devices.

> The meaning of any event depends on the frame you put it in. When you change the frame, you also change the meaning. When the meaning changes, so do your responses and behaviour. The ability to reframe events gives greater freedom and choice. (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 127)

There are two types of reframe: a) content which is whatever one chooses to focus on, the meaning can be whatever one likes; and b) context, if a behaviour looks odd from the outside, it is usually because the person is in downtime and has set up an internal context which does not match the world outside (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 128-130).

By reframing, one can find new, more acceptable, behaviours that satisfy the same intention. The Meta model, for example, is a way of giving "systematic control over language" (Bandler & Grinder 1979: 70). It teaches how to listen to other people and to ourselves.

This changes our internal language from being something that afflicts to something useful. Steps towards reframing (Bandler & Grinder 1979: 160):

a) Identify the pattern to be changed.

b) Establish communication with the part responsible for the pattern: 1. Will the part of me communicate with me consciously? 2. Establish the yes/no signal.

c) Distinguish between behaviour and intention: 1. Ask the part: "Would you let me know what are you trying to do for me?" 2. If the answer is "Yes", ask the part to communicate its intention. 3. Is that intention acceptable to consciousness?

d) Create new alternative behaviours to satisfy the intention.

e) Ask the part if it will help you and take responsibility for the new alternatives.

f) Ecological check: "Is there any other part of me that objects to the three new alternatives?"

Those steps are cyclical, and if the answer of the last question is "Yes", one should go back to point b) and start again. When applying it, people should take into account that every part of every person is a valuable resource.

Any behaviour has three basic elements: belief, physiology and strategy (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 182-183).

1. individual **beliefs** strongly influence our behaviour; they come to us already made from the culture and environment people live in. Beliefs will generally take one of the three main forms (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 183):

a) they can be about what things mean,

b) about what causes what,

c) or they can also be about what is important and what matters most, giving rise to our values and criteria.

When people believe something, they act as if it were true, so positive beliefs are permissions that turn on their capacities. "Whether you believe you can or you can't do something... you are right" (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 84).

Values are very important. Human beings become aware of their values when they are violated, through events that fulfil them or through a conscious inner exploration (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 92). Values influence choices, are related to people's identity and individuals care about them. The word "criteria" is used to describe those values important in a given context (friends, work) and, so, there is a hierarchy of criteria in every context.

People give many clues in their dress, the things they own, their habits and the way they treat other people. Individuals should ask themselves (their inner voice) different questions, such as: "Why is this or that value important for me?" and try to analyse all their answers: "Are they congruent? Incongruent?". If individuals have to break with some of their values to be happier or to be more coherent with themselves, they ought to do it. The more convinced people are about their values, the more persuasive they will be when dealing with their speakers.

Building personal congruence, associating good feelings to oneself, controlling our inner voice, demonstrating how one honours values are very important actions to develop. When do people know when they are congruent? When something (the unconscious) tells them that it can lead them to trouble, for example. If people make a decision and they are congruent, they can proceed with every chance of success. All parts of individuals should be in total alignment with what they are doing. Reducing internal conflict improves mental as well as physical health. How to resolve internal conflict?

1. Identify and separate the inner parts in conflict.
2. Get a clear representation of each part.
3. Find out the positive intention of each part.
4. Negotiate the resources each part has.
5. Ask the part if it is willing to integrate the other to solve their shared problems.

If the conflict is not being solved, it can be cyclical.

There are five ways of framing events:

1) Outcome frame: evaluating outcomes: a) What is the outcome? b) Make it clear to other people involved. c) How does the outcome fit to other people's? d) Notice if it is being reached.

2) Ecology frame: How do the actions taken fit into the wider system of family, friends, professional life?

3) Evidence frame: How to know if the outcomes are being attained.

4) "As If" frame: How would a problem, if it happens, be solved?

5) Backtrack frame: Recapitulate all the information and open a discussion to update and check progress. Co-operative meetings are purposeful, so negotiation plays an important part.

2. Physiology: if individuals take in the expressions, tonalities and movements of the people around them, it can enable them to replicate their inner state, which will allow access to previously untapped emotional resources (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 184). This is also known as "matching" (see pages 43-50).

3. Strategies are how people organise their thoughts and behaviour to accomplish a task. Strategies always aim for a positive goal (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 185). If the strategies people use are not working, they will have to change them.

But not only all behaviour has a positive intention, emotions also have positive intentions. No emotion is totally negative, as having it has an intention: the function it has in any behaviour or what anyone ends up with after having experienced the emotion (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 93-95). Loneliness, for example, can cause frustration as one misses interacting with others, but it is positive because one can enjoy a free space. Trying to discover the unconscious intention of any behaviour will develop individuals to know themselves much better.

So, individuals should follow some tips to emotional development to be able to choose their emotional reactions (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 142):

1. distinguish between emotions, thoughts, behaviour, skills and context (see point 2.2.1.2),

2. find the meaning of the emotion,

3. discover the role of the emotion,

4. state other emotional reactions to experience,

5. find an experience where the desired emotion was experienced, and anchor it (see pages 52-55), and

6. give time to old patterns to be replaced by the new ones.

People's choices can be rational or more emotional (see point 2.2.1.2). Being conscious about whether to follow or not a given emotional reaction, would be useful, and would help individuals again to learn more about themselves.

There is no failure, only feedback... and a renewed opportunity for success

People can learn from their mistakes much more than from their successes (Revell & Norman 1997: 47). Nothing can weaken a person as effectively as negative self-evaluation; what individuals' inner voice really wants is to allow them to feel good. Changing negative thoughts about oneself will help.

Self-esteem statements are different from reality, they are mental representations of oneself. There are six characteristics of a solid positive mental attitude (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 259-266):

a) inner motivation,

b) the value of high standards,

c) chunking down goals,

d) combining present and future time frames (concentrating in the present and the ability to think vividly in the positive future),

e) personal involvement, and

f) self-to-self comparison (comparing oneself to others is not positive, but seeing progress is very positive).

There are people who build their happiness around the idea of a permanent peak of perfection. This idealisation leads them to think that in order to be happy, they need to have everything in their life in perfect order, and that is not how everything goes. With this thought in mind no one could be satisfied.

To attain something anyone has to go through some steps. When things don't go the way people want them to go, they should ask themselves "What did I learn from that? How can I do it differently next time?" What it means is that individuals accept responsibility for their mistakes and they will do what they can to make amends.

Considering mistakes a source of learning is not so easy, concentrating less on the mistakes and more on the reason for making them will ameliorate people's general knowledge.

The meaning of any communication is the response one gets (Revell & Norman 1997: 128)

Communication means what is received. Listeners receive what speakers say or do, the expression of their representation of the world, through their mental map (see pages 43-50). When people say or do something, they are responsible for what happens, and if the response is not the expected one, they should do something different to get a different response. Nobody can control everything that happens to others nor to us, but what people really choose is how to respond to life.

Only three things are needed to be an exquisite communicator (Bandler & Grinder 1979: 54):

a) know the wanted outcome,

b) flexibility in the behaviour (one needs to be able to generate a lot of different behaviours to find out about the final responses), and

c) have enough sensory experience to notice when the responses one wants are attained.

Treat others the way you want to be treated... NLP research has shown that many high achievers develop liking and appreciation very rapidly. They naturally make people feel comfortable around them and demonstrate a concern for others' values. (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 140)

How should a relationship be built up? (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 156)

a) Determine mutually satisfying goals.

b) Establish and maintain non-verbal rapport: matching, mirroring or pacing the tone, tempo and rhythm of the others' voice as well as the physical space and the movements. As O'Connor & Seymour (1990: 19) state: "People who are in rapport tend to mirror and match each other in posture, gesture and eye contact".

There are many kinds of non-verbal pacing (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 314-318):

1. Copying or doing exactly the same thing.
2. Direct mirroring or copying as if one was playing the mirror.
3. Cross-over mirroring substitutes one non-verbal channel for another.

   This last one is divided into two types:

   a) cross over in the same channel or use hand movement to pace the speaker's breathing and

   b) switch channels or while speaking, adapting the voice tempo to the interlocutor's breathing. Non-verbal mirroring is a powerful unconscious mechanism that every human being uses to communicate effectively.

4. Echoing or matching, copying, mirroring or crossover mirroring in an attenuated fashion.
5. Delayed mirroring or matching or using the previous techniques while building in some delay.
6. Backtracking or exactly repeating verbal and non-verbal language.
7. Second position or copying the complete body language of the other, having the same feelings and aiming at having the same thoughts.
8. Mismatching or breaking the similarity between two people's behaviour, maybe to get the other's attention.
9. Other forms of rapport building would be: displaying politeness, showing appreciation, paying a compliment, displaying attentiveness, etc.

As O'Connor and Seymour declare (1990: 22) "we pace all the time to fit into different social situations, to put others at ease, and to feel at ease ourselves". Maximising similarities and minimising differences with other people is the heart to communicating successfully.

c) Produce positive feelings in others: notice and respond to emotional states of others. If people want to become a source of good feelings for others, they have to do things that encourage the emotional state they want to have associated to themselves.

When labelling things, one fixes them and one fixes his/her response to them. "A problem" or "a challenge", which word would anyone prefer?

If individuals rename or re-label things, their perceptions change. Negative words, are clear examples. If a person says to a child: "Do not fall down!" that child will be more aware of the words "falling down" (accessing some visual representation of these words) than he or she is in remaining still. This is because of the negative statement. So the child will probably fall (Bandler & Grinder 1979: 65). If one gives positive instructions like "Be careful; move slowly", then the child will access representations that will help him/her cope with the situation.

> The brain can only understand a negative by turning it into positive. In order to avoid something you have to know what it is you are avoiding, and keep your attention on it. You have to think of it to know what not to think of... (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 11)

Another point to take into account when dealing with negations is the position of the negative statement in a segment of information. When the negative statement is at the end, everyone tends to remember it more strongly, they focus more strongly on what not to do, so first one should state the negative sentence and then the positive one.

Summing up, non-verbal as well as verbal language helps everyone to communicate and to respond to everyday life.

If what individuals are doing is not working, they should do something else.

This is about flexibility. As stated by Revell and Norman (1997: 136) "If you always do what you have always done, you will always get what you have always got". If people want something new, they should do something new, especially when there are so many alternatives (Andreas & Faulkner 1994: 37). In any system, the element with the greatest flexibility will have the most influence on that system. If people are flexible, they can adapt themselves to the world and life may be much easier.

Bearing in mind the four NLP pillars: goals, rapport, sensory acuity and flexibility, the steps to attain any goal would be:

1) know the outcome or the objective,

2) do something about it (it is better to have other people involved in order to obtain feedback and help, but one can also have rapport with him/herself),

3) notice the response (through all the senses),

4) respond flexibly (having many options).

Finally, if one has not attained what (s)he would like to, (s)he should start again.

The "TOTE" action model is an application of these pillars. This model could be an adaptation of Karl Popper's (1972) problem solving model. Popper proposes his four-stage model based on trial and error. The starting point is a problem situation, the second step is the production of tentative solutions and trial responses to the situation. The third stage is the error elimination process and the fourth stage is the reformulation of the original problem, if it has not been solved, or the emergence of new problems. As one will be able to notice it has a lot to do with the "TOTE" model that stands for: Test, Operate, Test and Exit, which means that one has to check where (s)he is at the moment of starting whatever it is, (s)he has to try a way of achieving the objectives, (s)he has to check if the objectives have been achieved. If so, (s)he has to stop and move on to the next objectives. If what the person wanted has not been attained (s)he should start again to test and operate, so really this model should be called the TO(TOTOTO...)TE model. How successful the person is will depend on the number of choices of operations this person has: the flexibility of behaviour, or requisite variety (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 72).

The "TOTE" model

Present state → Test → Objective → Exit → Desired state

Operate

Flexibility

Test
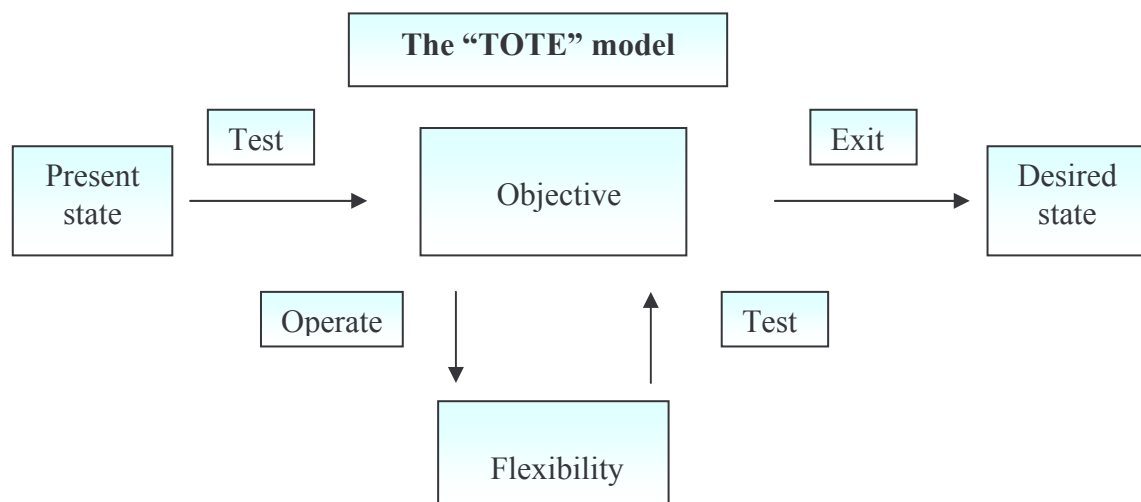
To be flexible and rectify when needed will be one stream to lead to success.

Individuals cannot not communicate

People are always communicating verbally or non-verbally, consciously or non-consciously. "You communicate with your words, with your voice quality, and with your body: postures, gestures, expressions. You cannot not communicate" (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 16)

In the words are the content of the message, then the postures, gestures, expression, and voice tonality are the context in which the message is embedded, and together they make the meaning of communication. (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 17)

A sigh, a smile, a look, are all communications, even thoughts are self communications and they are revealed to others through the eyes, voice tones, postures and body movements (see pages 43-50).

Everyday communication is more non-verbal than verbal. Systematic observation has shown that a small percentage of our communication is through words. And even if there is any mismatch between verbal and non-verbal communication, people tend to believe more in the non-verbal communication of the body.

People tend to think, as well, that unless they learn something consciously, they don't learn it, but recent studies show that a lot of our learning is unconscious. NLP scholars state that consciousness is limited, unconsciousness is not. Everyone is constituted by the "conscious person" and the "non-conscious person", so learning is more effective if it is multi-sensory and when it appeals to the non-conscious mind as well as the conscious mind.

The non-conscious mind is benevolent

Another belief is that the unconscious is much wiser than the conscious mind. Everyone has his/her own mind's eye (which includes mind's ear, mind's feeling, etc.) that can internalise sounds, feelings or images. People's senses are used inwardly. This

internal representational system "VAKOG" can also be called "modalities" and the differences within modalities are the "submodalities".

There are two types of submodalities (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 175):

1. Analog: these can be changed quickly or slowly along a continuum, e.g., volume.

2. Digital: these are mutually exclusive, e.g., in/out.

The principal submodalities are (Dilts & Epstein 1995: 161-164):

- visual: brightness (opaque, brilliant), size (small, big), colour (black, white, colour), movement (quick, slow, immobile), distance (near, far), situation and focus (clear, diffused);

- auditory: volume (high, low), tone (sharp, low), voice colour (high, low), tempo (quick, slow), distance (near, far), rhythm and situation;

- kinaesthetic: intensity (strong, weak), area (big, small), texture (rough, smooth), duration (constant, intermittent), temperature (hot, cold), weight (light, heavy) and situation.

Many of the techniques for making changes in oneself involve the internal representational system, that is to say, how the imagination works. The VAK submodalities, although not all of them in every context, are relevant to everybody. Olfactory and Gustatory submodalities are not so frequent, though they can also be very useful. Experience has a structure, individuals' memories include scenes with feelings, sounds, etc. As the teacher-researcher has already said, if people change something in the mind's eye's scene (colour, music,...), they change the original structure and so their feelings and emotions about it as well. Learning to change the submodalities of any experience will improve emotional intelligence, as it will enable everyone to "recode them and serve you instead of you serving them" (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 177).

The Swish Pattern is a powerful technique that uses critical submodality changes. It works on a specific behaviour "you would rather be without" (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 174-176):

a) Identify the specific behaviour to be changed.

b) Treat this limitation as an achievement.

c) Identify two visual submodalities that could change the reaction to it (size and brightness, for example).

d) Think how to react and the possible resources and construct a new self-image.

e) Take the picture (e.g. bright and large) and very quickly make it small and dark while making the new self-image large and bright. Add sound to the swap (e.g. Swish!). Repeat it as many times as necessary.

f) When satisfied, test the results by future pacing. Future pacing gives the brain strong positive images of success and programs it to think in those terms.

The better use one can make of submodalities, the more emotional intelligence one will develop. There are three main applications of representational systems and submodalities (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 177-178):

1. Calibration: deriving the state of a person by observing the representational channels and submodalities: territorial position, body language, tonality, representation channels, content, keywords and typical expressions, values and how they are expressed in criteria, world wide beliefs and presuppositions, (neuro)logical levels, meta-programs, similar experiences/references, contextual elements. Summing up, calibration (O'Connor & Seymour 1990: 52) means recognising when people are in different states. Individuals should not rely too much on people telling them verbally how they feel, instead they should use their eyes and ears.

2. State Management: using representational systems and submodalities to find out about how an emotional state functions.

3. Rapport Skills: adapting oneself to the speakers or public.

Belief changes using submodalities. So, realising the structure of subjective experiences will give people new possibilities to develop their intelligences.

As the reader may have noticed, there are many cross references in nearly all the presuppositions and that is because all of them are interconnected and they cannot be separated. They all constitute a unique whole. These presuppositions relate to all the different intelligences (see point 2.2.1); specifically they relate to the interpersonal and

intrapersonal ones (as Gardner called them) or the emotional one (as Salovey and Mayer labelled it) because these presuppositions are about how to know oneself, the people around and the surrounding world. This will lead individuals to high self-esteem, to become more confident and to help and know others to a greater degree. Although NLP can be applied to many life aspects, here I have focussed on a school setting and I have proposed the Affectivity and Diversity Approach (ADA), which is enlightened by many of the aforementioned presuppositions.

After the revision of the most well-known methods for language learning, I can conclude that an eclectic approach seems best for most teaching situations and this is the aim of ADA. Teachers should first of all analyse their pupils and according to them and to the situation in which they are going to teach, one or a mixture of several of the methods displayed above would surely fit best their learners' and their own needs.

2. Setting the foundations for the affectivity and diversity approach

One could wonder: how does any learning or acquisition process take place? Product of a research process of gathering information from different sources together with my own experiences, I would like –after revising some learning model proposals– to suggest my own learning model.

According to Kinsella (1996) or Oxford, Hollaway and Horton-Murillo (1992) the elements that influence learning can be classified in: environmental, emotional, sociological, physiological and psychological. The Dunn and Dunn (2004) model gathers all these elements together.
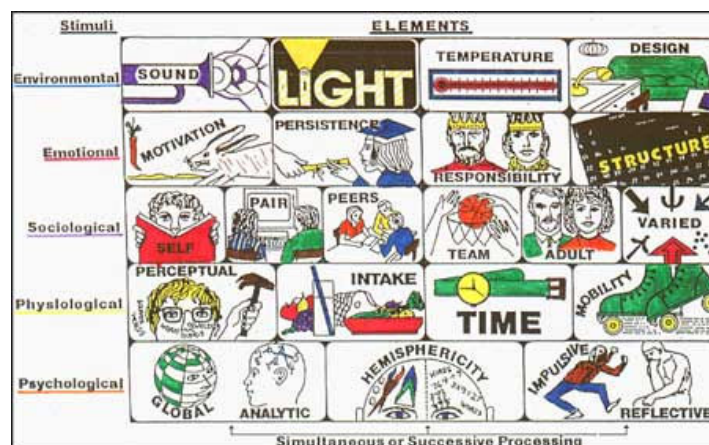
Dunn and Dunn (2004)

Starting with the first group, the **environmental**, one can see that it is constituted by sound (learners' background sound preferences while learning), light (type and level of illumination preferred while studying), temperature (degrees of temperature which are more suitable to facilitate students' learning) and design (more desirable room and furniture arrangements while learning). From this first block it can be inferred that any sound, light, temperature and design of the setting where a learning process takes place is crucial for the trainee to achieve a good learning threshold.

According to the **emotional** stimulus, the first element one encounters is motivation, which can be intrinsic –self motivation– or extrinsic; whether or not a student is interested in learning will be of utmost significance. Persistence (the students' attention span and ability to stay on task), responsibility (if students prefer to work independently or under supervision or guidance) and structure (whether students prefer structured or non-structured learning activities) are also of paramount value according to this model.

In the **sociological** stimulus category, one can distinguish between the self (or preference to work alone), pair (or preference to work with another student), peer or team (or preference to work with a group of people), adults (reaction while working with an authority figure), and variety (meaning preference for a multiplicity of procedures and activities).

Concerning the **physiological** stimulus, the perceptual element is related to the perceptual styles involved in NLP (see pages 43-50) (preference for learning: through visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, olfactory and gustatory aids), the second element one comes across is intake (or need to eat, drink or chew while learning), the last ingredient is time (energy levels at different times of the year).

Finally, the **psychological** stimulus relates to the mind. As the Dunn and Dunn model depicts, there are three dual elements that may help the learning process: global/analytic (determines whether a student learns best when considering the total topic of study or when approaching the task sequentially), right/left hemisphericity (associated with left and right processing according to brain dominance) and impulsive/reflective (relates to the tempo of thinking. Individuals can take quick decisions or they can think a lot before taking a determination).

In my opinion, these elements are only some examples for each category, but many others exist. That is why this classification, among others, such as Smith and Renzulli (1984), Kolb (1984), Springer and Deutsh (1989), Reid (1995) and González

Davies (2004), has helped the teacher-researcher to reflect upon the need to create her own version that integrates some elements referred to in the above mentioned classifications together with others not quoted.

Thus, my model is student- and learning-process-centred. The evolution of the focus on teaching approaches has changed from classes centred on the teacher to classes centred on the student. Now, however, it is sometimes considered that the centrepiece of any learning is the learning itself (Cánovas, González Davies & Keim 2006). Nevertheless, McCombs and Whisler (1997: 9) suggest that a student-centred model can reflect the need to focus on the students as well as on their learning process. Thus, I agree with both considerations, and my learning model proposal will mainly focus on the learning process though having the student at its core.

Individuals –within their own contexts and having had previous experiences that shape this context– receive a concrete stimulus that will make their perceptual senses react. These senses will send the information to the brain where, depending on the emotions involved and the learning situation, it will be more or less eager to learn. After that, two options arise, either the subjects forget the information immediately or they retain it in the sensory memory. In this last case, the information will be processed, conceptualised, organised and stored. This stored information may be sat in the short term memory and, after that, two possibilities arise again: the information can be forgotten or it can be consolidated and go to the long term memory. Finally, any information acquired may cause a reaction or –it might be called– behaviour, sooner or later.

Ethnicit

Friends

Temperature

Sound

Gender

Mass media

Order

Environmental elements

Smell

Teachers

Sociological elements

Classmates

Light

Social class

Parents

Classroom design

Dynamics

Behaviour

Time

Grouping

Regulations Governing School

Classroom Syllabus

Mobility

Physical elements

Teaching methods

Psychopedagogical elements

Motivation

Furniture

Material

School Educational Project

School Curriculum Project

Context

Stimulus

Learner

MI

Learning process: sequencing

NLP

Perceiving

Processing

Conceptualising

Organising

Internalising

Consolidating

Reacting

As can be distinguished, the model suggested here can be split into three blocks: context, learner and sequencing of the learning process.

2.1. Context

All students have their own contexts that influence their learning. As stated by Balsam (1985: 1) "Learning occurs in a cognitive or associative context that is defined by the location, time and specific features of the task at hand". Hence, to understand any learning and its implications, one first has to deeply understand the contextual cues.

Context can be defined as the "stimulus that modulates the control exerted by other stimuli" (Medin & Reynolds 1985: 323). This last definition will help clarify the difference between the concepts "context" and "stimulus", which are used in the learning model proposal. Context is a group of situational prompts that adjust how the job of carrying out a task may work; and stimulus is what causes the task to get started.

"Context" has been divided into four sections: environmental, physical, sociological and psycho-pedagogical.

2.1.1. Environmental elements

The environmental elements are external factors that determine or influence learning. They generally consist of surrounding circumstances, objects or conditions in which learning occurs. They can be divided into: classroom design, order, smell, sound, light and temperature.

A. Classroom design. This implies the distribution of the different elements that form the classroom: the students' desks (which may be distributed in rows, in a circle or semicircle, in a U-formation, in pairs, in small groups or in big groups throughout the classroom or in corners (see page 207)), the teacher's desk, the blackboard, the door, the window, the shelves, the hangers, the posters, the notice-board, as well as the wall colour or the ceiling and the floor patterns. It is well-known that soft wall colours help individuals calm down and vice versa. As claimed by Lawless and Brown (1997), concern must be devoted to the design and organisation of schools and classrooms as they can influence, and hopefully

improve, learning and contribute to the progress of the child. They go on saying that a classroom should be planned taking into account the "schema theory", which states that data is internally arranged into abstract mental structures called schemata. Schemata are dynamic (see point 2.3.4); therefore they are always changing, as should the classroom design (e.g. posters, furniture arrangements).

B. Order. This denotes whether the things, which are in a classroom or on a desk, are placed in their right location or if they are not. Some people get really upset if there is something out of its usual place. Ordered material can also help to eliminate delays and confusion. Nevertheless, it is also true that other students prefer disorder and chaos to learn.

C. Smell. This alludes to the scent one can notice in the classroom. Teachers and most people generally take the olfactory sense in little consideration, although it has a great influence on our emotions and feelings –extremely vital in any learning context (see point 1.1.4.12), as it is linked to the brain's limbic system. That is why many studies have been carried out to discover the influence that aromatherapy could have in the everyday classroom. The well known educator, Lyn Belisle (2005) states that different aromas could aid learners concentrate, relax and change their moods, something really convenient when a specific learning process ought to take place.

D. Sound. This refers to the noise students can hear from the inside of their classroom. Classroom learning involves communication between teachers and students, and among students themselves. The efficiency of this communication, and so, the effectiveness of learning is mediated by acoustic conditions. Thus, good acoustics in a classroom setting makes learning easier. The noise level is extremely important; while for some learners it is easy to concentrate despite loud sounds or may even need noise in order to concentrate, for others it is very difficult to tune out a minimum noise. In order to cope with all types of learners, some studies suggest the use of classical music as an aid to concentration, since background music may possibly filter background noises that could disrupt learning.

E. Light. This refers us to the intensity of the daylight or electric light that students are exposed to. Stevens (1997) states that "the amount of light in the work area can have a strong effect on concentration." A light too dim can make learners sleepy while an intense light can make them nervous. Several studies have shown that, for example, poor readers and right brain thinkers have a tendency for dim light to study.

> Typical classroom lighting does not meet the functional needs of teachers or students. (...) The modern classroom requires a range of lighting scenarios, from full lighting for traditional classroom teaching to various levels of dimming and light distribution for audiovisual presentations and other activities. (Clark 2006)

F. Temperature. Do the students feel cold or hot? Do they feel comfortable with the classroom temperature? Or has the classroom got the right temperature? The so called right temperature varies a lot from one student to another, however, there is a limited temperature range within which the human brain functions well (Stevens 1997). Still approximately, when a classroom thermometer registers more than 27ºC the learner becomes sleepy, and when the thermometer registers less than 18ºC discomfort disrupts thinking (Stevens 1997).

2.1.2. Physical elements.

The physical elements are the distinctive characteristics of a school that distinguish it from another school. In Reggio Emilia, a northern Italian area, educators consider the physical environment to be "another teacher". In the physical elements classification one can encounter the concepts: furniture, mobility, grouping, material and time.

A. Furniture. By furniture I mean the type of tables and chairs students and teachers are using. Whether they are comfortable or not. Whether they are big or small. Whether they are individual desks or double desks. Furniture selection should be done considering its use and functionality as well as how it would fit the

teacher's methodology (the problem is that the methodology may change from one teacher to the next); thus, flexibility and mobility are key considerations. Nowadays, in countries such as Italy (Reggio Emilia Schools), America (San Anselmo Elementary School) or the UK (Coombes School), teachers provide their students with soft chairs, beanbags or pillows on the floor for their reading or story time. It has been proved that students pay better attention if they are more comfortable than sitting in a normal hard school chair.

B. Mobility. This denotes the possibilities to change the classroom, either by moving the students themselves or the furniture. Standard classroom arrangements are not ideal for all students. It is said that Mozart, for example, wrote his music standing on a high table. Most teachers think, erroneously, that children learn best when sitting, but now we know, thanks to research carried out by many scholars in the field of perception (see pages 43-50), that some students need to move while learning.

C. Grouping. This implies the changes that take place in a classroom in a given period of time depending on the task being carried out. This implies variations in the students' distribution: individually, small groups, medium-size groups or big groups.

D. Material. This implies the type of tools used to learn: books, notebooks, CDs, cassettes, computers, posters, videos, DVDs, etc. Its use will depend firstly on the school material resources and then on the teacher's enthusiasm. There is much material to be used in a classroom although it implies a) a special ability to manage the different devices, as well as b) a lot of previous work on the part of the instructor. For example, some Internet resources either already created or produced by the teacher with specific purposes are very motivating because they provide users with textual as well as attractive visual, auditory and interactive material that may reproduce real life situations. Computer resources created specially to attend the diverse perceptual styles (see pages 43-50) and Multiple Intelligences (see point 2.2.1) such as: *English is Fun* which I have developed, in http://www.xtec.net/~cmallol3, tries to encourage different ways of thinking

and helps individuals learn effectively (Mallol in Cánovas, González Davies & Keim 2006).

E. Time. This drives us to consider the best moment in time for the learning to take place, that is to say to consider sequencing, and also the actual time needed to carry out an activity. There are obviously physiological needs that condition the students' predisposition to learn, such as hunger, for example.

2.1.3. Sociological elements.

The term "social" comes from the Latin "socius", which as a noun means "an associate, ally, companion, business partner or comrade" and as an adjective "socialis" means a tie between people. Thus, sociological aspects are the social community rules or group rules under which our students live, which exert a big influence in their education and guide their learning.

Here, the sociological elements have been divided into: social class, mass media, gender, ethnicity, peers (classmates and friends), teachers and parents, as well as dynamics and behaviour.

A. Social class. Firstly one could consider: what is "social class"? What does it have to do with learning? Vygotsky's sociocultural approach can help us answer this question. Vygotsky (1930/1994: 197) states that "class character, class nature and class distinctions (…) are responsible for the formation of human types"; at this point he emphasises the importance of pluralism, an extremely fashionable term nowadays. Vygotsky (1935/1978: 88) also writes "children grow into the intellectual life of those around them". Relatives as well as peers, school staff, neighbours or only acquaintances shape any input a student receives or any output (s)he produces. It is society itself that outlines the culture of a country. Different research studies carried out by ethnographists such as Rist (1970/2000), Wilcox (1988) or Collins (1986) have focussed on the topic of social class as a major factor in classrooms and they have discovered that students react the way people around them expect them to react. Summing up, social class helps to shape individual behaviour.

B. Mass media. The T.V., the Internet, the radio, newspapers, magazines… today's children are growing in a world where most of the information and entertainment come throughout the mass media. The different media spread information in a pleasurable, creative and appealing way and, therefore, students need to obtain information from the classroom setting and from their teachers in an attractive manner to catch their attention. In addition, teachers are aware of the misuses of the media and, hence, they could encourage intellectual development and critical thinking using them also in the classroom.

C. Gender. Gender is not only the biological characteristics that classify humans as male or female, but also the relationships, roles, behaviour, etc. that society assigns to the two sexes. Gender varies through time and from one culture to the next. One of the school functions is to imply that both boys and girls, men and women, are free to develop themselves without limitation of stereotypes or prejudices. Thus, aspirations, needs and interests of all students should be considered equally, and their rights and responsibilities should not depend upon the fact that they were born male or female.

D. Ethnicity. The existing multiculturality in the different backgrounds that students are living in is not, at present, perceived mostly in a positive way in our country. The problem comes from the inadequacy of dealing with troubles arisen from the coexistence of different cultures, as well as from the stereotypes that people from a particular milieu create. For example, the Gypsy culture has been thought to be ignorant with poor and limited linguistic codes (Bernstein 1988). But, can we generalise? And, most important, what is "culture"? A culture is *the set of distinctive values, beliefs, rules of behaviour and practices shared by the members of a group*. In line with the notion of culture, according to Scott-Tennent and González Davies (2005: 166) a cultural referent is:

> Any kind of expression (textual, verbal, non-verbal or audiovisual) denoting any material, ecological, social, religious or linguistic manifestation that can be attributed to a particular community (geographic, socio-economic, professional, linguistic, religious, etc.) and

would be admitted as a trait of that community by those who consider themselves to be members of it.

As maintained by Said (1994) in our modern world nobody is from only one particular culture. Cultures, like languages, are dynamic and ever changing (Siraj-Blatchford 1994: 28-29). This implies an absorption or abandonment of particular practices under the influence of other cultures.

Nowadays, multiculturality in society is a fact and despite hybridation there is a growing need for cultural recognition. According to the report by Martuccelli (2002: 14), "individuals' desire to affirm themselves in public, to be recognised for 'what they are' becomes an important demand…" therefore, multiculturality "moves at two levels: the factious verification of cultural diversity, and the normative proposal of a distinct culture's coexistence at the same level" (Bolívar 2004). As Taylor (1994: 103) observed, "social recognition is central to the individual's identity and self-worth".

Through educational action, schools ought to try to reconcile different cultural identities and create a "multicultural citizenship" (Pérez Tapias 2002: 48). Schools should encourage social unity and respect, together with recognition towards the other as somebody different. This is nowadays referred to as "celebrating difference". Furthermore, I believe school should promote inclusion, not integration, as the latter term endorses assimilation into the dominant culture. Thus, educational institutions must redefine their curriculum and if the tendency was, a few years ago, to "subordinate the individual to collective culture" (Bolívar 2004), currently the approach to be adopted would be the recognition of difference. It seems that the more individuals are on familiar terms with other cultures, the more they will appreciate their own.

Summing up, multiculturalism should be seen as a "perspective on human life" (Parekh 2000: 336) and we must go on saying that "all ways of life and thought are inherently limited and cannot possibly embody the full range of the richness, complexity and grandeur of human existence" (Parekh 2000: 338). Hence, *multiculturality can be said to be a phenomenon that allows enrichment between oneself and others who are living in parallel worlds which, however, are in contact*.

I have dealt more deeply with ethnicity as it is a factor to be measured in this study.

E. Classmates. Peer groups are an important social organisation for learners, especially teenagers, because they enable them to experience an important emotional and social transformation. Whether classmates are helpful, whether they put pressure on others or whether they are particularly demanding will make a big difference to each individual. According to Cherrington (2003) "because of their desire to be approved and accepted by their peers, most teenagers allow peer pressures to guide their behaviour even if it is physically uncomfortable, and sometimes socially illegal." Nowadays, it is sad to admit that one of the most "trendy" topics concerning classmates is bullying. Students who bully are students who may be going through difficult times and need to direct their anger towards someone. Students who are being bullied are psychologically endangered. In both cases, either a big problem is still arising or has already come up. Hence, bullying should be avoided by all means. Schools in the United Kingdom, for example, have an anti-bullying policy to be prepared just in case any bullying situation arises. In short, being more or less on good terms with the classmates is something essential that influences learning in schools.

F. Friends. Adolescents want to demonstrate their independence from adults in terms of music, fashion, leisure, political ideas or even language, by choosing a group of friends. Groups of friends do not only influence forms of self-expression and performance, but shape patterns of consumption, leisure activities and, moreover, school performance (Petersen et al. 1993). Thus, schools should educate to encourage critical friendship among students.

G. Parents. Parents' or legal tutors' attitude towards school, instruction and teachers are decisive to underline the training of their children in any educational institution. Home is where all the tuition begins and each individual carries with him/her everything absorbed at home. Parents ought to enhance formal education, and their responsibilities comprise (Humphries, 1988): keeping the right attitude toward education and school, supporting/helping their child,

establishing priorities, being firm in discipline, giving rewards (although they do not have to be in the form of expensive gifts, but in the form of time spent with the son or daughter), communicating openly, helping with work, being active in school matters, and controlling the child's school attendance. The parents' opinion regarding their own children's possibilities is also crucial for their sons' and daughters' proper psychological development.

H. Teachers. The teachers' attitude towards themselves, towards parents or legal tutors, towards pupils, towards the teaching process, and towards the individual learning process of every child is of utmost value. If teachers show interest in what they are teaching, if they have fun carrying out the activities, tasks or projects they have prepared, if they show understanding and acceptance of individual differences, pupils will be able to acquire knowledge easier and they will also have a good time while learning. Consequently, this would also encourage future learning. The learner's attitude tends to mirror the teacher's attitude (Griffin & Symington 1997; Griffin 1998). Hence, the student's attitude will be shaped regarding not only the subject matter, but also life. The teachers, as well as all the other staff members of the school, will help students to outline their perception of the educational centre as well as of the learning process.

I. Behaviour. Behaviour is the consequence of the students' attitude towards learning and learning institutions. Parents, teachers, peers and society in general make students perform the way they do and shape their manners in and outside the school setting.

J. Dynamics. As stated by Ireson, Hallam and Plewis (2001: 315-26) group dynamics, especially in secondary schools, impinges on pupil's self-concept. Subsequently, class grouping is important to increase achievement and motivation. Baldwin (1897), Vygotsky (1935/1978) and Piaget (1928) underline the significance of interaction between social, affective and cognitive states in development and learning. Later, Rogoff (1990) and Wood (1998) state that the individual's capacity to learn will increase with help from either adults or peers. There are several grouping arrangements: grouping by age, grouping by IQ, grouping by academic performance or mixed-age and mixed-ability grouping.

"Comparisons of heterogeneous versus homogeneous groupings show mixed results with regard to middle and high ability pupils" (Grossen 1996). I would also like to add grouping by prevailing type of intelligence (see point 2.2.1.1) or by predominant perceptual style (see pages 43-50), or mixed-intelligence and mixed-perceptual style.

Even though group work can have drawbacks such as time consumption or the loss of control on the part of the teacher because of students misbehaviour, and despite the previous work the teacher has to do to find suitable tasks to implement interactive group work, according to several investigators (Lou et al. 1996) –and I agree with them, it is worth taking the time to do so and apply social pedagogy. The social pedagogy referred to is a consideration of all the factors abovementioned in the classroom setting, since schools, among other aims, socialise.

2.1.4. Psychopedagogical elements

They are the psychological implications of teaching, that is, the different connotations of behaviour, mind, action and thought in learning. By pedagogical, I mean the school and teaching methods effect on the learning process of a student.

A. Regulations Governing School[2]. The Regulations Governing School is the group of aims, principles and norms that regulate human relationships as well as the functioning of any school. They also guarantee the right development of school projects (Educational and Curriculum[2]) in an atmosphere of mutual respect. The Regulations Governing School try to favour the integral education of any student, his/her autonomy, responsibility and participation. The application of their directives presupposes a clear definition of all the school members' rights and duties and a constant follow up of their accomplishment. Formative evaluations of the regulations are necessary to correct any possible deficiencies.

B. School Educational Project[2]. The School Educational Project is where the school philosophy is defined, that is to say, where the identity of every school is

---

[2] Translation from González González (2005: 31).

shaped. This project gathers the pedagogical principles of the centre, its organisation, the Regulations, the linguistic project, the evaluation mechanisms and the aspects related to the collaboration among the different members of the educational community. It works as the basis for the School Curriculum Project.

C. School Curriculum Project[2]. The School Curriculum Project is a group of pedagogical proposals appropriate for each centre: where, what, when and how to teach and to evaluate. The School Curriculum Project wants to guarantee not only an adequate contents organisation and progression, but a coordinated task among the teaching staff.

D. Classroom syllabus. The classroom syllabus is where all the objectives and conceptual, procedural and attitudinal contents of a subject are defined, that is to say, it details what, when and how to teach and evaluate a particular subject. The classroom syllabus contains a specific introduction to the credit[3], the contents, the objectives, the teaching-learning activities, the evaluation criteria, the temporisation, the specific pedagogic interventions and the didactic resources. The classroom syllabus is the nexus between the School Curriculum Project and teaching practice.

E. Teaching methods. Teaching methods –which should be specified in the classroom syllabus– are the approaches teachers use in their classrooms (for foreign language teaching methods see point 1.1.4). Any instructional method a teacher uses entails preliminary preparation. According to Bob Kizlik (2005) there are different points teachers should go through before teaching. ADPRIMA summarises them:

- Assessment (find out what students know).
- Diagnosis (analyse the results from the assessment that will provide the bases for the next step).
- Prescription (plan instruction to move students from where they are to the achievement of an aim).

---

[3] A credit is, strictly speaking, an amount of 30 hours students are asked to attend of a particular subject. In the ESO stage, "credit" is used as a synonym of "subject".

- Reticulation (learn how to obtain the resources needed or, in case of failure, find out how to backup).

- Instruction (the actual teacher performance in presenting the lesson; its effectiveness will depend on the feedback students will receive).

- Motivation (see below).

- Assessment (realise whether the lesson has achieved its objectives).

Summing up, before instruction, the teacher should follow many steps. Choosing a methodology to use in a lesson is not an easy job and it requires knowledge and research on the part of the teacher to discover that there is no one right methodology. The best thing to do is to adopt a flexible methodology to be able to reach as many individuals as possible.

F. Motivation, crucial for this study as it is another feature measured in this dissertation, is a very important ingredient to take into account. Motivation answers the question: why does an individual behave the way (s)he does? Reinforcement as well as cognitive theories try to answer this question.

The word "motivation" comes from the Latin verb "movere" (to move), so it can be defined as something that makes us start or keeps us moving. Many early views connected motivation with internal forces (instincts, traits, will). Behavioural theories view motivation as a way of responding to stimuli caused by reinforcement. Contemporary cognitive views advocate that individual's thoughts, beliefs and emotions influence motivation. Despite the different viewpoints on the nature of motivation, a general definition could be (Pintrich & Schunk 2002: 5): "motivation is the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained". My operative definition is *motivation is the inner force that causes people to choose certain behaviours and that keeps them going to achieve a goal*.

Motivation theories can be classified into (Cherrington 2003):

    A. three main reinforcement theories:

    1. Classical Conditioning,

    2. Operant Conditioning, and

    3. Social Cognitive Theory,

which explain how individuals acquire new behaviours in terms of their reinforcing consequences (that is why they are also called learning theories); and

B. three main cognitive theories:

1. Expectancy,

2. Equity, and

3. Goal Setting Theory,

which explain how people analyse their situation and behave to maximise their rewards.

A.1. Classical Conditioning consists in linking a neutral stimulus with a reflexive response. Its pioneer was Ivan Pavlov. He carried out a well-known experiment verifying that, subsequent to the repeated action of giving food to a dog after ringing a bell, when the dog heard that bell again he produced salivation.

A.2. Operant Conditioning focuses on learning voluntary behaviours that are under the control of the muscle system of the body. Its pioneer was Burrhus Frederick Skinner. He focussed his investigation on the stimulus-response-reinforcement trilogy.

In school, pupils are exposed to a large number of stimuli from the colour of the wall to the light etc. (See point 2.1.1). When students are asked to focus on the teacher's explanation, they have to make an effort to distinguish it from other stimuli. This is a key part of the learning process.

Normally, a person is expected to produce not only one response but a number of chained responses, so learners are taught to produce chain responses after being trained to divide any task they should accomplish into smaller steps. In early stages any response given by a learner is considered correct but, as learning continues, shaping takes place, and only the closer responses to the correct one are considered correct. How can students improve? Only students to whom feedback is been given can progress. So, feedback improves performance (see pages 62-63).

A.3. Social Cognitive Theory. Its pioneer was Albert Bandura, who regarded as important the fact of considering cognitive thought in

understanding human behaviour. Social Cognitive theories together with Operant Conditioning agree with the statement that behaviour is influenced by its consequences. But one of their differences is that, according to social cognitive theory, behaviour is determined by more than only the environment and personality interacting to influence each other (see pages 57-62). Another difference between Operant Conditioning and Social Cognitive Theory is that the latter emphasises the importance of vicarious (imitative) learning, symbolic (words, pictures) systems and self-regulatory processes (see pages 65-67) to understand human behaviour.

The main problem in applying all these aforementioned reinforcement theories is knowing what a "reinforcer" is. People are reinforced by many different objects and events, and there are important individual differences about what is worthy. There are positive and negative reinforcers. The former refer to desirable consequences and the latter refer to negative consequences. There is another classification of reinforcers: primary and secondary. Primary reinforcers, innate, are those associated with physiological needs (food, pain…); secondary reinforcers are learned or acquired (social approvement, pride…). A further classification of reinforcers distinguishes between extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Extrinsic rewards are given by external sources (family, peers…) while intrinsic rewards are internal feelings associated to the work itself (self-satisfaction…). The relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards has been closely investigated, as extrinsic rewards too frequently tend to destroy intrinsic rewards. Hence, the further classification aforesaid is constituted by:

a) Positive reinforcement contingencies consist of providing a positive reinforcement after a correct response (e.g. rewarding students with encouragement words).

b) Punishment contingencies consist of administering an aversive stimulus after a wrong response (e.g. penalising peers with negative words).

c) Escape contingencies refer to a situation where an aversive stimulus is present and one should make a response to eliminate

it, those last contingencies are more likely to act or produce a response (e.g. after a teacher has given some homework for the next day, students say they have got two exams).

d) Avoidance contingencies consist in making a response to avoid a non desired consequence (e.g. students invent excuses if they have not done their homework to avoid being told off).

e) Extinction contingencies consist in not reinforcing a response (e.g. ignoring students who talk without raising their hands).

The timing of the reinforcement also influences behaviour, as reinforcers are more effective when they occur immediately after a response. The main reinforcement schedules are: 1. continuous (reinforces each correct response), 2. intermittent (only a portion of the correct response is reinforced), 3. variable (reinforcement occurs after a random number of responses), and 4. interval schedules (the reinforcement is based on an interval of time that could be fixed or variable).

In order to carry out Organisational Behaviour Modification, also called OB Mod, through which reinforcement principals are applied within an organisation, could be a school, to change the behaviour of its members, one should follow five steps:

1. identify performance related events (find out the specific behaviour that contributes to effective performance),
2. measure the frequency of response,
3. identify existing contingencies (examine antecedents and consequences of a behaviour),
4. use intervention strategies (provide a foundation for altering behaviour),
5. evaluate (whether behaviour has changed and if it is contributing to improvement).

Although OB Mod had many good results in different contexts where it has been applied, it has been criticised as being unethical because it changes individual performance and the person is not free to act.

B.1. Expectancy Theory. Its basic idea is that motivation is determined by the outcomes people expect to occur as a result of their action, so it is a theory based on personal perceptions (see pages 43-50). The amount of effort an individual is willing to exert depends on: a) the perceived relationship effort-performance (expectancy: If I try hard, can I do this job?), b) the perceived relationship performance-outcome (instrumentality: If I perform well, will I be rewarded?), and c) the value of the outcome (valence: Is it worth it?) (see pages 55-57). Some descriptions of Expectancy Theory discuss two levels of outcomes: first-level outcomes (quantity and quality of performance) and second-level outcomes (consequences of performance). How can individuals apply this expectancy theory? 1. Examine the effort-performance relationship. 2. Examine the performance-reward relationship. 3. Use highly valued rewards to reinforce good performance.

B.2. Equity Theory. It is based on studies examining social comparison processes (see pages 50-51). People evaluate their inputs according to the jobs relative to the outputs they receive, and then they compare them to the inputs and outputs of others (effort, performance, time…) –all this is obviously the person's perception. The consequence of inequity is a feeling of guilt and dissatisfaction that people want to surmount correcting the imbalance; how? 1. altering the inputs, 2. altering the outcomes, 3. distorting one's own inputs and outputs, 4. distorting others' inputs and outputs, 5. adopting a new comparison group, and 6. abandoning the situation. There are two types of "pay" inequity: underpayment (if individuals are underpaid, they tend to increase the quantity of their work, but the quality declines) and overpayment (if individuals are overpaid, they tend to reduce the quantity of their work, but increase the quality). This can also apply to students who perceive they are under-rewarded or over-rewarded referring to marks. Hence, though it is rather difficult, students should be rewarded according to the amount of effort devoted to a task. Eventhough this may seem controversial, it is not, as for some individuals it may be harder to learn music than for others, for example (see point 2.2.1.1).

B.3. Goal Setting Theory. This theory was presented in 1968 by Edwin A. Locke. A goal is simply a standard of performance an individual is trying to achieve and, if goals are properly identified, it is more likely that they will be accomplished (see pages 55-57). Students go frequently through goal setting models such as when they assess their present condition and discover their scores are low. Since they have discrepancies between their desired and actual conditions, they tend to initiate a goal setting process. Any goal setting process should start: 1. specifying the goals, 2. recognising a degree of difficulty, 3. accepting them and 4. undertaking them (determined by personal as well as situational variables (see point 2.1)). Commitment is higher when goals are: 1. self-set, 2. made public, 3. the individual has a locus of control and 4. the individual has a need for achievement. Goal setting occurs in three ways: participative goals (goals are discussed), assigned goals (goals are imposed) or do-your-best-goals (individuals control their own goals). In this educational action-research, participative goals have been favoured; thus, learners may be more engaged in the learning process.

Summing up, motivating individuals is difficult and each theory contributes to our understanding of how to motivate students. But, is it possible to develop a more general theory? One that incorporates all the relevant observations examined through all the other theories? As has been put forward, each theory explained above has more or less an equivalent in NLP presuppositions (see point 1.1.4.12). Consequently, I argue that NLP can be also considered a kind of motivational theory with the advantage that it is an eclectic approach to individual thinking.

In a learning environment, motivation is the students' incentive to succeed. Motivation can influence what, when and how we learn (Schunk 1991). Nevertheless, according to Alonso Tapia (2000) the types of motivation change through the years and from one activity to the next. They depend on the context and they also depend on previous experiences of the individual. As stated before, students can do two things: either learn or avoid the task, it will all depend, (Alonso Tapia 2000) on the learners' intelligences, effort, belief in their own capacity to modify their abilities, strategies used and the help received from

others. In the report of these points, one can infer that teachers play an important role, as they have to activate the curiosity of the students, increase or create a need to reach a goal, make clear the importance of the subject contents and trigger and maintain their interest –before, during and after each activity, task or project. How should teachers act? Either in individual or cooperative tasks teachers should:

- show unconditional acceptance of every student (that means welcome opinions or interventions from every single learner);
- make clear the functionality of every learning bit;
- give different performing options;
- facilitate the learning experience;
- help them to decide what they really want (creating their own objectives);
- make the attaining processes clear;
- remodel the use of these processes according to the feedback received;
- help when needed and make possible to practice learning;
- encourage autonomy.

In conclusion, there are many circumstances, resources, rules and feelings involved in the different situations in which students learn. The teacher should encourage learning, eliminating –when possible– disruptive circumstances and promoting appropriate learning situations. In short, a teacher ought to help to learn how to construct learning, and to encourage students to enjoy themselves while learning. In this way they will be more and more eager to go on learning.

2.2. Learning process: the learner

The context elements described above influence any learner: his/her personality and his/her intelligence(s), which are determined by birth, but can also be finely tuned.

Concerning personality, as Leontiev (1981) states, one cannot simply define this word as the result of the equally significant consequences of inherited psychological

features and of surroundings and culture, because there is still another element to be considered to be able to end up with the whole concept of personality. Personality is constituted by innate traits (temperament and character), by the social relationships in a specific context (see point 2.1), by individual culture as well as by the activity to adjust oneself to the world. Self-adaptation along with self-preservation (see point 2.1.3) are key concepts to understand the term: personality. A personality is reactively formed; it means formed from reactions or from different situations through a person's life-time (Kimura 2006). Thus, the school should not impose a group of prescribed truths, but provide the learner with significant reasons to choose how to act (see pages 55-57).

Regarding "intelligence(s)", one could wonder: Why is the plural used for this word? And what is the meaning of intelligence?

2.2.1. Multiple Intelligences Approach

2.2.1.1. Gardner's Multiple Intelligences

There is no clear definition for intelligence, as the concept of this relevant word depends on the context a person lives in. Our culture focuses too much on verbal and logical-mathematical thinking neglecting other ways of thinking. According to some scholars, people have more than one intelligence: the range of intelligences described has varied from two to two hundred and fifty. Howard Gardner in 1983, specified seven of these intelligences (Gardner 1983):

- **Linguistic intelligence** which is the intelligence of words, the most universal of the seven intelligences. It includes the mastery of phonology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Individuals with an ongoing activity in the linguistic field generate verbal "trains of thought".
- **Logic-Mathematical intelligence**. It is the intelligence of numbers and logic. People with this intelligence have the ability to understand cause and effect relationship and the capacity to use numbers to enrich the quality of life.
- **Spatial intelligence** or picture intelligence is the ability to perceive the visual-spatial world accurately. People with this visual intelligence have a special sensitivity for the artistic world. Visual thinkers have a dynamic idea-finding procedure.

● **Musical intelligence**. As people are surrounded by music, this informal education influences the way they think. Everyone has music inside him/herself and how to express it should be learned. There are three levels to listening to music (Gardner 1983):

> - Sensuous: listening for pleasure.
>
> - Expressive: paying attention to mood and meaning.
>
> - Musical: attending to melody, harmony, rhythm, timbre, tone colour and texture.

However, this classification can also be applied to other activities such as reading, etc.

● **Bodily-Kinaesthetic intelligence** is the intelligence of the physical self: *Mens sana in corpore sano*. The body expresses what the mind harbours and vice versa (Armstrong 1993: 75-83). Physical movement is an important factor in thinking processes, so people have to help mind and body work together.

● **Interpersonal intelligence** is the ability to understand and work with others. People with this intelligence are socially very responsible and have the ability to go inside the skin of others and view the world from their perspective.

● **Intrapersonal intelligence** or inner-self intelligence is the ability to access our own feelings discriminating different emotional states. These people tend to be very independent, goal-directed and self-disciplined.

Why has Gardner chosen these intelligences? What characteristics should all of them hold in order to be considered an intelligence? (Gardner 1983)

1. Potential isolation by brain damage. After many case histories, neuropsychologists have found that "brain damage to specific areas of the brain had the potential to devastate particular intelligences while leaving others alone" (Armstrong 1993: 241).

2. The existence of idiots savants, prodigies and other exceptional individuals will lead also to the observation of the existence of the different intelligences. Investigating exceptional people who have developed one of the intelligences to a high level will help to consolidate that specific intelligence.

3. An identifiable core operation or set of operations. Each intelligence should have a specific mechanism to take in information.

4. A distinctive developmental history, along with a definable set of expert "end-state" performances. Each intelligence should develop independently from novice to expertise.

5. An evolutionary history. Looking back into the past times and continuing up to the present, the intelligence should have developed according to the era.

6. Support from experimental psychological tasks. Drawing from the psychological field and having to do with memory, attention, perception and transfer in learning, one can distinguish the different intelligences involved.

7. Support from psychometric findings. Intelligence Quotient (IQ) can be used as a contribution to know whether these intelligences exist.

8. Susceptibility to encoding in a symbol system. The ability to symbolise distinguishes human beings from animals; so all intelligences must be capable of being symbolised.

Apart from the seven intelligences explained above, there are two more candidates called, according to Armstrong (1993: 220), intelligences of the twenty-first century which are (Gardner 1999):

● **Naturalist intelligence**. A naturalist shows "expertise in the recognition and classification of the numerous species –the flora and the fauna– of his/her environment" (Armstrong 1993: 225). People with this intelligence show a natural care for flora or a sensitivity towards animals.

● **Existential intelligence**, which is, according to Gardner, the intelligence of concern with ultimate life issues. Existential people succeed in locating themselves within the cosmos or within the features of the human condition.

But Gardner and his research colleagues have extended this list of intelligences up to twenty, knowing that it is also an arbitrary number. Gardner's theory has been criticised as there are many areas of human psychology that it cannot include: personality, temperament, affect, feeling or the development of the character. There are also capacities such as common sense, creativity or metaphoric capacity which make use of mental skills but, because of their general nature, seem inexplicable within terms of individual intelligences (Gardner 1983: 277-298) though they obviously

could fit into any type of intelligence. The most important thing is that this multifaceted view of intelligences is a richer view of people's ability and potential for success than the traditional concept of IQ based on mathematical and linguistic intelligences only.

2.2.1.2. Salovey and Mayer's Emotional Intelligence

The roots of Salovey and Mayer's emotional intelligence are in other pieces of research such as Thorndike's or Wechsler's. Thorndike wrote about a "social intelligence" (Thorndike & Stein 1937). Wechsler (1958: 7) defined intelligence as the general capability of a person to perform purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his or her surroundings. He talked about "intellective" as well as "non-intellective" (affective, personal and social) elements.

The main question is whether non-intellective, that is affective and conative abilities, are admissible factors of general intelligence. (My contention) has been that such factors are not only admissible but necessary. I have tried to show that in addition to intellective there are also definite non-intellective factors that determine intelligent behaviour. If the foregoing observations are correct, it follows that we cannot expect to measure total intelligence until our tests also include some measures of the non-intellective factors. (Wechsler 1943: 103)

By the beginning of the 1990s many studies on non-cognitive factors were published. Salovey and Mayer's research lead them to focus on what they called: "emotional intelligence". They defined this intelligence as a type of social intelligence that comprises the capacity to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to distinguish among them, and to use this information to guide one's thoughts and actions (Salovey & Mayer 1990). Individuals with a higher score in perceiving accurately, understanding and appraising other's emotions could respond to changes better and, thus, be more flexible to adapt themselves to different situations in society (Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler & Mayer 1999).

Salovey and Mayer (1990: 185-211) expanded Gardner's personal intelligences into five domains:

1. Knowing one's emotions: recognising a feeling is essential to understand oneself. If people do not have this ability, emotions will guide their lives instead of them guiding their emotions. The awareness of one's emotions is called "metamood". Different styles of dealing with emotions could be:

    - Self-awareness: being aware of the moods while having them. It helps to manage the emotions.

    - Engulfed: feeling swamped by the emotions. The emotions are beyond people's control.

    - Accepting: knowing what the feelings are and accepting the moods (good or bad).

2. Managing emotions: handling feelings so they are appropriate in a given situation. Two particularly effective strategies are:

    1. question the validity of our thoughts and,
    2. purposely schedule distracting events.

    Worries, for example, are almost always expressed in the mind's ear not in the mind's eye (see pages 51-52) –that is to say in words, not in images– and they can be controlled.

3. Motivating oneself: emotions that serve any goal lead to accomplishment of every sort. These kinds of emotions help people to be more effective.

    Anxiety weakens the intellect and, on the contrary, optimism, as well as hope, helps excellence.

4. Recognising emotions in others: non-verbal signs help us to identify the feeling of the speaker better than his/her words (see pages 67-69).

    People feeling empathy are more conscious of social signals that indicate what others want or do not want.

    Attunement, pacing or mirroring are good skills to use when dealing with another person (see pages 63-65).

5. Handling relationships: it helps people manage emotions in others. The rules about which feelings can be shown and when they can be shown have to undergo social agreement; that is why they are different for each culture.

Emotional displays have immediate consequences in the impact they make on the receiver. Individuals unconsciously imitate the emotions they see exhibited.

Before going any further, I would like to clarify the difference between emotion, mood and feeling (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999).

An **emotion** is "made up of a combination of behaviours..." (an external behaviour which one labels as anger may not necessarily correspond to the emotion "angry"), "...sensations..." (physically one can describe a rage as stomach tightening, tension of own skin... but another person may experience similar physical sensations and label them differently), "...interpretations or labels..." (for one person the tightening of the stomach may be perceived as fear and another would call it excitement) "...and beliefs" (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 35-36). So emotions would be the recognizable forms: anger, fear, joy, loneliness, sadness, pain, jealousy, etc. No negative emotion is personal, pervasive or permanent "the three Ps", as Michael Hall (1996) calls it (see also page 67).

Mood is a state of mind which implies a pervasiveness and compelling quality of any emotion. That is to say, while emotions are concrete reactions to a particular event with usually a quite short duration, mood is a more general feeling (e.g. happiness, sadness, frustration, contentment, or anxiety) that lasts for a longer time. The mood could be the acting out of an emotion or feeling.

Finally, **feelings** are general emotional conditions or perceptions of events within the body: e.g. relaxed. That is why one can say that a feeling is descriptive, whereas an emotion is evaluative. The physiological feeling can be the same in two people but they can encode it differently depending on the formative experiences. As the teacher-researcher has stated before, an emotion is the association of a feeling together with a label, so learning to distinguish feelings from labels and being able to re-code and re-label experiences on what people want to take out of them is one of the main steps towards acquiring emotional intelligence (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 161). All three, though, are called internal states. Emotional intelligence means managing and using emotions, and it is acquired through experiences.

Experiences consist of three elements, which influence one another: apart from the above explained internal states (feelings, emotions, moods), there are internal

processes or internal voices (thoughts, beliefs, strategies, decisions) and the external behaviour that can be observed by other people in our body posture, gestures, voice, muscle tension, breathing... And these three elements are, at the same time, influenced by the context (see point 2.1) and our values.
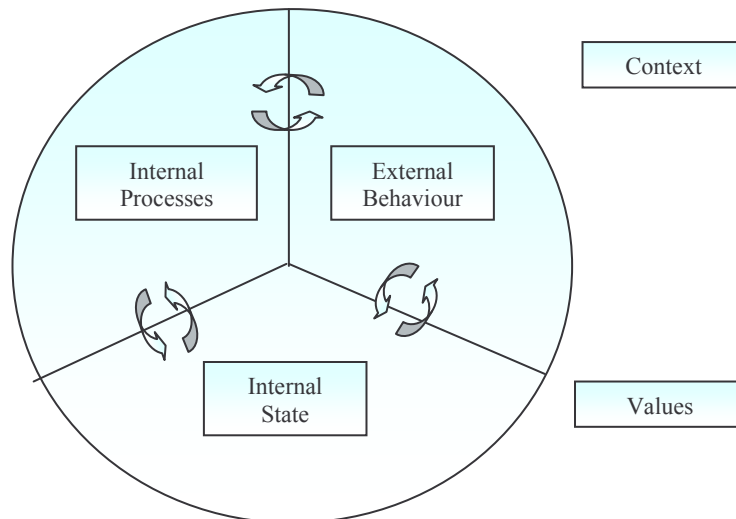
Any emotion is a combination of external and internal patterns "body-mind" (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 40-41):

- the "body end" searches for the context, activates external behaviour and activates internal sensations as well;
- the "mind end" activates beliefs, values and internal representations. Individuals can access their emotions through their "mind end" thinking of a state to re-access and then thinking of their own experience or through their "body end" which is more difficult as people have to be very familiar with the specific emotion; this can be done naturally or people can teach themselves to do it (see pages 52-55).

Managing our emotions is a very important part of emotional intelligence because our emotions are resources to achieve our outcomes and because experiencing emotions is a goal in itself (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 55). People should learn to understand the function of their emotions in their everyday life and in that of other people around them.

Merlevede, Bridoux and Vandamme (1999) adopted Gardner's personal intelligences adapting and completing them with some of Salovey and Mayer's ideas.

a) Intrapersonal Intelligence: "determining moods, feelings and other mental states in oneself and the way they affect our behaviour, altering (or managing) these states, self-motivation, etc." (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 8).

b) Interpersonal Intelligence: "recognising emotions in others, using this information as a guide for behaviour, and for building and maintaining relationships." (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 8).

Another classification of intelligences worth mentioning is the one popularised by Goleman in 1996. He states that any human being has "two minds, one that thinks and one that feels ... the rational mind and the emotional mind" (Goleman 1996: 8).

The rational mind is the "mode of comprehension we are typically conscious of: more prominent in awareness, thoughtful, able to ponder and reflect", and the emotional mind is "more impulsive, powerful and sometimes maybe illogical" (Goleman 1996: 8). This last type of mind is far quicker than the rational as it skips the analytic reflection that is the key element of the thinking mind. Emotions can overtake us even before one is quite aware of them. This rapid response helps us in extreme circumstances and can be described as involuntary reaction. All this reasoning has a clear biological explanation:

A visual signal first goes from the retina to the thalamus, where it is translated into the language of the brain. Most of the message then goes to the visual cortex, where it is analysed and assessed for meaning and appropriate response; if that response is emotional, a signal goes to the amygdala to activate the emotional centres. But a smaller portion of the original signal goes straight from the thalamus to the amygdala in a quicker transmission, allowing a faster (though less precise) response. Thus the amygdala can trigger an emotional response before the cortical centres have fully understood what is happening. (Goleman 1996: 19)

Motor area

Amygdala

Prefrontal cortex

Thalamus

Auditory area

Visual area

Cerebellum
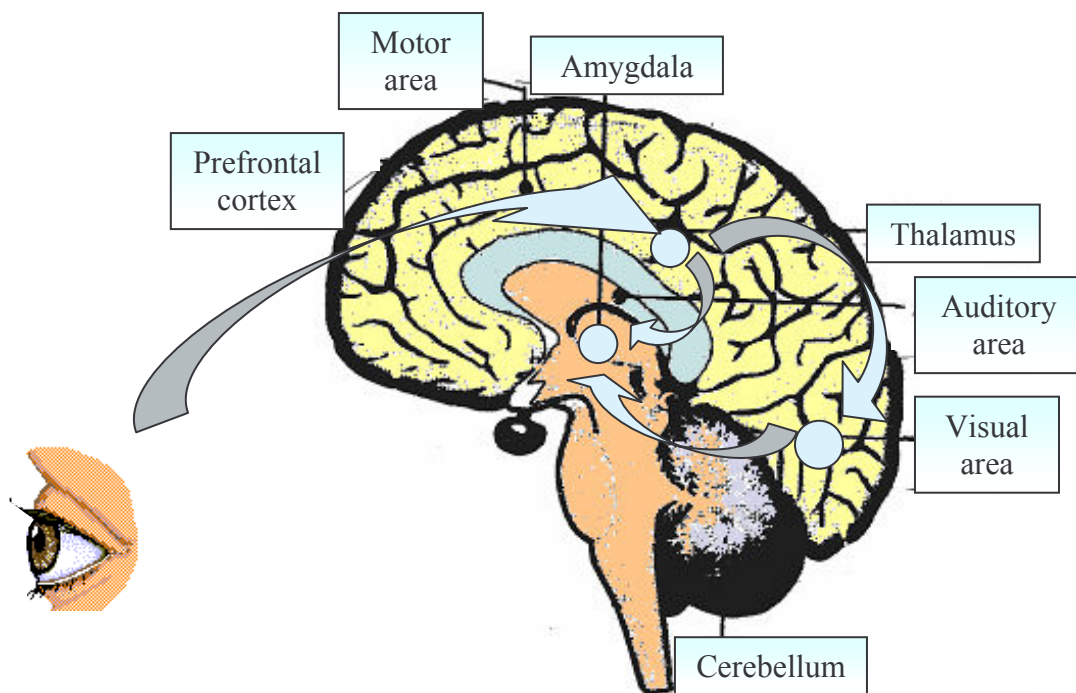
Hence, there is also a kind of emotional reaction that complements the rational mind. Solving problems, for example, requires more than just cognitive skills or logical thinking (overview the problem and propose a theoretical solution) it also requires emotional intelligence (find an effective way to apply the solution) (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 8). For instance, if one fails an exam, this person will say to him/herself "I will have to study more for the next exam!", but if emotionally this individual is convinced that (s)he is not able to pass any exam of a specific subject, (s)he will not succeed.

Through his analysis of the unconscious, Sigmund Freud showed that there is more than rational thinking in our minds; the non-rational way of thinking is what we now call "emotional intelligence". The "Emotional mind" is "state-specific", that is, "dictated by the particular feeling ascendant at a given moment" (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 10): the more intense the feeling, the stronger the emotion becomes; consequently, each emotion has its specific biological reaction (Goleman 1996: 296).

Emotional intelligence is an important notion for a successful life though by itself it is not a good predictor of success. That is why Goleman distinguished between

"emotional intelligence" and "emotional competence". Gowing (2001) agreed with this division saying that the emotional competencies are tied to and based on emotional intelligence. He went on stating that a certain degree of emotional intelligence is needed to acquire the emotional competencies. It is these emotional competencies that we need to educate, incentivate and encourage.

Summing up, and opposed to "classic intelligence" measured by the IQ tests (logical reasoning, spatial orientation, analytical skills, language skills, etc.), "emotional intelligence" is "the complex whole of behaviours, capacities (or competencies), beliefs and values which enable someone to successfully realise their vision and mission given the context of this choice" (Merlevede, Bridoux & Vandamme 1999: 8). Hence, all the above mentioned researchers have many points in common: first of all they all recognise that there is not only one or two intelligences, that the different intelligences cannot be all evaluated with present IQ tests and, furthermore, that all the intelligences can be educated.

For Merlevede, Bridoux and Vandamme (1999: 99) emotions are what put human beings into motion, "preferably in the direction we want to go". Knowing that emotional intelligence is such a strong component of our mind that complemented by the rational intelligence shapes individuals' learning; teachers as well as students should try to delve more deeply into their conscious and unconscious thoughts in order to emphasise, accept and serve each and every one of the different teaching and learning styles. The Multiple Intelligences theory is another of the pillars of ADA and consequently of the action-research carried out in this dissertation.

In short, learners are influenced by their personality as well as by their Multiple Intelligences, and at this point I would add –as we are talking about a school environment– by their developmental level. The developmental level is the progress stage of any child which does not depend only on the age but on the stimulation received in the frames of biological levels of maturation. Thus, these three factors help to constitute the psychological scaffold of any student and will assist him/her to learn meaningfully.

2.3. Sequences in the learning process:

As has been already stated, before starting any learning process, the individual aims should be clear and meaningful. Bloom (1964), together with a group of psychologists, in an informal meeting of college examiners attending the 1948 American Psychological Association Convention in Boston, discussed on the difficulties of cooperating with work on education. They saw major values arising from the attempt to order the desired aims of any school. The fact was that many educational objectives were stated meaningless and if the aim was to direct the learning process, they had to become meaningful. So, they created a taxonomy.

A taxonomy is "a special kind of framework" (Anderson 2001: 4). Why did they call it "taxonomy" and not "classification?" Because taxonomies have certain structural rules which are more complex than the rules of a classification system. "A classification scheme may be validated by reference to the criteria of communicability, usefulness, and suggestiveness; while taxonomy must be validated by demonstrating its consistency with theoretical views" (Bloom 1956: 17). Accordingly, while a classification may have many arbitrary elements, a taxonomy scheme may not.

There are some categories in the taxonomy which lie along a continuum from concrete (factual) to abstract (metacognitive); even if the conceptual and procedural categories overlap in terms of abstractness.

A threefold division of educational objectives was created later (Bloom, 1964: 6): cognitive, affective and psychomotor because the educational objectives could easily be classified in one of these three domains.

a) Cognitive: it refers to ways to remember or reproduce something that has presumably been learned; or solve intellective tasks with the help of ideas, methods or procedures previously learned. They are the most frequent in the school setting (see point 2.2.1.2).

b) Affective: it refers to objectives which emphasise a feeling, attitude, emotion or degree of acceptance or rejection. The teacher-researcher has already stated the importance of emotions and consequently of the actions, feelings… that lead to them (see point 2.2.1.2).

c) Psychomotor: it refers to aims that allude to muscular or motor skills or manipulation of material and objects (see point 2.2.1.1).

This division goes back to the ancient Greeks; psychologists repeatedly have been using similar three-section organisations: cognition, conation and feeling; thinking, willing and acting (Ajzen & Fishbein 2005); mind, heart and body. It is clear that a person responds to these three things as a unique whole, and many recent studies start investigating from this premise.

From the three domains, three process dimensions have been created: a cognitive process dimension, an affective process dimension and a psychomotor process dimension.

For the cognitive process dimension, Bloom (1964: 49) suggests various levels for the intended behaviour of the students, the way individuals act, think or feel as the result of participating in some learning. It begins with the student's recall and recognition of **knowledge**, it continues through the **comprehension** of the knowledge, the **application** of the comprehended knowledge follows, the process carries on with the **analysis** of specific situations connecting them with previous knowledge and the **synthesis,** involving new situations; finally there should be an **evaluation** done by the student him/herself. According to some experts who revised Bloom's taxonomy later on (Anderson et al. 2001), the synthesis step, or the "creation" step as they called it, goes after the evaluation section, because they think creating is the most complex category, instead of evaluating. Under each level there are also several sublevels.

For the affective process dimension, six different levels were shaped. The process begins with the students **receiving** stimuli and passively attending to it, the second step is **responding** to the stimuli, after that the **valuing** of the phenomenon or activity is also important, next the **conceptualisation** of each value responded to, the **organisation** of these values into systems and finally the organisation of the values into a whole: the **characterisation** of the individual.

Despite the existence of a third domain, the manipulative or motor-skill area, the group of psychologists who were investigating in that field did not believe the development of an organisation of objectives concerning this area was worthy. However, the importance of psychomotor objectives has already been mentioned (see pages 43-50).

I have given an overview of Bloom's taxonomy because I have based part of the sequencing of my learning process on a mixture of his affective and cognitive dimension because I think the two of them coexist simultaneously. Apart from Bloom (1956, 1964) I have also used other sources such as Honey and Mumford (in González

Davies 2004), Grasha and Riechman (1974) or Kolb (1984) to complete my proposal. The concepts used have been slightly modified and I have added issues that I consider essential and subtracted aspects that I do not consider necessary to approach the process followed while learning.

2.3.1. Perceiving: VAKOG

When an individual perceives no matter what, it means that there is something to be perceived, a stimulus. But what exactly is a stimulus? I have taken a definition from Kleine-Horst (2001): it is "an immediate local, physical (or chemical) influence on a sense organ". The type of stimuli will or should depend upon the context of an individual, and any stimulus has meaning "in the context of other stimuli" (Balsam 1985: 3).

To perceive is therefore to obtain knowledge through the senses. Even if initially we were thought to have only five senses: sight, hearing, touch, smell, and taste, scientists have discovered that "we have several additional kinds of sensations, such as pain, pressure, temperature, joint position, muscle sense, and movement, but these are generally included under *touch*" (Farr 2002: 1). All these senses could be classified into two blocks according to the types of perception they produce in human beings (Appelbaum & Turner 1978):

- Internal perception (proprioception) tells us what is going on in our bodies. We can sense if we are thirsty or sad.
- External or *sensory* perception (exteroception), tells us about the world outside our bodies.

In this section, I will deal with sensory perceptions as explained before (see pages 43-50), despite the fact that internal perceptions are also extremely significant. What individuals are willing to receive (as it should imply attention), or what people perceive through any of their senses (which does not imply awareness) is subjective. It is different from the physical characteristics of the world around us. For instance, we cannot see ultraviolet light, but bees can. This last example is a human limitation, but even though all human beings have the same conditions, we all perceive the world in our own way. And as individuals we also see the world differently depending on time, place or personal mood. Thus, when talking about sensory perception, Pines (2005)

states that "It is limited by our genes, as well as our previous experiences and our state of attention." Consequently, I agree with the NLP statement that says *The map is not the territory* (see pages 43-50). Many cognitive psychologists agree on saying that, as people live, they create provisional models of how the world works, that they change through time. There are many theories of perception (Devitt 2002):

- Realistic theories hold that there is a world external to the mind.
    1. Naïve realism: people think that what is perceived is the thing itself.
    2. Direct realism: there are direct connections, despite the fact that they are not known yet, between external representations and the mind. Idea first proposed by Thomas Reid.
    3. Indirect realism: perception is a form of brain activity and the brain is able to perceive itself. Idea proposed by John Locke and Immanuel Kant.

- Anti-realistic theories:
    4. Idealism: one can only be aware of mental items, everything depends upon the mind. It was suggested by George Berkeley. Two branches of idealism are: a) Phenomenalism (physical elements are viewed as a mental event) and b) Subjective Idealism (denies the existence of an objective reality).
    5. Skepticism: as a person is never able to perceive external objects directly, one never knows if they exist. Advocated by David Hume.

Skinner (1953) stated that the opposition to inner states is not that they do not exist, but that they are not important in a practical analysis. However, I would say that the more we can clarify about inner states representations, the more we will be able to progress concerning the way students learn. Even though psychologists themselves do not agree about many important issues, such as whether the brain can contain images, I support the theory of indirect realism because I think there is a world external to the mind and the brain works accordingly; but according to what it perceives, not to the reality. Now, everything is ready to talk again about the NLP VAKOG system.

Going back to the sequencing of the learning process, I would like to retake it to say that a stimulus or task initiator framed by a context, is perceived by an individual through the senses –we are in this case talking about the best known five senses (see

above). Any person, according to his/her sense priorities will have one preferred perceptual style or another. People experience the world through their senses or "representational systems": VAKOG stands for Visual, Auditory, Kinaesthetic, Olfactory and Gustatory. The Olfactory and Gustatory are often included in the kinaesthetic sense –as the new senses are incorporated under "touch"– so the "primary representational systems" are the "VAK". This evidently relates specifically to Gardner's interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences (see point 2.2.1.1) and Salovey and Mayer's emotional intelligence (see 2.2.1.2) as, if people know how themselves or individuals around them perceive, learn and assimilate different situations, it may help them understand and predict behaviour, recognise and act on emotions or moods, etc. and that will consequently lead to a better understanding of life. Nevertheless, it also connects with the other intelligences because, depending on the representational system individuals have bred, most or part of their intelligences will be much more developed than the others. That is to say, if one uses kinaesthetic or visual experiences as the leading representational system, his/her spatial intelligence will probably be more developed than someone thinking in an auditory way.

People tend to use one of these systems more than the others; it is the "preferred primary representational system". With the visual system, information is taken in through the eyes; with the auditory system, information is taken in through the ears; with the kinaesthetic system, information is taken in through the hands or bodies. In a scientific article published in *El Mundo* by Rosa M. Tristán (2005: 36), one can read that the neurologist Jesús Pujol discovered that musicians listen to music using more neuronal zones than non-musicians. Thus, the more one uses a system, the more it will develop in the brain so it can be inferred that representational systems can also be educated.

Hence, apart from the intelligences already described (see point 2.2.1), we have seen that one ought to take into account the representations of the stimulus learners receive from any of the individuals or social groups around them (social groups, mass media, classmates, friends, parents or teachers), as appropriate stimuli raise individual motivation and help the learning process.

2.3.2. Processing

First of all, I have to make clear that in my suggestion this step in learning has not much to do with the learning theory proposed by George Miller (1956) in the mid twentieth century: "Information Processing Theory" whose stages were: selecting information (attention), translating it (encoding) and recalling it (retrieval) when necessary. I would just like to take from this three-dimension process the second step, encoding, as the actual processing.

Encoding means at this point to make what is perceived from the world understandable for oneself. So, once the information is perceived through our own senses (sensory acuity), then it is processed or interpreted according to individual brains. It needs a recall process from the brain, that is to say, bringing to mind the material needed for an adequate interpretation of the material received.

Sensory processing is an intricate set of actions that help the mind understand what is happening inside and outside our bodies. Sensory processing is different from sensory acuity as I have tried to prove using the terms: "processing" and "perceiving". The latter is only the physical ability of the sensory organs (see pages 43-50), while processing is how the brain interprets the information received. Let us focus on processing.

There are two factors, according to R. Dunn (2000) to understand "processing":

1. neurological thresholds: the response of the nervous system to sensory input, and

2. the self regulation strategies: how people get on with the input received; this may be associated with one's temperament and personality.

Looking at the relationship between these two factors, there are four patterns to respond to our senses (Dunn 1997):

A. Sensation seeking: it combines high neurological thresholds and an active self regulation strategy. Fellows with these attributes enjoy and generate extra input for themselves. Sensation seeking children are active, excitable and continuously engaging.

B. Low registration: it combines high neurological thresholds and a passive self regulation strategy. People with these characteristics notice sensory stimuli less than others. Low registration children seem very absent minded.

C. Sensory sensitivity: it combines low neurological thresholds and a passive self regulation strategy. Individuals with these features detect more input than others. Sensory sensitive children are very absent-minded.

D. Sensation avoiding: it combines low sensory thresholds and an active self regulation strategy. These people are more bothered by input than others. Sensation avoiding children are rule bound and uncooperative.

(Dunn 1997)
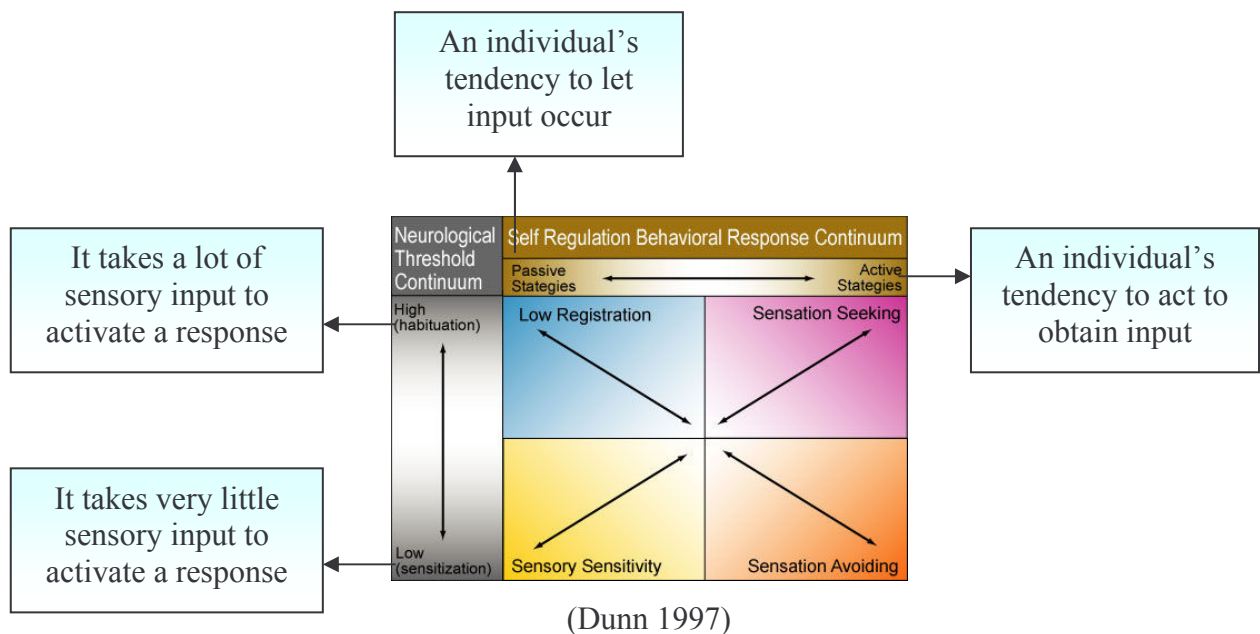
Through these patterns it can be inferred that while people will not need the same type or amount of stimuli, they will neither have the same responses with each sensory system. An individual can be very sensitive to visual stimuli and respond quickly to it and not notice some sound or touch stimuli, and still every person has an amount of each pattern. Teachers should be aware of these designs to be able to act accordingly to every child's pattern, that is to say, to each child's learning style.

According to Reid (1995) learning styles are internally based characteristics of individuals for the intake or understanding of new information. Investigation in this

field has shown that matching learning styles has a positive impact on student's achievements, interests and motivation (Smith & Renzulli 1984).

Although Gardner refuses the learning styles concept and says that a person can learn in different ways in the different intelligences (see point 2.2.1) –an individual can have a holistic perception in linguistic intelligence and a sequential perception in musical intelligence, for example– I think Gardner interprets the learning styles as something fixed for each individual and for every subject matter, but the learning styles can be considered the global tendencies of an individual, which can be continuously changing. Subsequently, it can be said that there are no real contradictions between Multiple Intelligences theories and learning styles theories.

The phrase "learning style" first appears when researchers start to search for strategies and materials to match the students' needs. Many people have provided different learning styles classifications but I will focus on one of the best well-known: Kolb's model. Kolb (1984) classifies students as having a preference for concrete experience or abstract conceptualisation (how they take information in) and active experimentation or reflective observation (how they internalise information), so:

- active learners are people with more of a natural tendency toward active experimentation than toward reflective observation.
- Reflective learners learn best in situations that provide them with opportunities to think about the information being presented.
- Abstract learners are characterised by excellent decoding abilities; they have conceptual "pictures" in their minds.
- Concrete learners prefer step-by-step directions when confronted with a learning situation. They look for directions and they follow them.

As I see it, the Kolb's model is complementary to the psychological elements in the Dunn and Dunn's learning model (see page 71). However, the Dunn and Dunn hemisphericity overlaps both the global/analytic Dunn and Dunn duality and the abstract/concrete Kolb duality elements, as, according to Springer and Deutsch (1989), left-brain individuals tend to be more sequential, analytic, logic and abstract while right-brain individuals tend to be more global, intuitive, holistic and concrete.

LEFT BRAIN	RIGHT BRAIN
successive	simultaneous
intellect	intuition
convergent	divergent
digital	analogic
secondary	primary
abstract	concrete
directed	free
propositional	imaginative
analytic	relational
linear	nonlinear
rational	intuitive
sequential	multiple
analytic	holistic
objective	subjective

(Loren 1999)

Since hemispheric predominance is such a complex world, I prefer to focus on more specific terms such as Kolb's concepts and leave the big world of hemisphericity aside.

Psychologically speaking, and taking up the Kolb's model (1984) again, while processing a stimulus received, I sense that learners grasp the information in two different ways according to whether they are abstract or concrete learners. Concrete learners learn through the acquisition of definite chunks of information and they rely on experiencing knowledge. Abstract learners are skilled at analysing as well as thinking logically, so they reflect upon input.

Individuals also engage themselves with the information received in two ways: actively or reflectively. Active learners learn by becoming involved in a subject; they tend to receive information by doing. Reflective learners rely on observation and prefer to reflect upon new information.

Hence, human beings can be classified as:

- Concrete-reflective: apart from trying to see things from different perspectives, they try to become interested by the information received. So, the key is motivation (see point 2.1.4). They also learn through discussion.

- Abstract-reflective: they react to organised and structured information. They benefit from theoretical models and any kind of visual or auditory input (see pages 43-50), as long as it is logical, it is valid. Interaction is essential.

- Abstract-active: they are interested in factual data and they learn by applying it. The input should be received kinaesthetically (see pages 43-50) and the best way to learn is by trial-and-error.

- Concrete-active: they want to respond immediately to apply input to new situations, as they are the most pragmatic of the four. They hardly accept input if they cannot react straight away, consequently they are very kinaesthetic (see pages 43-50).

Summing up, the more a teacher knows about the way students grasp and engage themselves with the information, the more possibilities (s)he will have to act properly. These individual models are only preferences and the best learners can be adept in all styles. To promote flexibility, it is convenient to vary the way input is provided to students as well as instructional methods.

2.3.3. Conceptualising

A concept is an abstract notion that serves to designate a category of events, entities, or relationships (Margolis 1998). And the act of acquiring a concept is what I call conceptualising.

The conceptualisation process or what Bloom (1956: 186) calls the "Comprehension process", presents the second lowest level of knowledge, that is to say, an individual understands the information, but does not necessarily see its fullest implications. What is knowledge? What type of knowledge is there? As Bloom (1956: 186) states, there are several kinds of knowledge to be remembered:

1. Knowledge of specifics: knowledge of terminology (from the most general to the most specific) or knowledge of specific facts (dates, events, people, places…).

2. Knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics: knowledge of conventions (ways of presenting ideas), knowledge of trends and sequences (knowledge of phenomena with respect to time), knowledge of classifications and categories (sets, divisions, arrangements fundamental for a given field, purpose…), knowledge of criteria (criteria by which facts or opinions are

judged) and knowledge of methodology (methods employed in a particular field, problem…).

3. Knowledge of the Universals and Abstractions in a field: knowledge of principles and generalisations (abstractions valuable in explaining, predicting the most appropriate action) and knowledge of theories and structures (principles and generalisations which present a clear view of a complex phenomenon or problem).

All this knowledge comes from previous experiences and, consequently, it engages feelings and emotions.

According to the level of assumption of knowledge, Bloom (1956: 190) classifies the processes in:

1. Translation: if the students are sufficiently aware of a situation or phenomenon to be able to describe it in different terms from those used originally to describe it.

2. Interpretation: if there is a deeper understanding and students could be expected to summarise and explain the phenomenon.

3. Exploration: if students show even a deeper understanding of the phenomenon through an extension of tendencies beyond the given data to determine consequences, effects…

Complementary to Bloom's classification, Polanyi also inquires into knowledge and, from his analysis, two types of conceptualised knowledge can be withdrawn (Polanyi 1966/1997):

1. Tacit knowledge: it is personal and context-specific, so it is hard to formalise and communicate. As Polanyi (1966/1997: 136) stated: "We know more than we can tell".

2. Explicit knowledge: it is transmittable through formal and systematic language.

As one can perceive, Bloom only talks about "explicit knowledge" not taking into consideration what cannot be uttered. But, in my opinion, explicit knowledge is as important as tacit knowledge since our brain connections (see point 2.3.4) use them both to incorporate new understanding.

Another classification of knowledge worth mentioning can be the one completed by Anderson (1983):

1. Declarative knowledge: knowledge known and understood as a fact.
2. Procedural knowledge: knowledge known as the "how to do knowledge".

This knowledge organisation is extremely essential whenever dealing with the different perceptual styles (see pages 43-50), since the kinaesthetic learners will focus strongly on the procedural type, as their utmost concern is "doing" things. Conceptualising knowledge is, in short, one of the first steps towards cognition.

2.3.4. Organising

Our brain needs to organise the knowledge, concepts and information it receives. Neuropsychology experts declare that the brain works in chunks of information: data is stored in the individual's mind in the form of knowledge frameworks or schemata and new data is understood and stored by calling up the right schema" (Jones et al. 1987).

These schemata are abstract in the sense that they summarise information about objects, events, and situations; and are structured in the sense that they represent associations among their elements. They are not static entities, however; they are dynamic, continually constructed and reconstructed entities, the products of the processes of assimilation and accommodation. (Lawless & Brown 1997: 121)

Following the same line described above, other scholars assert that information is organised in identifiable frameworks such as story grammar, problem/solutions structures, comparison/contrast designs, and description sequences, among others (Jones et al, 1987).

The best learners identify these organisational arrangements and use them to support learning and remembering. Organising knowledge around core concepts or big ideas reflects deep understanding of any subject. In skilled learners, knowledge is also structured in a hierarchy for quick access.

Apart from the above explained knowledge organisational theory, there is another theory supported by many psychology scholars (Allport 1985; Gainotti &

Silveri 1996; Hart & Gordon 1992; Shallice 1988; Silveri & Gainotti 1988; Warrington & McCarthy 1983, 1987; Warrington & Shallice 1984): the sensory/functional theory. In this theory, conceptual knowledge is ordered in the brain by modality (visual, olfactory, motor/functional, etc.) This means that the NLP VAKOG system (see page 43) is so important that even the brain is thought to organise knowledge following its guidelines.

Thus, when the information is organised into any system, individuals have to determine the relationship among its elements; and, finally, the establishment of the degree of dominance is especially significant to call for the information later on (adapted from Bloom 1956: 182). Information tends to create in our brains a type of dynamic equilibrium.

2.3.5. Internalising

According to Elisabeth Atkinson (2000) to internalise is to learn something (such as ideas or skills) and make use of it from then on. I would change this definition a little saying that *to internalise is to learn something and have it ready to use from then on*; since the precise act of using it would obviously be optional and it would constitute a different step in the learning process. At this point, I would like to clarify that to be able to internalise information it ought to be firstly personalised, so feelings and emotions should be involved.

Internalised learning is learning incorporated within oneself, that is to say, assimilated knowledge. When we say that an individual is internalising a concept, it means that (s)he is making new pathways and connection in the schemata of his/her brain; and that the information will be subsequently used as a base structure for future requirements. This means having the knowledge acquired ready to use.

In contrast to the active learner –as Vygotsky in his process of internalisation calls it– Lerman (1996: 147) presents the individual as passive. It can be inferred, from his statements, that he considers the principal means of absorbing knowledge to be part of the specific cultures within which individuals develop. It would mean that the brain connections a human being develops depend upon each particular culture. I agree with the meaning of the statement although I do not consider the learner passive in any way. Therefore, an understanding of the different cultures would drive us to a deeper

understanding of individuals. Thus, dealing with multiculturality (see point 2.1.3) in the classroom will be enriching to know and value others as well as to understand ourselves better.

Dealing again with the idea of how the brain functions internally, one should take into account what Schunk (1999: 219-227) conveys: "internalised information is mentally represented visually as images and verbally as meanings, rules, instructions, and so forth". I would go further and shape this definition according to the senses. As stated above, feelings play an important part in the internalising process, so the kinaesthetic inner perception will also be exceptionally essential.

Summing up, internalising implies *having the possibility to represent any knowledge in our own mind (visually as images or words, auditory as words or sounds, or kinaesthetically as experiences or feelings) and having the possibility to make use of it whenever necessary*.

2.3.6. Consolidating

In our lives, there is a continuous flow of information that the brain has to prioritize to be able to decide whether or not to take action. Consolidating is crucial in the learning process. The consolidated information can go from short-term memory to long-term memory or to long-lasting memory. (Breed 2001) Below a classification of the three memory types in relation to time is given:

- short-term memory: it lasts from seconds to hours,

- long-term memory: it lasts from hours to months, and

- long-lasting memory: it lasts from months to an entire lifetime.

The difference between short-term and long-term memory is the individual importance given to the information and its use or reinforcement from time to time. The difference between long-term and long-lasting memory is in the strength of the associations between specific information and other memories. The strength of a memory might be linked to specific contexts.

To classify the information received in one of these blocks, the learner should go through an extremely significant process: evaluation. Evaluation is, according to Bloom (1956: 185), making "judgements about the value, for some purpose, of ideas, works,

solutions, methods, material, etc." or, in the case that concerns us, it can be defined as *the analysis of any aspect of information to judge its effectiveness and efficiency*.

It obviously involves the use of particular criteria from the learner's previous experiences (internal criteria) or from his/her society (external criteria). This is why one can state that the evaluating process is quite "egocentric" (Bloom, 1956: 185). Ideas and objects useful to one person, evaluated highly for that particular individual, may be useless to another. The judgements can be quantitative (How much?) and/or qualitative (How well?), depending on the items evaluated.

Although explained nearly at the end of the suggested proposal, the self-evaluation process is continuous, so it is also the first step to attain knowledge. Evaluation is cyclical. Evaluation represents a major factor to motivate and to achieve meaningful learning. Hence, when an individual forgets any piece of information, it is because of a failure to reinforce it through repetition, or the result of consciously or unconsciously considering it a non-important bit of knowledge.

2.3.7. Reacting (Characterising)

After consolidating a piece of information, the last step is, sooner or later, reacting to it either physically or psychologically; using it in one way or another, either at a self-controlled level or in an unconscious stage. According to Schunk (1999), there are four levels in the development of academic competence where the "reacting process" is present. In the first two, the learner relies on social factors whereas in the last two levels (s)he relies on him/herself:

1. Observational Level: people learn the major issues from social modelling, but do not necessarily perform them.

2. Emulative Level: people's performance emulates the model's pattern. The learner is not copying but (s)he still requires assistance.

3. Self-Controlled Level: people use the skill independently when performing related tasks though (s)he has not yet developed a completely independent representation.

4. Self-Regulated Level: people adapt their reaction skills systematically as personal and situational conditions change.

This level classification predicts that academic performance develops initially from social sources (observational and emulative level), and subsequently shifts to self-

sources (self-controlled level and self-regulated level). Consequently, it can be considered a Social cognitive approach (for an adaptation to translation teaching see Kiraly 2000). This approach combines the interpersonal as well as the intrapersonal intelligences and that would mean that, apart from the possible rational intelligence used to acquire knowledge, emotional intelligence is also involved (see point 2.2.1).

Summing up, reacting to or using any consolidated knowledge is the best way a) to prove its complete achievement as well as b) to maintain its degree of necessary constancy to keep up with the information acquired.

This whole learning process proposal can be perceived to suggest many different individual learning styles depending on environmental, physical, sociological, psychological, pedagogical, motivational, or emotional situations. Any individual is a unique human being to be discovered.

Up to this point, all the theory enlightened serves to establish the foundations for the Affectivity and Diversity Approach, which is the central pillar of this dissertation.

2.4. The Affectivity and Diversity Approach

I have revised all the methods for teaching foreign languages, as the approach suggested is an eclectic one. It is called Affectivity and Diversity Approach (ADA) because it tries to take into account the student's learning style as well as his/her inner and outer situational contexts.

I have compiled most of the elements of my learning model proposal diagram (see page 74) into four blocks which can be considered a practical refinement of the proposal turned into a new approach.

```
                    ┌──────────────┐
                    │   Physical   │
                    │   Learning   │
                    │   Context    │
                    └──────────────┘
                           │
┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐
│ Psychological│   │  Affectivity │   │  Pedagogical │
│   Learning   │───│     and      │───│   Learning   │
│   Context    │   │  Diversity   │   │   Context    │
└──────────────┘   │   Approach   │   └──────────────┘
                   └──────────────┘
                           │
                    ┌──────────────┐
                    │ Sociological │
                    │   Learning   │
                    │   Context    │
                    └──────────────┘
```
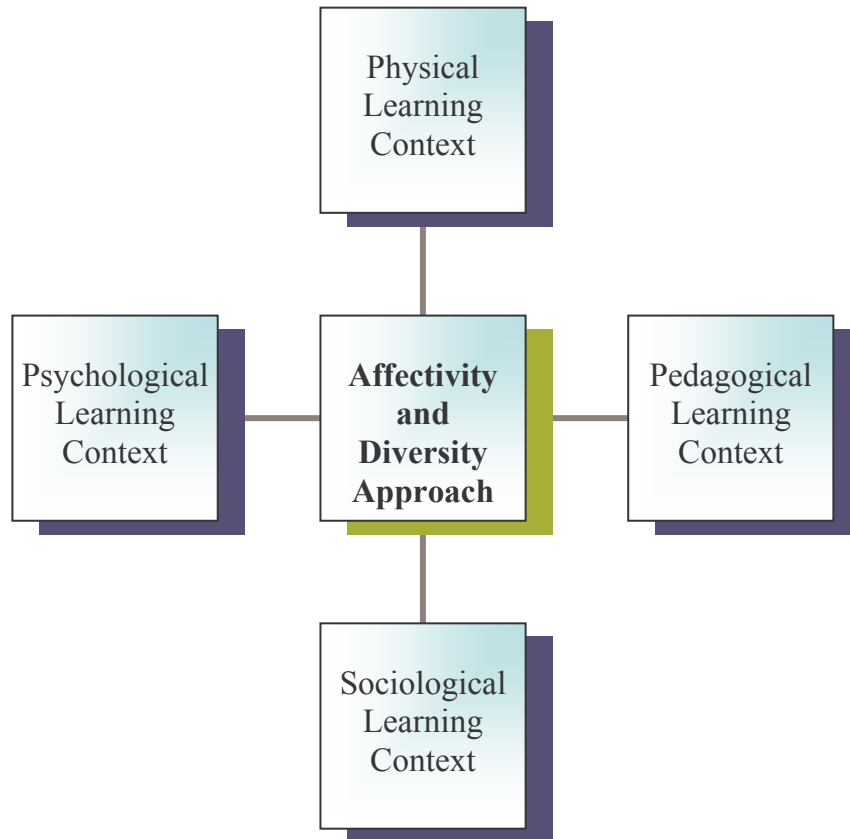
In these blocks several general guidelines have been planned to outline ADA, all of which are interrelated:

Psychological context	Engagement	To engage students, they should first be motivated.
	Self-esteem	Believing in oneself is a requisite.
	Emotions	Experiencing different sensations all through a lesson is really important to maintain students' attention.
	Self-awareness	Feeling well is a way of improving learning.
	Personal world	The individual world outlines any learning.

Physical context	Physical and environmental elements	The physical and environmental context where any learning takes place shapes that particular learning.

Pedagogical context	Aims	Aims should be made clear for the teacher as well as for the student.
	Input	The input students receive should be a bit above their level.
	Activities	The activities, tasks and projects should be as varied and creative as possible.
	Contextual learning	Everything should be learned in context as it is easier to remember.
	Skills	The four skills are equally important.
	Perceptual styles	Visual and auditory aids, as well as material to be able to experience through the sense of touch, are essential.
	Curriculum globalization	English should be taught in relation to other subjects.
	Feedback	Feedback is one of the central issues to take into account.

Sociological context	Communication strategies	Communication is essential, so strategies to get a message across are crucial.
	Group work	Group work assists learning.
	Rapport with others	Being in good rapport with the teacher and the other classmates facilitates learning.
	Inclusion	Educating for social inclusion is a priority.
	Culture	Cultural knowledge is fundamental.
	Real-life situations	Real life situations must be encouraged.
	Positive criticism	Any source of information should be used critically.

In relation to the **psychological context** of the students, one of the most important factors to reach learning proficiency is motivation. It is a good idea for students to think about which is their motivation to study a foreign language; among other reasons, the following can be identified: a) because they enjoy studying, b) because they like learning languages, c) because they find English useful, or d) because a particular activity, task or project is attractive to them; e) because they feel it is necessary for them at the moment to communicate in English or f) maybe to play computer games. They may find learning English useful for g) their future studies or h) professional career; or i) because they have to do it, an external factor imposes it, such as the educational system, school, teachers or parents. Motivation is the first step towards students' **engagement**.

Motivation changes constantly, mainly because of results. The rewards students experience: either intrinsic (feeling satisfied to see their learning progress) or extrinsic (being valued by teachers, parents or peers), support or hinder learners progress. Behaviour is shaped by the consequences of previous actions, that is to say, by incentives being positive or negative (see also point 2.1.4).

Intrinsic motivation is tied to the individual perception of the self. This is closely related to the NLP presupposition: *The resources people need are within themselves* (see pages 52-55). In order to learn, consciously or unconsciously, students must have a positive **self-esteem,** believe in themselves and think they are able to do what they have to do, otherwise they would never succeed. This guideline, together with the one about self-awareness, which says that feeling well with oneself is the first step to achieve anything, is directly associated with another NLP presupposition: *The mind and body are parts of the same system* (see pages 51-52). Intrinsic motivation is also tight to the **emotions** learners experience during the lesson period, for example. Whether these feelings are positive or negative would condition the student progression in learning. What the teacher should encourage is a variety of emotions, the most positive the better, to promote students learning. **Self-awareness** can be useful to improve the intrapersonal intelligence, which is essential while dealing with any learning.

To have the primary needs covered and, yet again, to be on good terms with our conscious and subconscious mind is imperative before starting any mental construction; otherwise failure is guaranteed. This is closely related to all the previous guidelines as well as to the following one: the **individual world**, together with previous experiences, outlines the incentives and predispositions of students to learn, as well as their urge for

good academic results. The personal world of individuals conditions their intrinsic as well as their extrinsic motivation to face any learning (e.g. students with really serious problems at home will probably not be able to do their best at school) (see point 2.1).

Concerning the **physical context,** I have compiled under this heading the **physical and environmental elements** of my learning model proposal, as they can be both perceived as factors external to personal relationships. The possibilities a teacher has to vary the classroom components, the moment when any learning takes place, the students assemblage, the tables and chairs used, the resources to learn, the hotness or coldness students experience while being in the classroom setting, the noises they hear, the odour, the illumination of the class, the organization of the different elements in the classroom, the classroom tidiness, etc. shape the students' predisposition to learn as well as the knowledge acquired (see point 2.1).

Regarding the **pedagogical context**, I consider students should have clear **aims.** This statement links to the NLP presupposition *If individuals know what they want it helps them to get it* (see pages 55-57). The objectives should be: 1. stated understandably, 2. short-term, as students will be encouraged to achieve them and see their consequences, and 3. accessible, in order to be able for the learners to attain them. If they are reached, students are satisfied and, therefore, they are motivated for the next objective. Most of the aims that students consider worthwhile can be achieved, thus, the teacher should negotiate the subject objectives with the learners; in this way learners will be more eager to consider them meaningful.

As to the resources used for the foreign language class, I believe teachers should find out or produce **input** with a level of language slightly above the students' level –as stated by the Natural Approach– (see point 1.1.4.11). But as in a classroom there are many students and the language level varies from one student to the next, it is rather difficult to find the appropriate input for them all. Hence, the lesson tasks should be designed to be open and flexible; this, again, links to another NLP presupposition *If what individuals are doing is not working, they should do something else* (see pages 65-67). The **activities** used in class should constantly change; in this way the teacher may get the interest of one student or the other in, at least, a precise moment in time during each lesson. All classrooms are heterogeneous and the best way to cope with difference is creating –whenever possible– adaptable material to accept most of the individual responses. Creativity should also be encouraged through the tasks proposed as it develops very functional resources in every aspect of life.

Following the approach that explains that in our brains information is organised in schemata (see point 2.3.4), vocabulary as well as grammar ought to be **learned in context**. The individual mind will make connections quicker and easier whenever knowledge is presented in concrete situations. This is also what Situational Language Teaching claims (see point 1.1.4.3).

The four **skills**: reading, writing, listening or speaking are equally significant, so, while planning the lesson material, this should be taken into account and different balanced activities focussing on the different skills should be developed. This balanced incidence on all skills, though, depends on each student and his/her reasons to learn a language; this is why a teacher could emphasise one upon the others. In a secondary school setting, all the skills should have the same consideration because, even though individuals might have preferences, all the four skills are to be improved according to the Curriculum Project.

Students' **perceptual styles** guide any learning process and teachers should facilitate the information access to any individual. Visual, auditory and kinaesthetic material, that is to say posters, blackboards, videos, DVDs, computers, CDs and tangible material among others have a vital meaning. The encouragement of visual aids use in the FLC was first promoted by the Audio-Visual Method (see point 1.1.4.5). Following the NLP presupposition *The map is not the territory* (see pages 43-50), the kinaesthetic material should also be included in the FLC.

The tasks proposed should consider a **curriculum globalization.** I want the learners to perceive English as a useful language to do things. Curriculum globalization means an inclusion of as many subjects as possible in the planning of the English syllabus. The purpose of this inclusion would be to encourage students with other intelligences, apart from the ones with a high linguistic intelligence. Through an inclusion of artistic, logic, musical, scientific, etc. related activities, most of the students will possibly feel engaged in the FLC in one moment or another. This guideline is closely linked to the MI approach (see point 2.2.1).

Finally, and regarding errors, I have noticed through the years that despite the generally accepted idea that errors are helpful to learn, there is a sense of frustration among students when they are corrected. Therefore, the first step towards achievement for the students should be to assume that *There is no failure only **feedback*** (see pages 62-63). Feedback is indispensable to be able to learn and succeed so, as the Direct Method states (see point 1.1.4.3), errors should be corrected; but at an appropriate time.

Regarding the **sociological context**, and as claimed by the Phonetic Method (see point 1.1.4.2), as well as by many other approaches, language should be used to **communicate**. The Notional-Functional method (see point 1.1.4.6) also considers communicative competence to be the ultimate goal. Thus, the main objective of learning a language is to understand and make oneself understood. Students should try and use as many tools as possible to attain this purpose, such as exploiting the different strategies (see point 2.1.4) they have available as *The meaning of any communication is the response one gets* (see pages 63-65).

As the communication factor is so important, **group work** activities, for example, should be considered means of putting the language into practice; something really essential in a foreign language classroom and really productive when designed and carried out properly.

Parents, teachers and peers, along with the relationships among them, which outline the learners' personal world, also guide learning. Being in good **rapport** with the teaching staff and with other students is the first step towards success. This does not mean students have to be subordinated to their mates; on the contrary, they should use critical friendship. As CLL claims (see point 1.1.4.10), the main goal in an FLC is to build strong personal links in a good atmosphere. Hence, any learning –but language learning in particular– needs to explore and encourage interpersonal intelligence (see point 2.2.1.1) to make the most of this linguistic exchange in the classroom setting. However, students will never be in completely good rapport if there is no **inclusion** among them, despite the region where they come from, their language, culture, religion or sex. Thus, through the classroom tasks and projects, this inclusion should be encouraged (e.g. through cultural debates). Cultural exchanges may be also very productive to deepen into the culture of the language object of study.

The framework of any utterance is shaped by **culture**, so it is also necessary to learn a bit of the cultural background that carves an existing language. Improving the cultural knowledge of a country can also be reached through deepening into some *realia*. *Realia* brought into classroom makes students feel a bit closer to the society and, hence, to the language they are studying. Even though the classroom setting is an artificial scenery, *realia* also helps teachers both recreate **real life situations,** which might assist students in learning more effectively, as well as encourage **positive criticism**. For example, some mass media are motivating and entertaining but any

source of information should be used critically to encourage learners to be responsible consumers.

All the aforementioned guidelines are, yet again, interrelated and all of them have their importance in ADA as it will be seen in the course of the educational action-research carried out for this dissertation.

Apart from ADA, this thesis wants to demonstrate the usefulness of translation tasks. The translation tasks proposed in this dissertation are, obviously, far from the activities planned by the Grammar-Translation Method, and close to the ones proposed by scholars such as Mario Rinvolucri and Sheelagh Deller (2002), Belén Satorres and Annabel Closa (2003) or Maria González Davies (1998a, 2000, 2002a, 2002b). Their approach could be called the "Translation as Communication Approach", as they use translation activities communicatively. Thus, in the following section, translation, as well as the use of the L1 in the foreign language class, is revised.

3. First language and translation in the foreign language class

As Michael Swan (1985) states, when the learner enters the classroom, his/her mind is not a "tabula rasa". If learners go to class with a background knowledge, teachers should take advantage of it and build up new knowledge from this point and not try to pretend the mother tongue (L1) does not exist.

Despite the fact that Atkinson (2001) writes that it is true that total prohibition of the students' L1 is now unfashionable, but the potential of its use in the classroom clearly needs further research, this is a statement I would not declare so undoubtedly, as there are still some foreign language (FL) teachers who think L1 disturbs foreign language learning (FLL). As Atkinson (2001) remarks about published works on the use of L1 in the foreign language classroom (FLC), the gap in methodological literature is presumably partly responsible for the uneasiness which many teachers, experienced and inexperienced, feel about using or permitting the use of the students' native language in the FLC.

Although first of all it should be made clear that using the L1 in the FLC does not equal using translation, according to Atkinson (2001) there are four main influential reasons for this lack of attention to L1 in foreign language classrooms:

1. the association of the use of L1 with the grammar-translation method,
2. the effect that native speakers enjoy a disproportionate status,

3. the recent influence of Krashen's theories, which endorsed the idea that learning is less valuable than acquisition, and

4. the cliché that English can only be learned by speaking it.

At this stage, I would like to present several ideas from different scholars concerning these points on the use of the mother tongue in the foreign language classroom. According to Macaro (1997: 74) "Krashen's (1987) comprehensible input hypothesis (see point 1.1.4.11) implies that there is no place for L1", that is, Krashen means the FL should be used during all the classroom time. Contrary to Krashen, there is the viewpoint of Skinner (1985) who sees the exclusive use of the FL in the language classroom as a hindrance to the connection of thoughts.

Many studies that show the real use of L1 by FL teachers and students have been published (Mitchell 1988; Prabhu 1987; Macaro 1997), and they all prove similar results. Teachers use their L1 with students, maybe to explain new and difficult items, to save time and to discipline students. Contrary to Chaudron, Cook (1991: 66) writes that "using the L1 for classroom management and instruction deprives the students of genuine examples of language use and sets a tone for the class". Besides, the results also found out that more L1 is used at beginner stages and that even if teachers use L1 out of their own conviction, learners feel this employment of L1 is helpful in facilitating learning. But do learners know what is best for them or is this the teacher's job? As nowadays learning models are student and process centred, students' opinions are worthy. If such is the case, another good reason to use the L1 is that, according to Bolitho (1983), students, for example, can say what they really want to say about anything concerning the classroom management, which is essential to provide feedback to the teacher. Obviously, the teacher then can help and encourage the learner (evidently depending on the level) to say his/her statement in the FL. Lucas and Katz (1994: 558) state that "the use of the native language is so compelling that it emerges even when policies and assumptions mitigate against it". Cook (2001) declares that teachers resort to the mother tongue despite their best purposes and often feeling guilty for straying from the foreign language path.

Still, another scholar's opinion, Hagen's (1992), favours the use of L1 in the FL classroom saying that code switching is an extremely important language skill which has to be learned because it is a normal part of the interactive process. According to

Macaro (2003: 41-43) this L1 to FL code switching which he calls "codeswitching" is positive because:

1. it happens in the world outside school when a speaker and another interlocutor share more than one language or dialect.

2. It arises frequently in world's bilingual and multilingual communities, and it is considered a good communication strategy.

3. Speakers from different countries will need to code switch to be able to communicate effectively with each other.

4. Codeswitching in the FL classroom should be considered an important communication strategy.

5. Teacher codeswitching may be a model for students.

6. There is no evidence that if the teacher uses codeswitching the learner uses more L1 in oral interaction (Macaro 2001; Macaro & Mutton 2002). On the other hand, there is no evidence that banning the L1 from the classroom produces better L2 learning.

7. To forbid the use of codeswitching from the foreign language classroom, mainly beginner and lower-intermediate classrooms, may lead to undesirable pedagogical practices, such as teacher domination of discourse (see also Macaro 1997, 2001).

I argue that the exclusive imposed use of the FL within the classroom disturbs the natural process of understanding new words or structures, and using previously acquired knowledge. That is to say, it blocks off previously assimilated learning sequences that would help to store new learning, through the use of brain connections (see point 2.3.4). As stated by Cook (2001) the two languages (L1 and the FL) are interwoven in the FL user's mind in vocabulary (Beauvillain & Grainger 1987), in syntax (Cook 1994), in phonology (Obler 1982), and in pragmatics (Locastro 1987). Meaning does not exist in only one language or the other but it is interrelated. Again, knowledge is acquired through connections between existing and new knowledge (see point 2.3.4). As stated by Anton and DiCamilla (1998: 415) "L1 is used as a powerful tool of semiotic mediation between learners ... and within individuals".

According to Chaudron (1988):

1. Teachers use and expect students to use the FL depending on the type of learner and/or the type of classroom they are teaching.

2. In all the foreign language classrooms, except those with learners from different mother tongues, either teachers or students use their L1 in some degree.

3. The amount of L1 used in the foreign language classroom is not a critical variable to determine the degree of FL acquisition.

According to Gass and Selinker (1997) or Corder (1981), FL learners develop their FL rules through a process of hypothesis-testing and experimentation, which is called interlanguage. As maintained by McLaughlin (1981) students make use of their L1 to transfer rules and patterns as well as their FL knowledge. Nevertheless, again as Seliger (1983) reports, advanced learners will make more use of their FL than of their L1 and vice versa, less advanced learners will need to rely more on their L1.

The concept "interlanguage" was invented by the American linguist Larry Selinker. He said that L2 learners construct a linguistic system that withdraws from their L1, however different it is from it, but also from the target language. Each learner's interlanguage is a unique linguistic system. The term "interlanguage" involves some premises (Ellis 1997: 33):

- The student builds a system of abstract linguistic rules, which is like a mental grammar.

- The student's grammar is open to influence according to the input (s)he receives.

- The student's grammar is transitional, which means that changes either: add, delete or restructure the rules. So, the interlanguage is a continuum.

- For some researchers the rules in the interlanguage stage are variable, for others variability in the rules reflect the students' mistakes.

- Students employ various learning strategies to develop the interlanguage, such as overgeneralisation or transfer errors.

- The student's grammar is likely to fossilise. It does not occur in L1 acquisition, but only in L2 grammar.

As the teacher-researcher has suggested above, and depending on the FL being learnt, interlanguage changes from learner to learner but it changes even more from a learner with a particular L1 to another with a different L1. L1 transfer (see point 3.1) can result in positive transfer, negative transfer, avoidance, and overuse. But, as Ellis (1997: 54) states: "transfer is governed by learner's perspectives about what is transferable and by their stage of development". Nevertheless, transfer is a metaphor to explain the L1-FL relationship in a foreign language learner's mind. In the concept "transfer" there is an implication that one part gains and the other loses, so as Ellis (1997: 54) conveys, the best way to refer to the effects of L1 might be "cross-linguistic influence".

Investigating more on the variability in each learner's language, Tarone (1983: 143-63) views interlanguage as a continuum of styles ranging from "careful" to the "vernacular", meaning from very specialized and concrete to the most colloquial.

Pierce's (1995: 9-31) social theory remarks that L2 acquisition involves a "struggle", a battle to get a reward. The "struggle" a learner encounters is to get a message across. How can (s)he succeed? By trial and error. Learners try out different grammar, vocabulary, etc. from the whole knowledge they have in their brains without differentiating whether this or that information belongs to their L1, L2 or FL, so the interlanguage is unique for each individual.

How do successful foreign language students learn? As NLP divulges, *Modelling excellence leads to excellence* (see pages 50-51) thus, it is worth knowing what successful learners do. Each individual has his/her own preferences. Macaro (2001: 4-14) lists some suggestions; among them there is the use of L1.

- **Readers** use a combination of top-down and bottom-up processing (see point 3.6.4).
- **Writers** use two approaches: 1. only using L2 or the FL and 2. using L1 and L2 or the FL. Some learners plan, others use some strategies to check their work, and most of them use feedback effectively (see also page 62).
- **Listeners** use more of a top-down approach to decode the incoming text and they make use of context to make inferences. They also deal with whole blocks of information instead of small chunks.

- **Speakers** find ways around any problem (for example, paraphrasing or using synonyms) or ask any person for help.

- **All of them** use strategies to help them stay focused in whatever they need to, and to learn.

- **All of them** try to get themselves into the right frame of mind: motivation and strategy use become inseparable. Feeling good equals success.

- **All of them** rely on themselves more than on the teacher. This is connected to the NLP presupposition *The resources people need are within themselves* (see pages 52-55).

In some concurrent methods "the teacher switches from one language to another at key points according to particular rules" (Jacobson 1990 in Cook 2001). In this method code-switching is a normal activity and students see themselves as being in real FL use situations. But code-switching could happen within the same sentence as proposed by Giauque and Ely (1990): students use their L1 to supply vocabulary they don't know within a sentence. In CLL at beginner stages the students say something in their L1 and then the teacher translates it into the FL and it is repeated by the student in the FL. As the students progress they depend less and less on their L1. In Dodson's Bilingual Method (1967) the teachers read an FL sentence aloud several times and then they give its meaning in the L1 and next students "imitate" by repeating the sentence, first in chorus and then individually.

Nevertheless, the L1 can be used more positively in the FLC. According to Cook (2001) there are four questions we should ask ourselves before using the student's L1:

1. "Can something be done more effectively through the L1?" (Efficiency) The most popular and the most natural way to convey meaning is through the use of L1 either between teacher-student or among students themselves.

2. "Will L2 learning be helped by using the L1 alongside the L2?" (Learning) Grammar teaching, should be used according to Long (1991) when it arises naturally from classroom activities, but it is not said in which language it should be taught. Most cognitive processing studies suggest that even advanced students are less efficient at learning information from the L2 rather than from the L1 (Cook 1997).

3. "Do the participants feel more comfortable about some functions or topics in the first language rather than the second, as studies in code-switching have shown?" (Naturalness) Discipline, threats, for example, are more serious when carried out in the L1. If the teacher uses the target language, students may possibly perceive (s)he just wants them to practice the imperative or conditional. When using the L1 the teacher is not acting and is perceived as treating students as their selves rather than FL students.

4. "Will use of both languages help the students to master specific L2 uses that they may need in the world beyond the classroom?" (External relevance) In the real world, a lot of situations where two languages play an important part arise. That is why, even in some of the exams of the Institute of Linguistics (S.S.A.A. 1988: 2) for instance, students "are called on to mediate between speakers and/or writers of two languages" because that is a real everyday life activity.

Summing up, the only language that can be acquired (see pages 19-22) is the L1, the L2 in some bilingual societies and the FL in very specific contexts. But the FL in the classroom setting has to be learned. Teachers should not have any sense of culpability to say that to facilitate the language learning process the L1 is especially helpful. The child who learns his/her L1 does not have any other language to rely on and (s)he has to start the process from the very beginning; a FL learner, on the other hand, has one language, and a set of resources to learn another language. As stated by Towell and Hawkins (1994: 14) "Very few L2 learners appear to be fully successful in the way that native speakers are". But should a FL learner feel bad for not acquiring the competence of a native speaker? Even though learning a foreign language is really convenient, one should not expect to acquire a native speaker proficiency level in all skills. Finally, the helpful use of L1 in the FLC does not deny the maximal amount of FL input students should receive. As teachers need to provide opportunities for everybody to learn a foreign language, and some FL learners will need to use more of their L1 than others, teachers should make chances available for them to do so.

3.1. First Language Interference

The topic of first language interference has had an unusual history in second language acquisition research and practice. For many years, it has been presumed that the only major source of syntactic errors was the performer's L1 (Lado 1957). Even Beardsmore (1982) claimed that many of the problems a foreign language learner had with FL phonology, vocabulary and grammar are due to the interference of the L1.

Dulay et al. (1982) defined interference as the mechanical transfer of the L1 surface structure onto the target language surface, due to habit. Lott (1983: 256) described interference as "errors in the learner's use of the foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue". For Ellis (1997: 51) interference or "transfer" is "the influence that the learner's L1 exerts over the acquisition of an L2". According to Faerch and Kasper (1983) learning is most successful when the situations in which the two languages are learned, are kept as distinct as possible. Similarly, Albert and Obler (1978) state that the more similar the L1 and FL are, the more comparisons will be made and the more interferences between them will be encountered. According to a research study made by Seliger (1988: 23) "where there are similarities between L1 and L2, the learners use L2 structures with ease; where there are differences, the learners have difficulty". So, as Dechert (1983) suggests, the further apart L1 and FL are structurally, the higher the instances of errors made in FL which bear traces of L1 structures. Finally, it has been demonstrated that students speculate about the similarity or difference between FL and L1 (Belha 1999).

Ellis (1997) distinguishes between errors and mistakes saying that errors reflect gaps in the learner's knowledge while mistakes are only lapses in performance. So, the speculations mentioned above are errors if they are wrong speculations. Errors help to perfect oneself, and I agree with Faerch and Kasper (1983) when they say that errors are used to make students as well as teachers understand and reflect upon the way learners have reached a certain usage at a specific point.

Subsequent empirical studies of errors show that most errors are not traceable to the structure of the L1, because they are common to FL performers of different linguistic backgrounds. That is why Celaya (2001) says that many errors are developmental (natural errors). These findings have led several scholars to question the

values of contrastive analysis. The L1 is only one of several sources of error and other sources also need to be considered.

The issue now is not whether L1-influenced errors exist in FL performance, or even what percentage of errors can be traced to the L1, but rather, where L1 influence fits in FL performance. To quote Newmark (1981): "the cure for interference is simply the cure for ignorance: learning". What can be concluded is that the L1 may "substitute" the FL learned when the performer has to understand or produce in the target language, but (s)he has not assimilated enough of the FL to do so. Possibly, the FL performance management is influenced by L1 rules, till aspects of the target language are learned and thus, they end up being relatively free of L1 influence.

The influence of L1 is not always negative as "transparent words" or "true friends" exist and are opposed to "false friends" or "false cognates" (negative transfer). "True friends" are words that are written similarly in L1 and FL and the meaning in both languages is similar. On the contrary, "false friends" are words written similarly in L1 and FL but the meaning in both languages differs considerably. If someone teaches according to comparative structures, words or grammar, (s)he has to bear in mind these two classes of transfer, or again, in Ellis (1997: 54) words "cross-linguistic influence".

Celaya (2001) talks about many other kinds of transfer. Scholars in the 1980s wanted to detach the notion of transfer from behaviourist ideas, so the concept was redefined and the L1 could be used to deliver information in the FLC. Recent transfer perspectives are:

1. Transfer and markedness. Superficial structures are language specific and, so, marked. Those structures which are more marked in the FL, will be consequently more difficult to acquire.

2. Transfer and the natural order hypothesis. Although there is a natural order about how students acquire any language, L1 influences its route and rate. So FLA does not follow the same acquisition process of L1.

3. Transfer and psychotypology. Learners rely on the language that they know and that, for them, is closer to the FL, be it L1 or another language they know.

4. Transfer, psychotypology and markedness. The more marked an L1 structure is, the less transferable it would be to the FL or vice versa.

5. Transfer and UG (see point 1.1.4.4). Do we use our innate abilities for language learning to learn an FL or a second language? Research puts forward three different approaches we should bear in mind:

   a) In Second Language Acquisition (SLA) there exists no access to UG, so SLA must be explained through transfer.

   b) We have full access to UG in SLA as well as in L1 acquisition.

   c) UG is active, but in a different way.

Apart from "linguistic transfer", there is "pragmatic transfer" and "cultural transfer" (the way learners follow or break sociolinguistic rules). This is why the more one can learn about cultural background, the fewer errors will be made by the students.

Summing up, one can see from Celaya's perspective that L1 is not necessarily a bad influence to acquire a foreign language. It is valuable to put emphasis on transfers as students will have points of reference to develop their strategies (see point 2.1.4).

Learning a language is not an easy task. A conclusion mostly shared by scholars researching in this field of study would be that the fact of accessing an L1 always benefits the learning of an L2 or an FL. I completely agree with Brooks and Donato (1994: 268) when they say that the use of L1 in the FL class "is a normal psycholinguistic process that facilitates L2 production and allows the learners both to initiate and sustain verbal interaction with one other". González Davies (2002a: 65) reasons that "if interference were a key issue in language learning, its accumulation would reach a point when any possibilities of adding new languages to those we know would be blocked" and she goes on stating that bilinguals, for example, are generally more skilful at learning languages than monolinguals. Thus, the more languages one has learned, the easier it becomes to learn another one.

In short, learning a foreign language should not be presented as the acquisition of new knowledge, but as an extension or alternative of what the student already knows. Moreover, language learning, as will be seen throughout the following chapter, is more likely to be successful when it is also a means to get something, not only an aim in itself.

3.2. Translation

A way to make use of the L1 in the FLC is through translation. Thus, I would like to start this section answering the question: what is **translation**? The word "translation" comes from an old Latin verb: *transferre*, and the term for translator in Latin was: *interpres* (a person who interferes, who does not necessarily communicate honestly what (s)he understands).

According to Ovidi Carbonell (1997: 60) the reader has always freedom of interpretation, that is why it is said that there exist as many interpretations of a text as readers, as many translations as translators, and what a culture considers a good translation may not be accepted by another culture. According to Toury (1995), translation is communication between messages integrated in a given linguistico-cultural system; that means they are regulated by norms and through them a society controls the importation and exportation of its culture. Widdowson (1983) states that meaning is not in the text, texts just offer mere indications on the significance and intentions of the author, and the reader has to reconstruct them contrasting them with his/her world knowledge. That is why Nunan (1993: 67) writes: "The things we know about the world assist us in the interpretation of discourse". Or in Mona Baker's words (1992: 222):

> Whether one holds the view that meaning exists in text or in situations involving text in addition to other variables such as participants and settings, one cannot deny that a reader's cultural and intellectual background determine how much sense he/she gets out of a text.

In a global historical vision of translation, one should remember Cicero, Horace and Saint Jérome talking about the term "fidelity". They were the first to consider translation not as a word for word equivalence but sense for sense, the beginning of what we now consider "translation". Mounin also condemns word for word translation and points out that the 17th century is the time for the "*belles infidèles*" whose origins are in social and historical reasons (in Hurtado 1990: 17).

Ortega y Gasset (1945) defines translation as an utopian act. Walter Benjamin (1923) maintains that a faithful word for word translation will not transmit the

original sense. Peter Fawcett (1997: 27) defines translation as "one-to-many correspondence between languages".

David Crystal in his book *Encyclopaedia of Language* (1998) claims that translation is: the neutral word used for all tasks where the sense of expressions in one language –the source language (SL)– is turned into the sense of another –the target language (TL)–, whether the mode is spoken, written, or signed.

But even a different focussing comes from the hand of Wolfram Wilss "Translation is a goal-directed intertextual information-processing activity with a decoding and an encoding phase" (in Mason 1994: 35).

Translation, following Foucault, is one of the determinant strengths of a culture, one aspect of the discourses of the epoch that creates the ways of thinking as well as the identities of its individuals. Steiner (1976: 236) proclaims that translation has not been an issue of primary importance, but a marginal one. According to Carol Maier (Dingwaney & Maier 1995: 21-38), translation, though a "problematic" interchange, should not be automatically defined as a loss. The most impressive thing is not the difficulty to find equivalents, but exploring all the disposable possibilities. The loss is that the translator has to choose one of these possibilities making it impossible to bear in mind all the others. The teacher-researcher has to add here Lefevere and Bassnett's point of view (1990: 11): "Translation, like any (re)writing, is never innocent."

So, I would define a **translator** as any reader or listener, *as a person influenced by a reality which is endlessly changed by new experiences*; *but the translator, furthermore, should use all his/her knowledge to decodify and codify style, culture, communicative functions, reactions and textual information or content from a SL to a TL*. The translator is a mediator between cultures trapped among representation systems and ideological structures showed through language (Carbonell 1997: 66-69). So it could be said that the translator is in a space between cultures (Dingwaney & Maier 1995: 21-38). Douglas Robinson (1997) confers a general definition of translator worth noticing: the translator is someone that returns to the original as much as it received from it.

Finally, Nida (Nida & Taber 1969: 12) points out that the act of "**translating** consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalence of the source-language message, firstly in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style."

3.3. Overview of the main approaches to translation

It is sometimes said that there is no task more complex than translation –a claim that can be readily believed when all the variables involved are taken into account. Translators not only need to know their source language well; they must also have a thorough understanding of the field of knowledge covered by the source text, and of any social, cultural or emotional connotations that need to be specified in the target language if the intended effect is to be conveyed.

Translators should work to ensure a result that sounds as natural as possible (Crystal 1998: 346). However, other scholars such as Venuti, talk about the importance of a visible translator. He thinks it is important to "reveal the translation to be in fact a translation, distinct from the foreign text" (Venuti 1996: 93). Having these two theories in mind: the theory of invisibility or the theory of visibility on the part of the translator, one can say that the circumstances involving a translation act can help to decide which theory to choose.

Jakobson (1959) proposes a very general classification of kinds of translation according to the linguistic system used. He talks about:

1. intralinguistic translation: transferring a message from a language into the same one;
2. interlinguistic: transferring a language into another;
3. intersemiotic: transferring a message from one sign system into another.

Quoting John Dryden (in Robinson 1997), there are three types of translation according to their degree of fidelity: metaphrase (word by word), paraphrase (sense for sense) and imitation (free; based on the translator criteria).

However, as maintained by Larose (1992), there are only two opposed poles in the way one translates: the first one is called free and the second one puts the form before the content. They seem synonyms but they can also be opposed. And it gives rise to two types of translation: communicative (free, natural) and semantic (faithful, loyal).

Even another classification comes from the hand of Newmark (1998) expanded by Henvey, Higgins and Haywood (1995); they write on the varieties of translation and say that there are 6 types:

a. Word-for-word. Used to understand how a language works syntactically but not to produce fluent texts: Not a sausage! = ¡*No una salchicha*!

b. Literal. Syntactically correct but it can produce calques: Not a sausage! = ¡*Ni una salchicha*!

c. Semantic. More fluent, but neutral, it follows the Source Text (ST) closely: Not a sausage! = ¡*Nada de nada*!

d. Communicative. Tries to convey a similar effect on the reader of the Target Text (TT): Not a sausage! = ¡*Ni hablar*!

e. Free. Emphasises the effect of the ST without changing the meaning. It is a truly creative translation and it can change cultural references: To sell like hot cakes = *venderse como rosquillas*.

Translators have to have a general knowledge of them all as well as a wide understanding of the theories in the translation field in order to decide which the best sort of translation for each situation is. It is no more essential to have an awareness of the theories of translation in order to translate than it is to have an awareness of the conventions of language in order to speak. Nevertheless, once it is no longer an issue of translating but of teaching someone else how to translate, the boundaries of an empirical approach become obvious (Delisle 1988). So, that is why a theoretical background is needed before starting to deal with translation pedagogy.

There are many translation theories which according to González Davies (2004) are classified in: Approaches based on Linguistics, Cultural Studies, Cognitive Approach, Functionalist Approach, Philosophical and Poetic Approach and the 21st century state of the art.

3.3.1. Approaches based on Linguistics

This is a formalistic approach, it analyses language structurally (as forming part of different structures).

Concerning the people engaged in it, they need a scientific framework when studying translation and, at the beginning, they mostly use their knowledge to improve second language acquisition or foreign language acquisition. The main scholars involved in these studies are: Saussure, with his structuralism, followed by Sapir, with his linguistic determinism, and Bloomfield, among others. Chomsky with his Transformation Generative Grammar, which studies language through rule-formation, distinguishes between Surface Structure (SS) and Deep Structure (DS) of every sentence. Chomsky, idealistically, thinks that the deep structure could be universal and, so, he talks about a Universal Grammar (UG).

Benjamin supports the idea of a pure language. Benjamin interprets what would be the Linguistic Universals that Chomsky explains scientifically from a more philosophical viewpoint. He says that translation becomes a liberating act and the translator becomes the liberator. He advocates for the visibility of the translator as any translation marks the continued life of a text at another moment in time, so for him foreignisation is the only option.

Jakobson (1959) also deals with one of the milestones of translation: equivalence. He says that equivalence is the main problem of language and the major preoccupation of linguistics. He continues stating that any translator should overcome the barriers of the structural organisation of each language system. Finally, contrary to Victor Hugo and Voltaire, who state that translation is impossible, Jakobson together with Borges says that even though perfection is never achieved, it confirms that the denotative meaning can be translated, but the connotative cannot.

Nida works alongside Chomsky and, from a sociolinguistic standpoint, he establishes a functional equivalence that he adds to Chomsky's formal equivalence, related to what is communicated. This new concept is dynamic equivalence, related to the transmission of meaning. He says: "The older focus in translating was the form of the message... The new focus, however, has shifted from the form of the message to the response of the receptor" (Nida & Taber 1969: 1).

Nida follows the concept of kernels (the basic and most important concepts of a sentence, text, etc.) and he adds to Chomsky's model:

a) a cultural context,

b) communication theory,

c) emphasis on reader-centred translations,

d) a reflection on the existence of a universal human experience,

e) the importance of context and a preference for sociolinguistics instead of Chomsky's purely linguistic base.

Gentzler (1993: 44), from his cultural studies approach, maintains that "despite claims to the contrary, Nida's theory crystallised with the addition of Chomsky's transformational component". Gentzler continues saying that Chomsky has not written his model for translation practice, and he does not want other academics to use it for this purpose though scholars such as Steiner, Nida or Wilss adopt Chomsky's model (in Vidal 1995: 27). As claimed by Gentzler (1993: 54), Nida bases his postulations on a simplified vision of Chomsky's theory. Another charge against Nida is that "if we follow his injunction to preserve the genius of the target language, it will mean suppressing the Otherness of the source language and so is a form of colonialism" (Gentzler 1993: 54). Finally, a "fundamental charge made against dynamic equivalence is its essential impossibility" (Fawcett 1997: 4). But the attacks have not been based on a careful reading of Nida and the problem is that none of the boundaries are tight and they will probably never be. In fact, Nida always talks about "fuzzy edges".

Nida would translate, for example, the word "lamb" from the bible to "seal" for the Eskimos, as the deep sense of the word would be much closer to their world. Finally, he says that the laws in a translation act should be the following (Nida 1964):

a) the translation should have sense,

b) it should transmit the spirit of the original,

c) the expression should be natural and fluent and it should produce a similar reaction on the target reader as on the source reader.

Summing up, a faithful translator is loyal to the ST but selects free forms in the TT as well. Nida and Taber try to surmount the controversy about whether translation should favour the SL or the TL; that is the eternal opposition: loyal/beautiful, literal/free, form/content (Vidal 1995: 28). They both end up saying that translation is a science based on linguistics, hermeneutics and stylistics that consists in reproducing through a natural and close equivalent the SL message in the TL, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style (Nida & Taber 1982: 12).

3.3.1.1. Text Linguistics

It is, as Venuti describes it, "an approach in which notions of equivalence are grounded on the classification of text types and functions" (Venuti 1992: 4).

The linguists that participate in this approach are, among others, Hatim and Mason. They describe translation as a dynamic process of communication.

...ideology impinges on the translation process in subtle ways. Consciously or unconsciously, text users bring their own assumptions, predispositions and general world-view to bear on their processing of text at all levels. Individual lexical choices, cohesive relations, syntactic organisation and theme/rheme progression, text structure and text type are all involved. (Mason 1994: 23-34)

Hatim and Mason consider translation as a text-centred analysis different from reader-centred or author-centred analysis. This text-centred analysis covers three dimensions (Hatim & Mason 1990: 21):

a) The communicative dimension: use or register, mode or channel and users or dialects and idiolects.
b) The semiotic dimension: syntax, semantics and pragmatics.
c) The pragmatic dimension: According to Grice's Maxims of cooperation, quantity, quality, relation and manner.

Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged. (Grice 1975: 45)

According to Hatim and Mason (1996: 12) a translator is a communicator who seeks to maintain coherence by striking the appropriate balance between being effective and efficient in a particular environment, for a particular purpose and for particular receivers.

The translator, as both receiver and producer of text, has the double duty of perceiving the meaning potential of particular choices within the cultural and linguistic community of the source text and relaying that same potential, by suitable linguistic means, to the target readership. (Mason 1994: 23)

So, for them, linguistic variations are determined by context. They define translation as a process that includes negotiation of meaning between producers and receptors of texts.

Text producers send to text receivers the way they view the world, in the way meaning is inferred beyond the words-on-the-page, so to say, and how the resources of language users for doing this kind of thing transcend any artificial boundaries between different fields of translating. (Hatim & Mason 1996: 7)

From that, one can infer that each act of reading a text is unique and unrepeatable. One text enhances different reactions in different people.

Mona Baker is another scholar who participates in this approach. She states that "the ability to make sense of a stretch of language depends on the hearer's or reader's expectations and experience of the world" (Baker 1992: 219).

3.3.1.2. Machine Translation

The earliest work on language within Artificial Intelligence (AI) was concerned with machine translation (Weaver 1949: 15-23). People tended to create working machine translators, as translators cost money and spend time doing their job. The first thought was that the only difference between languages was the vocabulary and word order. The first results of this simple-minded approach were useless, as a word can be translated by multiple options (Malmkjaer 1995: 30).

The first public display of a machine translator that worked was offered by IBM with the help of Leon Dostert in 1954. It led the investigators towards the objective of a Fully Automatic High Quality Translation (FAHQT). The two pioneer developments were SYSTRAN and METAL. The most effective program has been SYSTRAN. It translates in the following stages: the text is read in and titles, paragraphs, etc. are identified. A dictionary of invariant expressions is consulted. The main dictionary is

consulted. Inflected forms are not found in a dictionary, so they are reduced to the base form. A compound noun list is checked. Homographs are resolved by examining adjacent words. Sentences are segmented into main and subordinate clauses. Syntactic relations are determined. Conjunctions are analysed. Further relations are identified. Words are substituted and adjustments are made based on differences between languages. Words are inflected according to the TL. The word order is rearranged according to the TL.

Its future status is unclear in view of the emergence of more powerful, second-generation systems, such as EUROTRA, which was the product of high investigation in syntax and semantics around the 80s; though these advances were enormous they could not be totally transferred into the practical field.

What are the limits of machine translation? High-quality machine translations are currently feasible only when the text to be translated is highly specific, restricted to the vocabulary of a narrow domain of knowledge and it must be straightforward in style and grammar (Melby 1995: 1). That is why in 1976 MÉTÉO was a success: it translated specific weather reports from English to French at a high rate and with quite good results.

There are many problems to take into account when designing a translator programme: false cognates, polysemic words, grammatical and rhetorical differences between languages, how to deal with culturally specific items, etc. That is why the methodology applied to machine translation has been divided:

    a)   Rule-Based Machine Translation (RBMT)

    b)   Analogy-Based Machine Translation (ABMT)

From a theoretical point of view they are radically opposed, so they originate very different systems. The rule-based systems have been theoretically influenced by generative linguistics and artificial intelligence (1970). The analogy-based systems apply to a statistic methodology among already translated texts (1990).

Analogously to Chomsky's UG, Warren Weaver suggested a universal basis for language and that if we could find it, we would be able to use it as an interlingua in machine translation. Melby was the first to question the hypothesis of the conceptual universality among languages. Professional translators had always doubted the validity of that idea, as there are other levels of equivalence equally important as the semantic level.

Nowadays, even though there are products such as PC-Translator, Power Translator, InterNOSTRUM or ARA, the most successful ones are the specialised. The leitmotiv of all these machine translator developments is, actually, the Internet, where BABLEFISH or GOOGLE, among others, can be found free. All of these machine translators have a wide cover in spite of a generally very low quality, which is why professional translators usually use computer-assisted programs such as WORDFAST. It is difficult to construct machines sophisticated enough to perform operations that human beings still do not understand. Although translation has been practiced for thousands of years, there are still conflicting theories about how it should be done (Melby 1995: 4).

In conclusion: machine translation with restricted vocabulary or tuned to the material being translated is already possible, but the problem is that the concept of "meaning" is ambiguous. There is no program able to interpret the meaning of a text yet. And for the moment the best High Quality (HQ) texts in this field are the product of human-machine interaction.

3.3.2. Cultural Studies

Theories of translation moved towards a focus that enabled them to overcome a purely linguistic methodology. They became interested in ideology, politics, philosophy, etc.

Deconstruction is the origin of cultural studies, which has questioned the binary traditional opposition between "original" and "translation". It does not want the translation to become the most pivotal text or the translator to become the author, but re-state the "original" and "authorship" concepts that subdue the translation to the original and that surround the translation process itself (Vidal 1995: 89).

The main principle of this theory is the social regulation of translation in societies. In different times a translation can vary, in different countries a translation can also change. Translation is dynamic and ideologically charged.

3.3.2.1. Polysystems Theory

The polysystems theory comes from the notion of systems of the Russian formalists and the Israeli School members. In a society the language is manipulated by the social system of that society and by its ideology. The word "polysystem" is gathered from the belief that different systems exist in a society, systems that are dynamic and can overlap. Literature, for instance, is never monolithic (in each step of its evolution it is full of directions and different tendencies) but it is a collection of different literary forms (that go from verse to popular literature) (Vidal 1995: 65). These forms are integrated in a society in a given time and with a predetermined ideology.

The people who centre their work around the polysystems theory are, among others: Gideon Toury (1998: 10) who sees translating "as an act and as an event characterised by variability" and "historically, socially and culturally determined, in short, norm-governed". Toury, together with other scholars who analysed this theory, give priority to the thought that translation is controlled by social systems; these systems are multiple; consequently, they are polysystems; so it is irrelevant to talk about equivalence. The social system is a macro level that indicates how a translation should be. Social institutions have power to decide on translations, and they also focus on norms.

Norms could be defined as behavioural standards of a translator that, without being absolute rules, determine which translation actions are considered acceptable and valid in a given culture in a determined historical period (Toury 1998). There are many conditions to be taken into account when using norms in the translation field,

> Norms are developed in the process of socialisation. They are conventional, they are shared by members of a community, they function intersubjectively as models of behaviour, and they also regulate expectations concerning both the behaviour itself and the products of this behaviour. (Toury 1998: 5)

If it is accepted that norms are central to translating, they have to be thoroughly explained. Toury distinguishes three kinds of norms (Toury 1998: 5-7):

a) preliminary norms which "decide overall translation strategy and the choice of texts to be translated";

b) initial norms "which govern the translator's decision to adhere primarily to the source text or to the target culture", and

c) operational norms "which control the actual decisions made during the act of translation".

Itamar Even-Zohar (1990: 73) proposes a transference theory: "translational procedures between two systems are in principle analogous, even homologous, with transfers within the borders of the system". Another notion studied by this theoretician is "interference". He states that a literature interferes with another or others, in a higher or lower degree according to its developmental and independence level (Even-Zohar 1990: 92-93).

Susan Bassnett is a member of this group, as well as Andre Lefevere who claim that translation is a rewriting process with its own norms (he is a pioneer in this thought). He thinks "... translation plays an analysable part in the manipulation of words and concepts which, among other things, constitute power in a culture" (in Vidal 1995: 57). He also talks about the process a translator has to undergo: editing, anthologising and criticising.

Lefevere together with Bassnett (Bassnett & Lefevere 1990: 11) write that a translation "Like all (re)writings is never innocent. There is always a context in which the translation takes place, always a history from which a text emerges and into which a text is transposed".

In the mid 80s Theo Hermans stands out for his contribution to Polysystems Theory as he thinks translators change things in a translation according to the systems.

The domain of translation has limits, a socially acknowledged boundary differentiating it, sometimes sharply, sometimes only diffusely, from other modes of representing anterior discourses such as paraphrase, adaptation, plagiarism, summary quotation, transliteration, and so on. These expectations, which police the boundaries of translation as institution, are usually referred to as the "constitutive norms" of translation... we can speak of these expectations as circumscribing the domain of translation. (Hermans 1999: 12)

According to Hermans, translation is circumscribed by expectations with cognitive and normative elements in them. These expectations structure the domain, the field or the system of translation (which constitute the structures of social systems).

3.3.2.2. Postcolonialism

Niranjana (1992: 3) sees the translator as an "unbiased, transparent medium through which a text may pass purportedly along a horizontal axis". He analogously tries to explain what translation is.

> Translation as a practice shapes, and takes shape within, the asymmetrical relations of power that operate under colonialism... In creating coherent and transparent texts and subjects, translation participates –across a range of discourses– in the fixing of colonised cultures, making them seem static and unchanging rather than historically constructed. Translation functions as a transparent presentation of something that already exists. (Niranjana 1992: 3)

Ovidi Carbonell (in Morillas & Arias 1997: 60-61) states, that translators as interpreters of other cultures have a lot of possibilities to alter, reinterpret and manipulate the original sense of a text. That can even happen without the translator knowing it, as the sense of every text is given by each reader and so it depends on the experience of the world the reader has. Again, there exist as many interpretations of a text as readers the text has. Widdowson (1983) thinks texts give us mere indications about the author's intention and meaning, and that the receptors should reconstruct contrasting these indications with their own schematic knowledge. In conclusion, and according to Michel Foucault (1999), translation is one of the culture determining forces that "creates" not only the ways of thinking in a society but the identity of the individuals that constitute this society.

Translation can therefore be seen as "reflecting the colonial experience; the source/original holds the power, the colony/copy is disempowered but placated through the myth of transparency and objectivity of the translation" (Álvarez & Vidal 1996: 21-22). The colony, in short, is "perceived as a translation, never as an original, but this is concealed by a promise of equitable textual relations" (Álvarez & Vidal 1996: 22). However, Gentzler, giving as an example translations of Machado,

Lorca or Juan Ramón Jiménez done by Bly, states that a big and powerful country such as the USA can also be influenced by a smaller one like Spain as Bly changes his way of seeing things and contributes to the rebellion against the literary establishment (Álvarez & Vidal 1996).

By the 1980s the emphasis had shifted to the question of power relationship between writers, translators and readers, again parallel to developments in gender studies and in post-structuralism.

Homi Bhabha, together with Ovidi Carbonell and Pilar Godayol, are some of the scholars who talk about the space "in-between". It is an imaginary space between cultures where one can place the "culture's untranslatability". This conveys the fact that the minority cultures are the most affected (Bhabha 1994: 224-225). So Bhabha differentiates the colonized and the colonizer, one being the minority culture and the other being the majority culture. "Cultural translation desacralizes the transparent assumptions of cultural supremacy, and in that very act, demands a contextual specificity, a historical differentiation within minority positions" (Bhabha 1994: 228).

The idea of the original came under scrutiny, and both Derrida and do Campos, by rereading Benjamin, formulate the concept of translation as becoming the original by virtue of it coming into existence after the source (Álvarez & Vidal 1996: 22).

The Do Campos go against the Eurocentric approach, and to describe their non-Eurocentric approach, they talk about *cannibalism*

> in the sense of capturing and assimilating to show respect and absorb the virtues of the original. Translation is thus a joyful appropriation and transformation for improvement in which the concept of loss has no place. (Arrojo 1993: 71)

During the 80s and beginning of the 90s, some of the polysystem scholars seemed to move away from this theory which they found too "formalistic and restrictive" (Gentzler 1993: 139). They adopted more of a cultural studies model, and focused "both on institutions of prestige and power within any given culture and patterns in literary translation" (Gentzler 1993: 139).

For centuries it has been taken for granted that translation takes place between languages. Languages, however, cannot be seen as an isolated phenomenon, but as an integral part of culture. Snell-Hornby (1988) defines translation as intercultural

communication and her principal aim of study is the text-in-situation. As stated before (point 3.2) Snell-Hornby refuses the idea of "equivalence". She writes:

> The text cannot be considered as a static specimen of language (an idea still dominant in practical translation classes), but essentially as the verbalised expression of an author's intention as understood by the translator as reader, who then recreates this whole for another readership in another culture. (Snell-Hornby 1988: 2)

As Laurence Venuti says, cultural studies are "concerned with how values, ideologies and institutions shape practices differently in different historical periods" (Venuti 1995: 15). From this point of view, cultural studies followers considered the ST the most important issue and the TT only as a window to the ST. Laurence Venuti (1996: 93) thinks translation is a constant forward movement of approach to another cultural space. And the very function of translating is assimilation, inscribing the foreign text with domestic intelligibilities and interests. He distinguishes between "foreignization" and "domestication" of texts.

> Not only do translation projects construct uniquely domestic representations of foreign cultures, but since these projects address specific cultural constituencies, they are simultaneously engaged in the formation of domestic identities. (Venuti 1995: 9)

Finally, Venuti (1995: 9) defines translation as "an inevitable domestication, wherein the foreign text is inscribed with linguistic and cultural values that are intelligible to specific domestic constituencies".

According to Venuti (1995) or González Davies (2004), two pivotal issues were raised by Goethe, Herder and Hölderlin: the foreignisation and domestication of texts. If a translator wants to keep the ST spirit, he must use literal translation and the TL will suffer (foreignisation). If a translator wants to please the target reader and write naturally, he will give a mere version of the ST (domestication).

According to González Davies (2004), their philosophy is that translators do not translate languages, but cultures.

3.3.2.3. Frontera Studies

Borders are set up to define the places that are safe and unsafe, to distinguish *us* from *them*. A border is a dividing line, a narrow strip along a steep edge. A borderland is a vague and undetermined place created by the emotional residue of an unnatural boundary. It is a constant state of transition. (Anzaldúa 1987: 3)

Sandra Cisneros, Gloria Anzaldúa or Ana Castillo do not try to reconcile oppressors and oppressed, but they try to reach a conscientious state of crossbreeding in one frontier side or another; and according to their approach, to accept does not mean to assimilate. Cisneros asserts that the richness of living in the borderland is in the contact, communication and interchange established between two different states. She continues saying that the concepts: "identity", "language" and "culture" are flexible and negotiable (in Godayol 1999: 32-33).

Lots of the writers engaged in Frontera studies are from Mexico or the south of the USA, and they try to integrate Spanish syntactic constructions and words into their English texts and vice versa to suggest the strangeness of belonging to two worlds, which can be differing and complementary at the same time (González Davies 2004: 103). Consequently, this is something the translators try to preserve.

That is why Joysmith (1996: 103-108) writes that textual markers should be used as a resistance. These markers go from leaving words or expressions from the ST to putting in bold or italics the subversive intentions of the author or of the translator.

Pilar Godayol with her "Veus chicanes" also writes about this type of approach:

Both the growing postcolonial literature in countries which were previously colonised and growing minority literatures in developed countries often exhibit cultural interweaving in their language use. The coming together of two cultures forges new cultural spaces, new identities, new cultural practices and new languages. In this way, bilingual women writers in these countries inhabit a cultural space which bridges at least two worlds, at least two identities and at least two languages. Their reading of the world brings to the fore questions of linguistic plurality and the diversity of identities within all human beings. Moreover, they force us to confront the inadequacy of traditional notions of linguistic equivalence in theories of translation. (Godayol 1999: 29)

3.3.2.4. Gender Studies

Barbara Godard explains how the feminist discourse uses translation to subvert the patriarchal; how the ST is manipulated for specific purposes. Feminism focuses on the relation between the ST and its translation, establishing a parallelism with the relation man-woman. Vidal (1995: 75-76) declares "as women, translations should be lovely and faithful, but are always relegated to a second ground".

The main point is to expose general and always polemic questions such as the ones related to the power relationship implicit in a ST or a TT.

Other authors who take a feminist stance are: Levine, Mehrez, Jacquemond, Díaz-Diocaretz, Hannay, Christ, Maier, etc.

Although Carol Maier's best known statements are: "Translation... implies not so much (failed) exchange as (problematic) interchange that should not automatically be defined as loss" (Dingwaney & Maier 1995: 21) and, as the teacher-researcher shares, "the biggest loss is that the translator has to choose only one option without being able to bear in mind the others" (Dingwaney & Maier 1995: 23). I agree that we translate cultures, not words, so one has to approach a text bearing in mind that no one will be able to know thoroughly that text and that the text is nobody's. Queer theory should also be considered within gender studies. The queer theory is a branch of gender studies that deals with the sexual orientation of individuals.

3.3.3. Cognitive Approach

According to Harris (1992), two main studies should be distinguished here: process-based studies and product-based studies. Process-based studies investigate how translators obtain their translation, and product-based studies examine the final result. Cognitivism explores the techniques or strategies a translator uses to render a text in the target language and the mental processes used to achieve this end.

Thinking Aloud Protocols (TAP)

It is a measuring instrument for research grounded on process based studies. It originated in Germany and Finland, and draws from psycholinguistics. The main point is translating texts aloud, and talking about what the translator him/herself is doing. From that experience one should be aware of what one does when translating.

Whenever two students analysing a translation face a problem, for example, they should go off the problem diverging and thinking till they can reach a good solution.

The people who work in this cognitive and psychocognitive line are: Hans Krings, Paul Kußmaul, Rita Jããskelãinen, Sonia Tirkkonen-Condit, and those working specifically in the psychocognitive approach are: Maria González Davies and Christopher Scott-Tennent, among others.

3.3.4. Functionalist Approach

This approach, also called skopos theory or action oriented theory, underlines the importance of real world circumstances and deals with the fact that the translator's choice is always conditioned by the client. This approach is interested in the translation process as a profession. Its basic principle is to insist that the notion of equivalence is irrelevant and that the forces of society guide the translation. Therefore, social systems are very important as they influence translation through microlevels. The most important thing is the purpose of the translation. Every translation depends on the objective (*skopos*, in Greek) the final text has to attain in the target culture. The skopos is the aim of all translations.

People who follow this approach are: Catherina Reiß, Justa Holz-Mãntãri, Christiane Nord and Hans Vermeer who states:

> The source text is oriented towards, and is in any case bound to, the source culture. The target text, the translatum, is oriented towards the target culture, and it is this which ultimately defines its adequacy... The skopos theory merely states that the translator should be aware that some goal exists, and that any given goal is only one among many possible ones… The important point is that a given source does not have one correct or best translation only. (Vermeer 1989: 182-183)

Christiane Nord (1993: 97-112) amplifies Reiss' and Vermeer's skopos theory. She emphasises the TT function in the target culture. However, Nord observes the original culture, as well. Christiane Nord sees the translation process as follows: an initiator (as Nord calls him/her) asks the translator to translate a text to accomplish a

function in the target culture. The initiator wants the translation skopos to be accomplished (Vidal 1995: 23). Nord has in mind the intertextual (e.g. the topic, etc.) as well as the extratextual (e.g. who?, why?, etc.) factors to be considered when translating. She combines the concepts of functionality (the relevance of a text for a specific purpose: though the communicative function is not inherent in the text, the initiator gives the text a function) and loyalty (respect towards the author, client and readers' intentions and expectations) and says that the translator should only mediate.

Summing up, Nord states she has made an effort to combine two models: the traditional concept of equivalence and the radical functionalist concept; trying to establish the relevance of a text for a specific aim as well as the respect for the author's intentions and expectations, not only of the original author, but also of the client and target readers. This is a pragmatic model that, thanks to the loyalty principle, can be applied to any culture, (adopting its norms and conventions) and to any type of text (Hurtado 1993: 97-111).

3.3.5. Philosophical and Poetic Approach

Hermeneutics is "the philosophic-philologic reflection on which the translation nature is planned in the broadest frame of the philosophy and language problems" (López & Wilkinson 1997: 165). The hermeneutic stage opens the discussion about the meaning of understanding a text. The postromantics Goethe and Humboldt started, and other people such as Heidegger and Walter Benjamin continued.

In another field of work, one can find Douglas Robinson (translation is influenced by somatics) and Pym (translation is influenced by economics).

3.4. State of the art in the 21st Century

Many bridges have been established between these approaches as lots of scholars understand the need for a cohesive theory. From the premise that language is firstly a translation, Octavio Paz states that translation and creation are twins. He continues arguing that translation is always a literary operation that implies a change in the original.

> Every text is unique and, simultaneously, is the translation of another text. No text is completely original as the language, in its essence, is a translation: first of the non-verbal world and then, because every sign and every sentence is the translation of another sign and of another sentence. But this reasoning can be inverted without losing its validity: all texts are originals because every translation is different. Every translation is, to a certain degree, an invention and so it is a unique text. (Paz 1971: 9)

Borges is another writer who tries to reconcile these approaches. His most famous sentence is "The original has never surpassed the translation." (Borges 1932: 32). Though this statement may be hard to believe, there is a lot of sense hidden in it. The original and the translation are two different texts that should be evaluated separately. The original is unique, but so is the translation.

Mona Baker has also carried out many attempts to reconcile the linguistic and cultural approaches.

> ...cultural studies and linguistics both have an important contribution to make to translation. Neither can provide the answer to all our questions nor the tools and methodology required for conducting research in all areas of translation studies. Neither should be expected to. After all, if translation studies is, as many of us would like to think, interdisciplinary by nature, then there is no need to set various disciplines in opposition to each other nor to resist the integration of insights achieved through the application of various tools of research, whatever their origin. (Baker 1992: 11)

But even though endeavours are being made, there are still many scholars who find big differences between these approaches (Gentzler 1993, Venuti 1992 and Chesterman & Wagner 2002).

There is not an absolute theory, and with the premises: "the translation of any text to any language is always possible" (Newmark 1982: 7) and "the translator cannot escape being coloured by his own time" (Lattimore 1966: 54-55) it can be deduced that one has to adopt a non-dogmatic attitude and consider a utopia any attempt to contemplate a unique theory, eternally valid and displaced from time and history.

Now, two key questions to be explored concerning translation theories in relation to the pedagogical discipline are:

a)   Should theory be included in classes?

b)   If so, implicitly or explicitly?

None of these questions has a simple answer. I believe theory is very important to build useful knowledge to be applied later in the practical field, but mostly in advanced classes. To the question whether theory should be taught implicitly or explicitly, I would answer implicitly in some cases (e.g. in non-specific lessons) and explicitly in others (e.g. in translation classes). I think that translators should study all the current and past translation theories to be able to understand and choose among all the possible options. But as this dissertation is about teaching English through translation and not about teaching translation, the best alternative will be to teach the above mentioned theories implicitly as individuals learn non-consciously as well as consciously (see pages 52-55). So, in this case, teaching theory implicitly would be better.

For any translator professional or amateur some guidelines, taken from the different theories, should be clear:

1. A translation gives life to a text in another place (culture) and moment in time, thus translators are interpreters of texts and cultures (e.g. see appendix 33.10).

2. Naturalising and exoticising are two options (Henvey, Higgins & Hayewood 1995) (see above & appendix 31.1).

3. The translator should focus on the purpose of any translation and consequently on the response of the receptor (e.g. see appendix 33.2).

4. Any translator will leave his/her own inprint in the original text as the reading and writing acts are unique (any reader or writer brings to the text his/her previous knowledge shaped by the dominant perceptual styles (see pages 43-50), the Multiple Intelligences (see point 2.2.1.1), individual culture and punctual real-world circumstances) (e.g. see appendix 33.2).

5. Translations can be as good as, better, or worse than originals (e.g. see appendix 33.1).

6. A text does not have a unique correct translation but many possible ones (e.g. see appendix 33.3).

7. Any source text can be translated in different ways, according to the translation assignment (see point 3.3.4) (e.g. see appendix 33.3).

These seven premises are, in my opinion the pillars to start translating. Despite the fact that translation theories are not necessary to be explained, I think secondary school students would need these guiding principles to tackle any translation task or project.

Summing up, knowing about translation theories is the basis any professional should master well and it is also, in my opinion, the base a teacher should try to assimilate before applying any translation activity in the language learning classroom.

3.5. Translation models relevant to this study

As there is no unique translation theory, there is no only model of the translation process, but many that should be taken into account and which can be useful in order to know the inner steps a person who translates may follow. Here are some of the most well known classics:

3.5.1. Kade[4] (1968: 9)
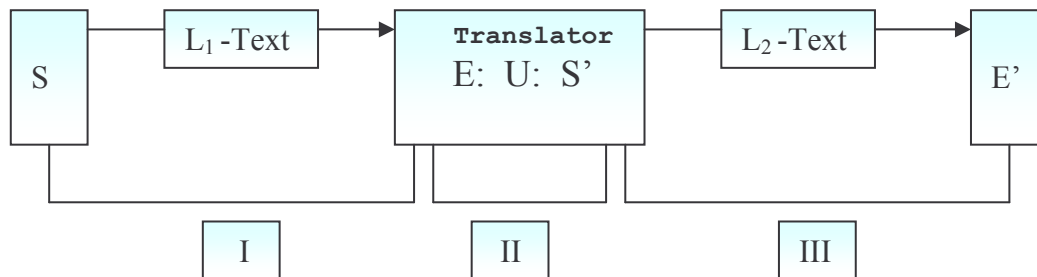
As Kade states (1968: 9), communication consists of three phases:

a)   In phase one, communication between sender and translator takes place.

b)   Phase two is characterised by a change of code undertaken by the translator.

c)   The third phase thematises the communication between the translator in his/her function as target-language sender and the target language receiver.

Translation comprises part of phase I and III and the whole of phase II.

But this model reveals a high degree of generality. As a consequence, the specifics of a certain type of communication cannot be captured adequately (Lörscher 1991: 20-21).

---

[4] S= Sender, E= Receiver, L_1= Source Language, U= Translator, L_2= Target Language, S'= Target Language Sender, E'= Target Language Receiver.

3.5.2. Nida (Nida & Taber 1969: 484-492)

The phases involved in the translation process can be schematically illustrated as follows (Nida & Taber 1969: 484):

SOURCE LANGUAGE		RECEPTOR LANGUAGE

Text → Analysis

Text → Restructuring

Analysis → Transfer → Restructuring
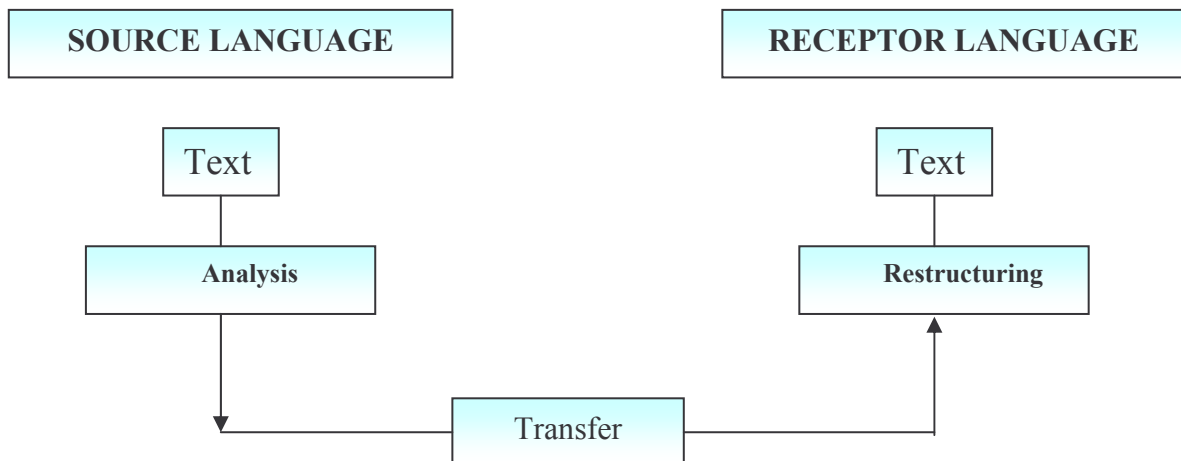
According to Nida, the analysis of the SL text has three aspects: grammatical, referential-semantic and connotative. Transfer operates on the level of the kernels (see point 3.3.1) or near-kernels as the meaning is more explicit in the simpler structures. Nida proposes 4 stages in the translation process:

    a) analysis the SS of the ST,

    b) analysis the DS of the ST,

    c) transfer the DS to the TT and

    d) restructure the SS in the TT.

In the transfer phase three changes occur: complete redistribution, analytical distribution and synthesis. In the last phase, synthesis or restructuring, the kernels transferred into the target language are transformed into surface structures. As can be seen when talking about DS and SS, this is related to Nida's work with Chomsky. The main problem is that the notion of kernels remains vague. This is deliberate on the part of the author as he says that "linguists differ as to the precise formulation of these structures..." (Nida & Taber 1969: 485).

3.5.3. Popper[5] (1972)

Popper expands his idea that knowledge grows by conjecture and refutation that is to say by trial and error, applying it to the translation field.

P1: A translator is faced with a problem when translating a text. This can cause other more specific questions about all possible choices when translating. But any problem solving has the same structure.

TS: The first draft is a particular answer with a precise theory.

EE: The following step is the revision process. The more the translator knows about the possible alternatives, e.g. linguistics, sociolinguistics, readability, equivalence, text types, norms, etc. and the more rigorous the revision the better it will become.

P2: Reformulation of the translated text.

If necessary this can be a cyclical process so the P2 would be the starting point of another conjecture and refutation process.

---

[5] P1= Problem situation, TS= Tentative Solutions, EE= Error Elimination, P2= Reformulation of the original problem.

3.5.4. Diller/Kornelius[6] (1978: 16)
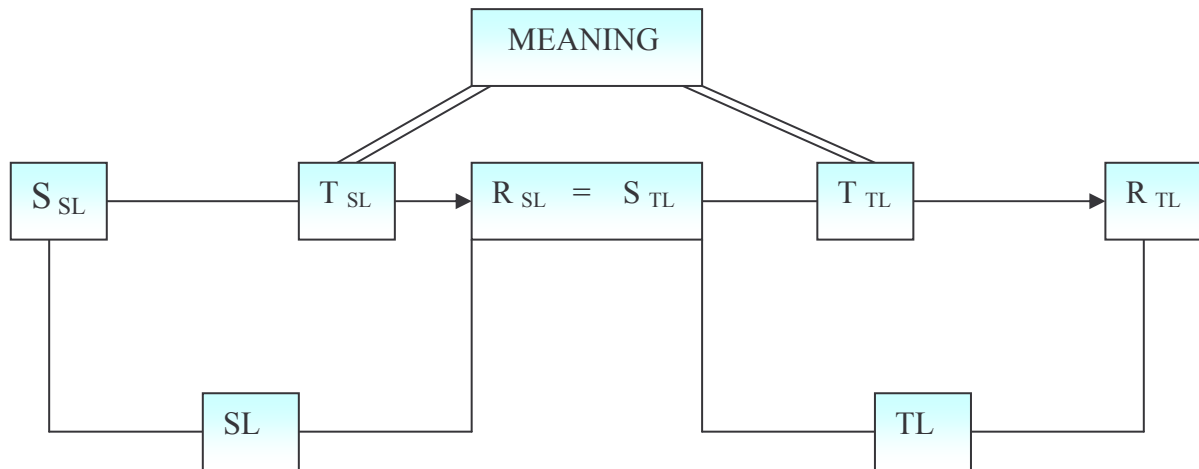
Meaning, according to Dillier and Kornelius, comprises much more than semantics, it comprises seven components:

a) the object a text-segment refers to;

b) the kind of reference;

c) the features, qualities, etc. ascribed to the object by a text-segment;

d) the kind of ascription;

e) the illocutionary force of the text-segment;

f) the way in which the illocutionary force is realised in the text-segment; and

g) the intended characteristics of the illocutionary act.

But there were problems with this translation process as their broad and complex concept of meaning leads to serious problems for translating (in Lörscher 1991: 9-13).

_____

[6] S= Sender, T= Text, R= Receiver, SL= Source Language, TL= Target Language.

3.5.5. Stein and Hönig/Kußmaul[7] (1982: 13)
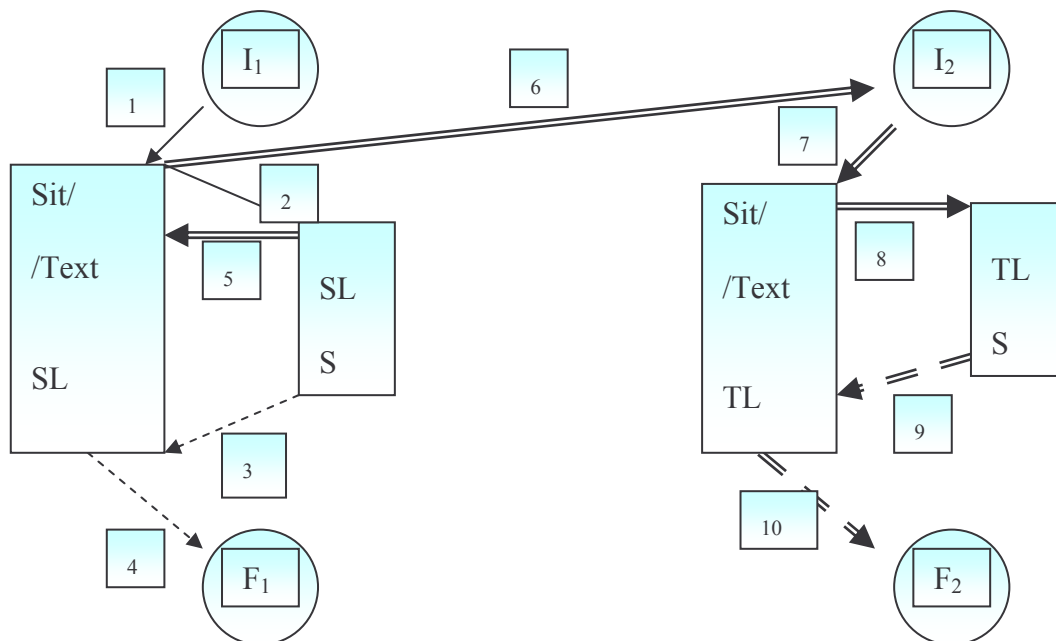
Stein's model of translation (Stein 1980: 62), which is the one with more variables, represents the starting position for the strategy of translation developed by Hönig and Kußmaul in 1982.

A text producer in a source language has a communicative intention and wants to evoke a certain communicative function in the text receiver. To ensure that the desired effect is provided on the receiver, the text producer takes into account the situation. In addition, (s)he informs about the textual knowledge which has been built up by preceding communications. With a view to his/her knowledge about the addressee's situation and textual knowledge, the text producer selects those source language signs from his/her repertoire which most probably will make the receiver act according to the text producer's intention. The translator plays a very different part in the translational communication process. His/her first task is to deduce the source language text producer's communicative intention. (S)he does this taking into account the SL addressee's situation and textual knowledge. The translator views the SL signs which the text sender has selected and has used to produce the SL text. The translator

---

[7] Step 1 and 2 made by the SL text producer; Step 3 and 4 made by the SL text receiver; Step 5, 6, 7 and 8 made by the translator; Step 9 and 10 made by the TL text receiver. I= Intention, F= Communicative Function, Sit= Situation, Text= Textual Knowledge, SL S= Source Language Signs.

focuses, as well, on the specific way the language signs are used in the text and concludes what intention the SL text producer probably sought. According to Stein, the first task of the translator is accomplished when I_2 is the same as I_1. After having deduced the intention of the SL sender, the translator acts as text producer in the target language. Taking into account the TL addressee's situation and textual knowledge, the translator may choose those target language signs that probably produce a communicative effect on the TL addressee that is similar to the function evoked by the SL text (Lörscher 1991: 23-24).

This is in my opinion the more complex model as it is the one that includes more items to be taken into account when translating, though an essential weakness concerns its idealised and prescriptive character. The model shows how an ideal translator proceeds under ideal circumstances for an ideal reader. But neither an ideal translator nor ideal circumstances nor an ideal reader exist.

3.5.6. González Davies and Scott-Tennent (2005: 160-179)

As all the previous translation models are classics and a lot has been written more recently I will take González Davies and Scott-Tennent's model, which I have found useful in this context.

Gathering results of previous research, classroom observation, and recent literature, these two scholars propose a translation model for pedagogical purposes. This model consists of five phases in the translation act:

1. general approach,
2. problem spotting,
3. brainstorming and choosing strategies,
4. brainstorming and choosing procedures,
5. choosing a final solution.

In **phase one**, general approach, translators choose which line their translation will follow. They direct their decisions concerning norms, ideology and subjectivity, assignment, time, sources, equipment, fees and their expertise and personal or emotional situations.

In **phase two**, problem spotting, problems are identified and analysed.

In **phase three**, brainstorming and choosing strategies, translators make decisions on the strategies to apply accessing mental or emotional thoughts.

In **phase four**, brainstorming and choosing procedures, translators consider a variety of appropriate translation procedures to re-express the source text.

In **phase five**, choosing a final solution, translation solutions are evaluated according to their context.

This model is really adequate as in the researchers' own words it includes "constant shifts between noticing, deciding and justifying skills" (González Davies & Scott-Tennent 2005: 174), and from this whole concept I have also developed my own method.

There is no unique model of the translation process which can gather together the models stated before, as, again, there is no absolute translation theory. So one should consider all these models and think that the translation process is a set of very complicated stages through which translators go.

3.5.7. A new translation model proposal[8]

I would like to propose my own modest model which I think takes into account many variables not explicitly considered in some of the previous models.

It is not intended to be an ideal model, but I believe it embraces most of the concepts one should take into consideration when translating and, consequently, any mismatch within the interpersonal parts between both sections I and III will lead to different results; not necessarily wrong, of course, but different. It is worth noticing the steps a text may follow from when it is formed till when it is understood by a person from a different culture than the transmitter, and with a different code. This can throw light on the importance of the job of any translator.

---

[8] I= Idea, WK= World Knowledge, IA= Illocutionary Act, PA= Perlocutionary Act, LA= Locutionary Act, TP= Text Producer A, Tp= Text Producer B or translator, TR= Text Receiver B or translator, Tr= Text Receiver C. (A,B,C= three different people.)

First of all, one has to become aware of the fact that the translation process is constituted by different subprocesses, one involving the text producer (A), another one involving the client, or the person who sets the assignment and the translator (B), and finally the last one involving the text receiver (C). These four individuals are involved in, at least, one speech act and so the codifying and decodifying process should take place several times. They might have two different cultures and, of course, different codes; but all four will necessarily have different world knowledge and world experiences (shaped according to the possible dominant perceptual styles and interiorised through the help of the different intelligences (see point 2.2.1.1)), and so the transposition idea-word or word-idea would be affected.

The message that the text producer will try to send is influenced by the channel through which it is sent, which will lead text receivers to analyse the text and the possible noise. The noise is the impediment that text receivers will have to surmount when they receive the message the text producer has sent, which can be various and of different typologies (e.g. a translation with misunderstandings from the original text).

So, as my model points out, the translator is not a mere observer but (s)he contributes by changing the locutionary act, but sometimes trying to preserve or change consciously the perlocutionary act, with justification, of course, and consequently varying the communicative function.

3.6. Translation in the foreign language class

Bearing in mind that "the meaning of a word is its use in the language" (Robinson 1997) and that "meaning is not in the words but in the mind of the listener or reader" (Firth, 1957), it can be said that context and culture are essential. This is why there cannot be an only correct translation since it depends, among other things, on the assignment and translator's experience, knowledge and perception of the world (see pages 43-50). This is a very important reason for using translation in the foreign language class as it provokes debate about both languages *in use*: L1 and FL, and teachers and students can use the metafunction of language purposefully.

Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1983) state that all second language learners start assuming that for every word in L1 there is a single translation equivalent in the FL.

Moreover, a study made by Belha (1999) has discovered that "the assumption of word-for-word translation equivalence or 'thinking in the mother tongue (L1)' is the only way a learner can begin to communicate in a second language." However, as stated before, it is also true according to Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1983) that proficiency in the foreign language involves the continuous abandonment of translation. I would like to add at this point that the last "translation" word does not refer to activities, tasks or projects specifically aimed at translating in or outside a classroom setting, but to conscious or unconscious translations to access meaning in a FL.

3.6.1. Advantages and disadvantages of using translation in the FL classroom

Dennis Newson, in his article in the book *Translation and Language Teaching. Language Teaching and Translation* (Malmkjaer 1998: 63-67), before writing about some advantages of the use of translation in the language class, exposes some of the widespread disadvantages:

1. encourages thinking in one language and transference into another with interference,
2. deprives from learning within only one language,
3. gives false credence of word-to-word equivalence, and
4. does not allow achievement of generally accepted teaching aims: emphasis on spoken fluency.

Alan Duff (1992) explains why translation has been out of favour with the language teaching community since the reform movement. Translation is:

1. Text-bound. It only implies two skills: reading and writing.
2. Time-consuming.
3. Associated with specific types of language, e.g. scientific. Not suited to the general needs.
4. Not desirable as it uses the mother tongue.
5. And it is, finally, a lonely and pointless activity.

Even if some of the disadvantages of using translation are not really drawbacks, it is true that translation used too often in a FLC creates some weaknesses in the learner. Thus, translation should not be taken as a methodology, but as a useful task not done for its own sake, but for the process it entails, which is a very rich one. According to Howatt (1984), translation is not as terrible as it appears to be, and Duff (1992) gives reasons why he thinks translation can be really useful:

1. The influence of the mother tongue. People's L1 shapes their thinking and translation helps them to understand better the influences among languages.

2. The naturalness of the activity. It is a natural and necessary activity that is going on all the time, and that will always be needed.

3. Develops mainly two skills aspects. Language competence is a two way system that communicates into and from the second language.

4. The reality of language is another important aspect. It is authentic material.

5. Usefulness:

    a) Invites speculation and discussion.

    b) Develops 3 qualities essential to all language: accuracy, clarity and flexibility.

    c) The teacher can select material to illustrate particular aspects of language, and students see the links between language usage and grammar.

    d) Gives practice of a variety of styles and registers.

Widdowson also thinks translation is useful as this technique encourages learners to develop the capacity to differentiate between 'structural, semantic and pragmatic' equivalence (Widdowson 1974, in Brumfit and Johnson 1979: 65).

Atkinson (2001) also considers translation to be a very important tool in language learning. For some students of English there are aspects of the language which present difficulties maybe because of the way in which they differ *structurally* from the mother tongue, for example, the use of adjectives in front of nouns is for Spanish learners difficult to assimilate, and so on. In such cases an efficient approach can be a simple explanation or deduction of the rule, followed by a translation exercise framed by a communicative activity. Many other scholars, such as González Davies, also consider translation, understood as a communicative learning activity, to be useful for

many purposes in the classroom in combination, of course, with other tasks. These purposes can be classified in (González Davies 2002a: 70-73):

1. explore language to favour accuracy and reduce avoidance strategies,

2. favour an awareness of the similiarities and differences between languages and the interpretation of reality of different communities,

3. work on cognitive skills such as problem spotting and problem solving, encouraging risk-taking that can be justified,

4. cater for diversity in the classroom by taking into account different students' needs, and

5. improve resourcing skills: paper, electronic or human.

Atkinson specifically focuses on remarking that translating false cognates is a very interesting exercise in order for the students to focus on the misleading similarities between their L1 and the FL. Translation activities are also helpful according to Atkinson (2001) to be used to check sense in a composition or cloze exercise or to test the degree of knowledge on a foreign language. Cunningham (1929) asserts that translation is the best test of knowledge of two languages though this statement can be argued by some scholars because they can utter that it does not evaluate the learner in a "real linguistic" activity. But is this true? Cannot a translation task recreate a real linguistic situation? As claimed by Duff (see above) translation is a natural activity, so it is real in itself. As has been suggested before, not all the tasks or projects should have to have a connection with translation activities, because if students only translate, they will get stuck if there is a word they do not know in the FL. The "think in English" process is a long term aim so it will not have the desirable effect on a punctual communicative situation. Other skills should be developed such as using circumlocution, paraphrase, explanation, and simplification.

Translation, according to Atkinson, is motivating and provides students with a greater sense of achievement. However, overuse should be avoided (Atkinson 2001):

1. The feel of not understanding till a word has been translated.

2. Student's oversimplificating the use of translation, to prevent them from not seeing the form, semantic or pragmatic equivalence any more.

3. Students not expressing themselves in their FL but in their L1, even if they are capable of doing so.

4. Students not realising they should use the FL for most of the classroom activities.

Maria González Davies and Mª Luz Celaya in their book *New Teachers in a New Education System* (1992: 29) also support the use of translation, stating that it can be incredibly useful as a class activity "if taken as a tool among others to help in the learning and not as the only possible approach". They go on giving reasons to support translation validity:

1. Students become aware of both L1 and L2 patterns and the correspondence between them.

2. Structures are placed within the cognitive frame of L2. So L1 as well as FL structures are studied.

3. Problems of transfer may be diminished; mental agility, flexibility and memorisation are favoured.

4. Translation forms a natural part of the learning process and is something that students probably do often outside the classroom.

González Davies (2002a: 74), again, commits herself for the use of translation saying that it "can contribute positively to foreign language teaching because it helps improve the students' linguistic, cognitive, communicative and resourcing skills, expand their encyclopaedic knowledge, and understand intercultural relationships."

Pilar Godayol (1996) specifies some of the points on these above mentioned lists and adds other benefits of using translation in the foreign language classroom. Translation:

1. develops basic abilities: mental agility, memory, linguistic precision, clarity,

2. leads the student to speculate, argue and defend his/her ideas,

3. exercises linguistic accuracy: comprehension, search for equivalence and written production,

4. analyses the contrast between the languages: grammar and semantics, and strengths and weaknesses are discovered,

5. investigates the sociocultural weight that lies hidden behind the words, and

6. encourages students to immerse in the world of professional translation.

Mary Snell-Hornby (in Titford & Hieke 1985: 21-28) writes that translation involves discipline and precision in recognising and handling fine points of lexis, grammar and cohesion. The detailed analysis of a well-written text for translation provides the basis for creative writing. And that the longer a student takes an active part on the translation the more he will gain. In the same line of research, the "power of knowing" tied to the desire to be on familiar terms with oneself are two key elements to work with in the translation field. Students should be encouraged to translate in order to let them know another culture and their own, and to think globally (Ferré 2002: 34).

Translation activities introduced purposefully and imaginatively in the language learning class contribute to improving two languages, the L1 and the FL. According to Amparo Hurtado (1988: 43) "the translation process can be divided into three phases: understanding, deverbalizing, reexpressing". These help students to be precise, fluent and accurate.

Eugene Nida, preceding the Communicative Approach, advocates the "learning by doing" (Nida 1957: 43-44) principle so widely applied in most Western pedagogical settings nowadays. This idea definitely changed the approach to teaching and learning, especially after the 1960s Reform Movement. This quotation indirectly evoke the use of translation, as it is a real life activity in which students must involve themselves in the subject as well as deal with the language they are studying (see also point 3.6.4).

As one can notice, there are many more advantages for the use of translation in FLL classrooms than disadvantages. Hence, I would recommend any foreign language teacher not to be afraid of this useful task and try it, again occasionally, with clear aims about what (s)he wants the students to achieve. The purpose will obviously vary depending on the objectives to attain and the students one works with, but in any case, translation activities should be communicative.

3.6.2. The teacher's abilities

An instructor must be prepared in order to make a good use of any translation activity. With translation, teachers should be even more open minded, as it is a very open activity and does not have an only correct answer. The abilities a teacher should have, according to Peter Newmark's book *About Translation* (1991: 42-59), are the following:

a) be organised and inform the students about the syllabus;

b) be confident, admit mistakes, teach students more gifted than the teacher thanks to experience;

c) have some basic translator's skills.

Other scholars also talk about these abilities in other terms (Godayol 1996). Teachers should:

a) have a good command of pedagogical techniques;

b) be prepared to experiment with new methods;

c) differentiate pedagogical and professional translations;

d) not want to achieve an exact translation;

e) listen to students' suggestions;

f) consider translation as a form of linguistic exploration; and

g) have a good command of the two languages.

Summing up, the job of a teacher is: to select a text according to students' needs and interests, to counsel on how the translation should be done (according to the audience of the translation), to help students when a problem arises and, finally, to exploit all the possibilities of the text.

3.6.3. The student's abilities

Albeit, up until now, I have not talked about the learners themselves in the translation field, they are very important components of the translation process. First of all, they should know the reasons why the teacher wants them to translate, the usefulness of the task, etc. They should also be more or less interested in the topic and

find that the activity matches their needs. In the report by Peter Newmark (1991: 42-59) the abilities –that can also be educated– a translator (or anyone who wishes to translate) should have are:

a) sensitivity to language;

b) ability to write neatly, plainly, nicely;

c) good knowledge of cultural background;

d) master the text being translated;

e) good reading knowledge;

f) common sense;

g) discrimination;

h) speed in working;

i) think of several things at the same time;

j) meticulousness.

In the practical field of translation, language students are often required to translate, but they are rarely given any practice or instruction in the skill. Texts are specially chosen for their language traps. This is an abuse of translation! There is no point in handing out texts to the students with the instruction: "Translate!". It will serve little purpose. Practice in translation does not mean setting written assignments to be returned to the students with the errors marked in red. It means giving the students regular opportunities to compare and discuss their work with others, and to respond to suggestions (e.g. see pages 233-244 in Appendices).

Again, each activity should have clear objectives such as: to increase understanding, encourage search equivalents, clarify linguistic problems or be aware of social differences. And once more, the selection of texts should be done carefully depending on what the teacher wants the students to focus on.

3.6.4. The translation process

As Malakoff and Hakuta (1991: 163) convey, "translation provides an easy avenue to enhance linguistic awareness and pride in bilingualism". But, when should translation be taught? Some people state that translation should be taught when a high level of proficiency is acquired. And I would like to question this assumption. When

one starts learning a foreign language, does (s)he not want to know the "exact meaning of a word" in their own language? So, if translation is done unconsciously, why not treat it consciously and take control over it in the classroom? My impression is that there is not a best age to use translation, the teacher should feel ready and see whether the learner could be interested in the activity or if the activity would be useful to the learner in any way.

As acclaimed by Howatt: "the practice of translation has been condemned so strenuously for so long without really convincing reasons that it is perhaps time the profession took another look at it" (in Baker 1998: 117-120). Now, and in a loud voice, one can say that in recent years there has been a reappraisal of the role of translation in language learning. And that, at present, the use of translation and the use of L1 in the foreign language classroom should not be seen as a crime any more but as a virtue, if used correctly.

It is crucial to know the steps one should follow in a translation activity to be able to apply translation in the FLC. Though as it can be deduced there is not an only perspective, Hatim (Hatim & Mason 1996: 2-11) proposes:

a) Pre-reading: There is a pivotal pre-reading process to go through (title, subtitle, knowledge of what is happening in the world...).

b) Text processing: When one encounters the first elements: words, phrases... The translator assesses initial elements in terms of their relevance to the progression of a text and the requirements of context.

c) Hypothesis testing: The establishment of relevance is a hypothesis testing exercise, though it is not entirely open-ended.

d) The unit "Text": text is the ultimate linguistic unit in any activity to do with communicating in language. There are also other units to bear in mind apart from text: discourse and genre.

e) From Global to Local: The focus gradually narrows and the attention becomes more concrete, but local patterning and global organisation are not two separate activities.

f) Text structure: A structure format begins to emerge. These will feature most prominently in the analysis of the way texts are put together and are made operational.

g) Texture: The analysis of structure becomes more relevant in the process of reworking a text, that of negotiating texture or the devices which together lend the text its basic quality of being both cohesive and coherent.

Another frame of reference is that of Jean Delisle (1988: 53-81), as he records that when analysing the translation process one encounters:

a) Comprehension: the translator attempts to determine what the author wanted to say.

b) Decoding signs: it is the process of understanding signifieds. The conceptual content of words is ascertained through lexical and grammatical analysis.

c) Understanding meaning: to define the conceptual content of an utterance more precisely by drawing on the referential context in which the utterance is embedded.

d) Interpretation: it is difficult to discern an author's intentions, and that is what a translator should try to do.

e) Reformulation: re-expression is the act of re-verbalising concepts using the signifiers of another language.

f) Analogical reasoning: to discover the meaning of an utterance within a communication situation and re-express it in another language.

g) Re-verbalisation: it is what goes on in the translator's mind as he searches for a target language formulation corresponding to the interpretation of the source text.

h) Verification: to confirm the accuracy of the solution.

Both analyses are complex and very complete, the difference is that one focuses more on the text and the other emphasises more the person who deals with that text. (For other translation processes see point 3.5.6.)

Common to each level there is one of the main steps that leads the teaching translation process: **reading accuracy**. I will deal with reading accuracy in depth because it is another skill I have tried to measure in my research. Reading accuracy seems to be one of the first steps for any translation. How can reading be defined? According to Aebersold and Field (1997: 15) reading is "what happens when people look at a text and assign meaning to the written symbols in that text". Another definition for reading is the one given by Solé (1992: 21) who states that reading is an interaction

process between the text and the reader, and through this process the reader wants to satisfy his/her objectives for the reading. Rumelhart (1977) also agrees with at least the first part of this definition as he utters that there are three elements to be considered in any reading task:

- The reader is an individual with his/her own characteristics as well as a member of a community always influenced by either his/her society, school, peers or family.

- All texts organise the information in one way or another, they have their own syntax and grammar and obviously their own vocabulary.

- Finally, the interaction between text and reader can be split in the interaction between purpose and manner of reading, the interaction through reading strategies and the interaction through schemata or the knowledge the reader brings to the text.

Considering this last section, the interaction between text and reader, Block (1986) talks about two types of readers: the integrative (questions the ideas on the text and compares them with their own) and the non-integrative (does not relate the text to themselves). In my opinion, integrative readers are the ones who use more of their emotional intelligence (see point 2.2.1.2) and, thus, they feel more engaged with the text. Consequently, their reaction to it is stronger.

At this point, one could wonder: what do individuals need to know before reading? As claimed by Scarcella and Oxford (1992), and using Canale and Swain's (1980) communicative competence framework, there are 4 areas of reading competence:

1. grammatical (knowledge of grammar),
2. sociolinguistic (use language appropriately in different contexts),
3. discourse (knowledge of acceptable written and spoken patterns), and
4. strategic (use strategies in order to communicate successfully).

To cover this range of areas, one should not rely only on bottom-up or top-down models but on a combination of them. There are three models of reading (Barnett, 1989):

1. **Bottom-up**: reading starts from the smallest units: letters to words, to phrases… This process becomes so automatic that readers are not aware of

how it works. It was firstly called "decoding", as the reader decodes a text encoded by a writer (Stanoich 1990). (See also point 3.5.7.)

2. **Top-down**: readers bring previous knowledge (cultural, syntactic, linguistic), expectations, assumptions to help to create hypothesis and reading is a process of checking whether they were correct (Goodman 1967). A reader can only access a text if (s)he activates prior semantic, pragmatic, syntactic and discourse knowledge (Macaro 2003: 120). Most of our world understanding comes from how we have interpreted it in the past. The combination of interpretations is what is called schemata (see point 2.3.4). The schemata are individual and non-transferable. For the FL reader, a lack of cultural awareness can cause understanding problems, but our world knowledge is divided between schemata (more individually driven) and scripts (more socio-culturally driven). The scripts of the FL may, in some cases, be substituted by the L1 scripts whenever there is a lack of FL background knowledge. Clarke (1979) is the first to talk about the short-circuit hypothesis, which predicts that the learners with limited FL knowledge, when confronted with a FL text fail to activate their L1 reading strategies. The higher the level of L2 proficiency, the more L1 reading behaviour will be applied to FL reading (Macaro 2003: 130).

3. **Interactive**: it is the model most researchers recently support. It is a combination of the two bottom-up and top-down strategies which occur alternatively or at the same time depending on the reader's background knowledge, language proficiency level, motivation, strategy use and culturally shaped believes about reading. Therefore reading requires content and form, but also cultural knowledge (Carrell, Devine & Eskey 1988).

> Reading becomes a process which draws on various knowledge sources allowing for the fact that meaning does not reside in the text alone but is a co-construction of the writer's text and the reader's interpretation. (Macaro 2003: 120-1)

I would also add "World Knowledge" to Macaro's definition as it is essential to interpret any text.

Using an interactive model would mean using a succession of reading skills (Nuttall 1982: 32):

1. Skills involving flexibility of technique: variations in reading rate depending on the text, skimming (glance rapidly through a text to determine its gist), scanning (glance rapidly through a text to search for specific information), study reading (subvocalising, finger-pointing, regressions).

2. Skills to use information which is not part of the text itself: graphic conventions (spacing, indentation, layout, punctuation, type-face, symbols) reference apparatus (all the parts of a book, article that help the reader to locate information or predict what the text contains: title, index, blurb), and non-verbal devices that include information (illustrations, diagrams, maps, tables…).

3. Word-attack skills: tackle unfamiliar words by using a dictionary, using morphology, structural clues (grammatical category), inference from context (find out if the vocabulary words are: active vocabulary (we know it well enough to use it), receptive (we understand the meaning approximately), throwaway (not worth learning it. At beginner or intermediate stages, students should learn to ignore difficult words). What makes words difficult? Idioms, transfers of meanings, words with several meaning, subtechnical words, superordinates, synonyms and antonyms, irony).

4. Text-attack skills: interpreting the text as a whole using all clues available: cohesion, rhetorical structure, etc. There are four kinds of meaning:

   A. conceptual meaning (the meaning a word can have on its own),

   B. propositional meaning (the meaning a sentence can have on its own),

   C. contextual meaning (the meaning a sentence can have only when in context) and

   D. pragmatic meaning (the meaning a sentence has only as part of the interaction between writer and reader).

The problems in understanding a text: concepts, vocabulary and sentence structure (syntax: complex noun groups, nominalisation, co-ordination, subordination, participial and prepositional phrases, simplifying sentences), cohesive devices (reference, substitution, elliptical expressions, lexical cohesion, sequence of events), discourse markers, problems beyond the plain

sense (background knowledge: recognising the functional value, tracing and interpreting rhetorical structure, content, sentence, sequence of sentences, above the paragraph organisation, recognising presuppositions underlying the text, recognising implications and making inferences, predicting and integrating).

Once an individual masters most of these skills (s)he will possibly have a good command of any text. Scholars do not agree on whether reading proficiency in an L1 has a lot or little influence on reading proficiency in an FL. Grabe (1991: 386-7) states that while L1 readers know thousands of words when they start to read and they know, more or less, how to handle grammar, FL readers do not have these advantages. FL readers, supposing FLL starts later than L1 learning, have other advantages such as more world knowledge than when they are learning their L1, more developed cognitive abilities, aptitude to use metacognitive strategies…

Now, how do human beings read? It depends A. on the purpose for reading and B. on the type of text.

A. **Purpose**. Christine Nuttall (1982) referring to reading, states "the way you tackle the task is strongly influenced by your purpose in reading". According to Grellet (1987), human beings read because they want to obtain information or to enjoy themselves. The authentic reason for reading is to obtain something: facts, ideas, enjoyment, or feelings (e.g. through a family letter). For FL students the only reason to read seems to be: to learn, to improve the language command. As it is not a need in itself, motivation can be low and nothing can provide the motivation supplied by needing to get a message across for authentic purposes.

To summarize, what are the aims in reading?

- To promote an ability.
- To help being autonomous.
- To be able to tackle any type of text.
- To read texts for an authentic purpose.
- To reach an appropriate speed without losing effectiveness.
- To read silently as well as aloud to catch the message.
- To gain a level of adequate understanding.

Understanding is central to the process of reading and must be the focus of our teaching. If we settle for less than complete understanding in certain reading tasks, the reason must be clear. It must be the result of a conscious decision, not the result of incapacity to understand. (Nuttall 1982: 22)

B. **Type of text**. There are many text types: non-technical or technical, legal, medical or scientific, advertising texts, business texts, web sites, personal texts or correspondence, political, academic, touristic, etc. Depending on the text and depending on the role one plays as reader, an individual will choose a precise strategy or another and, consequently, a way of reading or another.

Again, according to Grellet (1981) there are four different ways to read a text: skimming, scanning, extensive reading and intensive reading. And depending on the purpose of the reading, one will choose one way to read or another. But can a writer really get a complete message across? "We can never understand one another totally… because all of us have had different experiences which make us see things slightly different" states Nuttall (1982: 9). Without being so dramatic, I quite agree with this statement, as according to individual contextual situations, as well as individual psychological traits, people live different realities –this is linked to the NLP presupposition *The map is not the territory* (see pages 43-50)– and the possibility to completely transmit a particular idea is not easy.

Any reader is not a passive individual, but on the contrary, (s)he is actively involved in the process, and reading is an interactive process. Any utterance has several significations according to its reader and depending on the particular context, it will have a specific value. "Aren't you hot?" can express the worry of a mother as well as surprise or a request. Therefore, writer, as well as reader and text, have an exclusive contribution to communication.

Thus, the meaning of any message is not in the message itself, but in the writer's and reader's head (see also point 3.5.7). A text may mean something for an individual and a different thing for another person, or a text may be difficult for someone and very easy for somebody else.

What makes a text easy or difficult? (Nuttall 1982: 5-6)

1. Writer and reader should share a similar code.
2. The amount of previous knowledge the reader has.
3. The complexity of the concepts expressed.
4. The vocabulary used in the text.

I would add an extra element: for a superior understanding, writer and reader should share their dominant perceptual style (see pages 43-50). The closer the writer's perceptual style is to the reader's, the better understanding the reader will get from the text. As Alderson (2000) suggests, each individual reacts differently in front of a text, but the same individual will provably react differently in front of the same text depending on the day or time of day.

So, to select a text to deal with in the classroom setting, the teacher should consider:

a) the students' level,

b) the amount of new vocabulary it contains,

c) the structural difficulty of the text,

d) the readability (a readability formula can be: choose three passages of ten sentences each, count all words of three or more syllables (this would be the DF number = number of difficult words) Calculate the square root of DF and add 3. The total is the SMOG index[9] devised by G.H. McLaughlin (1969)),

e) content suitability (the text tells students things they do not know, makes them think, helps them understand the way other people think, makes them want to read more or talk about the subject),

f) the text challenges students,

g) the new lexical items are worth learning,

h) the text possibilities to lead to intensive study (making a mind-map, reprocessing the information, debating…) and,

i) perceptual style diversity.

---

[9] The SMOG index is a readability test designed to measure the understandability of a text in English.

Its general formula is: $\sqrt{total\ complex\ words \times \left(\frac{30}{total\ sentences}\right)} + 3$

There are many types of texts to choose while teaching a foreign language. Should the texts be authentic, that means, written to be read by native speakers? The answer is according to Macaro (2003: 146) that this is an "unnecessary criterion" though with the right support, authentic texts can be introduced from very early stages of language learning.

Reading in a foreign language is the major form of input a foreign language learner will receive in class. Differently from listening, they feel reading activities to be less anxiety-inducing due to the possibility they have to re-read and check meaning again and again, whenever they need it. Aebersold and Field (1997: 23-24) compiled a list of factors that influence reading comprehension in a FL:

- Cognitive development and cognitive style orientation at the time of starting the study of the FL (at different ages people will have a different cognitive development (see point 2.1.4), and among individuals the style orientation preferences for sensory input will also be different (see pages 43-50)).

- Language proficiency in the L1 (the skilled L1 reader transfers his/her reading skills to FL reading).

- Metacognitive knowledge of L1 structure, grammar and syntax (ability of the student to discuss, comment, give rules and describe his/her first language use).

- Language proficiency in the FL. Clarke (1980) in his short-cuit hypothesis (see above) stated that weaknesses in L2 competence can "short-circuit" reading performance. So, the texts should be picked up either according to the level of the students, or the teacher will have to give resources to the students for them to be able to understand the text).

- Degree of difference between the L1 and the FL (the similarity between the L1 and the FL writing system will enable FL learners to begin reading faster).

- Cultural orientation:
    i. attitude towards text and reading purpose (depending on the society an individual is living in, written texts will have a specific value and the way to deal with them will also change),

ii. types of reading skills and strategies used in the L1 (they vary in each individual, but they are also dependent upon the values and attitudes of their culture towards reading),

iii. types of reading skills and strategies used in the FL (depending on the use of the FL, the age, L1 and FL proficiency… every learner will apply different reading skills),

iv. belief about the reading process (if teachers or students consider learning many reading strategies worthy, they will act accordingly),

v. knowledge of text types in the L1 (there are many types of organisation of texts shaped by each culture and this has an impact on the way an individual reads a text),

vi. background knowledge or schemata (cultures shape background knowledge and influence reading both in the L1 and in the FL. Besides, cultures also guide how information chunks are stored in the brain (see point 2.3.4)).

Summing up, and despite the fact that I do not completely agree with the second point because it has not been fully demonstrated in previous studies (as stated before), any reading should have a purpose. Once the purpose is clear in the readers' mind, the readers themselves should activate their background knowledge depending on the topic of the text and/or its format. All individuals will undergo a process of predicting and checking predictions while reading, until they need different strategies when comprehension has broken. Students monitor their own comprehension by checking whether the strategies they are using are helping their understanding of the text –it is difficult to distinguish between comprehension strategies and monitor comprehension strategies. Finally, the information in the text will be individually evaluated (Aebersold & Field 1997). All these principles should be taken into consideration before translating any text.

Any piece of work has its challenges that learners may come across and which, at the same time, enrich the task. Now, retaking the translation practice, Christiane Nord (in Dollerup & Loddeggard 1992: 39-48) systematises 4 categories of translation problems:

1. Pragmatic translation problems: from the transfer situation.
2. Cultural translation problems: from the differences between cultures.

3. Linguistic translation problems: from the different lexicon, different structures and different suprasegmental features.

4. Text-specific translation problems: from particular texts.

Starting from the point that any text can be translated, all these "problems" have a more or less difficult solution, but it is precisely in this section where students have more opportunities to exchange viewpoints among them.

According to González Davies and Scott-Tennent (2005: 163) the steps a translator goes through in front of a translation problem are:

1. noticing

2. decision-making

3. self-monitoring

When translators can spot a cultural referent, for example, efficiently, it means that their noticing skills are developed. Whenever translators are able to suggest quite a few potential solutions for a translation problem, it means that they have their decision-making skills developed. Finally, when translators can reach a justified solution for a translation problem, it means that they have their self-monitoring skills developed. The more these three skills are appropriately widened, the better the resulting translation will possibly be.

Taking up again the possibilities of translation tasks, there are many purposes in the use of translation nowadays, as it constitutes an essential part of our society (Newmark 1991: 42-59):

a) The first purpose is to contribute to understanding and peace between nations, groups and individuals.

b) The second purpose of translation is to transmit knowledge, in technology for example.

c) The third purpose is to explain and mediate between cultures on the basis of a common humanity, respecting their strength, implicitly exposing their weaknesses.

d) The fourth ancient purpose is to translate the world's great books, the universal works in which the human spirit lives.

e) The fifth purpose is as a general aid or as a skill required in the acquisition of a foreign language.

Summing up, teaching translation can be done at school or at university. These two processes require different techniques and a different preparation concerning the teachers and the students implied.

> ...the teaching of translating is of two types which need to be carefully distinguished. In one case, translating has been used for centuries as a technique in foreign-language teaching and a test of foreign-language acquisition… In the second case, a more recent phenomenon, translating is taught in schools and courses to train professional translators. (Holmes 1988: 77)

González Davies (2002a: 65) also distinguishes these two types of translation depending on whether it will be used a) as a means: "foreign language classes in general where translation is included as a communicative learning activity", or b) as an end: "translation classes to prepare students who wish to follow Translation and Interpreting Studies at university". Thus, translation can be used as a resource to learn a language and as an activity to learn in itself. What has been fully demonstrated is that both practices are useful and necessary. A lot of different factors influence a translation and this is a very important point to start with when dealing with translation experiences.

In this chapter I have tried specifically to explain why the use of translation is beneficial for students learning a foreign language. People should understand that methodologies change in order to adapt themselves to the students' needs, thus, translation tasks should attain a communicative target. Imperative is the fact that when contrasting translations one can learn a lot as, again, there is not just one translation and explaining one's own choices is essential to help students develop linguistic and cultural awareness. It is worth saying that like other activities, translation is gradually being adapted to the present-day world.

IV. EDUCATIONAL

PRACTICE

4. English subject design and procedures

4.1. The foreign language in the curricular design

The need to speak a foreign language is nowadays greater than ever before for educational, work, cultural and touristic reasons. Furthermore, the development of new technologies has turned the knowledge of a foreign language –especially English– into an essential tool, to be able to obtain information or to communicate through the Net. Moreover, integration within the European Union of countries also makes learning a common language necessary in order to facilitate interaction between nations. Thus, the role of foreign languages is seen both 1. as a key element in the construction of the European identity (multi-lingual, multi-cultural); and 2. as one of the factors favouring the free movement of people: encouraging cultural, economic, technical and scientific cooperation.

All these reasons have lead to consider the need for Secondary Education children to finish their studies having:

a) a certain degree of communicative competence in more than one foreign language, and

b) the appropriate mechanisms to allow them to continue learning foreign languages during their adult life.

The European Council establishes a Common European Reference Framework for the learning, teaching and assessment of foreign languages.

European Council Reference Framework (S.S.A.A. 2002)**:**

- The specification of contents per course should be interpreted as a continuum in which communicative skills, reflection on the language and the sociocultural aspects will be built-up progressively and so, any kind of knowledge dealt with previously will come up again in different contexts. Likewise, the correlation between language functions and grammatical aspects should be handled in a flexible way, bearing in mind that the same language function can be performed through different language exponents and vice-versa.

- The methodological orientations should be coherent with what has been said above and will have as the main objective that the students achieve communicative competence. The importance of using the foreign language code (morphology, syntax and phonology) correctly both orally and in writing should be stressed in order to communicate successfully. The reflection on the language should be geared to helping the students' use of the knowledge acquired of the new language system as a tool for the control and self-correction of one's production and as a resource to understand better what has been produced by others. Likewise, the use by the students of learning mechanisms and strategies in new learning situations and in autonomous learning situations, which have been acquired both in their own language and in the foreign one should be fostered.

- The learning tasks and activities will be the core of didactic planning and the objectives, contents and assessment should be included in those tasks and activities to make up unit plans. Among other criteria, in the design of activities and tasks the different stages of development should be taken into account, together with previous knowledge, an integrated treatment of linguistic components, skills and strategies, the final objectives to achieve and the possibilities of adaptation to mixed-ability in the class.

Through this framework teachers as well as pupils from the different European countries will know in general terms what is expected from them. This framework will

also guide the syllabus design of any foreign language teacher within the European Community.

Learning a new language is probably one of the most difficult challenges students will face during their schooling. One reason is that it requires the students to engage actively in a subject, culture and view of life which is very different from their own. During the process of acquiring English, individual students tend to show clear preferences for different areas and may find some language-learning skills easier, or more motivating than others. Given the diversity of learners, it is very important to be aware of the student's preferences, strengths and weaknesses and act consequently, as stated by the European Framework. Hence, the syllabus design should be as flexible as possible.

4.1.1. The syllabus design

The syllabus design the teacher presents here is **content-based** (Richards & Rodgers 2001). The students are simultaneously language students and students of whatever content is being taught. Language learning occurs guided by the content learning. The techniques and strategies used will be based on: a) visual as well as auditory aids; b) redundancy and reformulation; and c) active learning through experiments, manipulation and problem solving.

Moreover, this syllabus design is also **action-oriented**. That means that learners are primarily "social agents", i.e. members of society who have tasks to accomplish in given circumstances, in a specific environment and within a particular context or field of action. Hence, learning a language is not only learning the signs but also the performance rules which are tied to culture. Language is a relationship between form and meaning, and our instruction will emphasise both sides of this relationship.

4.1.2. The Cycle

The second cycle of Spanish compulsory secondary education (ESO) is constituted by the third and fourth year. Students in their 3rd year of ESO have generally formed an image of themselves as learners of English. Whether this image is positive or negative, the beginning of the second cycle of ESO offers these students an excellent

opportunity to a) evaluate their progress in English, and b) set new goals which will assist them in dealing with the challenges of this stage of the educational system.

What all students should attain in order to promote are the basic competencies.

4.1.2.1. The basic competencies

As in the first cycle of ESO, in the second cycle there are many aims for the different areas of the curriculum to be accomplished. But again, common to all the areas there are the basic competencies any individual should acquire at the end of the cycle. They are the minimum knowledge students have to obtain in order for future learning to be able to take place. Thus, every subject should have these competencies as its basis. They are also part of the criteria to promote students from one year to the next.

In English as a foreign language, these competencies will be included all the way through the activities, tasks and projects taking place in and outside the ordinary classroom setting.

Outline of the basic competencies:
1. Oral and written comprehension.
2. Oral and written expression.
3. Information research and management.
4. Use of techniques, strategies and calculus tools.
5. The application of strategies to understand and solve real-life situations.

4.1.2.2. The objectives

Now, focussing on specific areas, one should take into account what the Ministry and the Government of the Autonomous Region of Catalunya state regarding a) the general objectives, and b) the goals set in the curriculum design for ESO. Thus, the following aims for the second cycle of ESO have been established:

1. Acquire the ability to communicate effectively, in oral and written form, in typical communicative acts through specific tasks and activities related to social interaction and individual practice.
2. Develop communicative skills, both receptive and productive, with the purpose of carrying out information exchanges inside and outside the classroom.

3. Read and listen to various types of text comprehensively and autonomously, with the purpose of accessing different sources of information and as a way of getting to know other cultures and ways of life that are different from one's own.

4. Transfer communication strategies acquired in one's own language or through learning other languages to the understanding of a foreign language in order to carry out interactive tasks in real or simulated situations.

5. Reflect upon the working of a language as an element facilitating learning in the performance of tasks and as a tool for developing autonomy.

6. Use learning strategies and didactic resources (such as dictionaries, reference books, multimedia materials, etc.) to find information and resolve learning situations autonomously.

7. Reflect on learning processes themselves and develop an interest in incorporating improvements that bring success in the realization of set tasks.

8. Access the cultural knowledge transmitted by the foreign language, developing respect for this and for its speakers, in order to achieve better international understanding.

9. Appreciate the value of the foreign language as a means of communication with people who belong to a different culture and as a favourable element in social and interpersonal relationship.

4.1.2.3. The contents

The contents established according to the RD 831/2003 BOE (S.S.A.A. 2003) to attain the given objectives (see point 4.1.2.2) for the second cycle of ESO are:

3rd ESO

I. Communication skills

1. Understanding of main and secondary ideas in oral and written texts.

2. Inferring the meaning from unknown information through the interpretation of contextual elements.

3. Identifying some of the features distinguishing oral and written code.

4. Transmission of essential information to other people on what has been heard or read.

5. Planning the emission of messages taking into account the intention, the communication situation and the speaker/listener.

6. Negotiation of meaning in communication, improving communication, developing strategies which contribute to successful communication, keeping the balance between formal accuracy and fluency.

7. Carrying out reading tasks appropriate to the type of text and the purpose of the task, depending on whether it is intensive or extensive reading.

II. Reflection on the language

A. Language functions & grammar

1. Greetings and introducing oneself and other people. Express habits, abilities, physical and character descriptions, likes and dislikes:

   - Formulae.

   - Present simple & can.

   - Love, like, dislike, hate.

   - Adjectives: attributive & predicative position. Degree & comparison.

2. Expressing amount:

   - Much, many, a lot of, too, not… enough.

3. Talk about/ narrate past events and biographies:

   - Past Simple & Past Continuous.

   - Could.

   - Time expressions: ago, since, for, later, when, after, before, then, etc.

   - Discourse markers: connectors and other cohesive devices.

   - Punctuation & spelling.

4. Asking for and giving information on completed or uncompleted events, on recent events and experiences:

   - Present perfect & past simple.

   - Ever, never, just.

   - When.

5. Making and responding to suggestions:

   - How/ What about + -ing form?

6. Giving advice:

   - Should/ shouldn't.

7. Talk about plans, the idea of intention in the future, predictions, probability, possibility and promises:

- Present Continuous.

- Will/ will not/ be going to + infinitive.

- Conditional sentences. Type I.

8. Expressing obligation and lack of obligation:

- Have to/ don't have to/ must/ mustn't should.

- Adverbs.

9. Describing places; ask for and give information on products which require a production process: music, cars, books, etc.

- Passive voice.

- Adverbial phrases.

B. Vocabulary

1. Related to the topic covered: personal and social relationship, leisure, food, places, etc.

2. Formulae and expressions.

C. Phonetics

1. Pronunciation of particularly difficult phonemes.

2. Pronunciation of contracted forms.

3. Pronunciation of verbal endings.

4. Weak forms.

5. Word and sentence stress.

6. Intonation of sentences.

7. Rhythm.

III. Socio-cultural aspects

1. Appropriate use of linguistic formulae (polite, agreeing, disagreeing, etc.) connected to specific communication situations.

2. Identifying the rules and behaviour typical of the countries where the foreign language is spoken.

3. Be familiar with and show appreciation of the elements which make up the cultural background typical of the countries where the foreign language is spoken.

4. Show interest in encouraging meetings and real communication exchanges with speakers of the foreign language.

5. Development of attitudes contributing to the appreciation of one's own culture comparing it with other cultures.

6. Show respect towards the speakers of the foreign language regardless of their origin, race or mother tongue, encouraging closer contact and the elimination of communication barriers.

7. Appreciation of the importance of the foreign language as a means to communicate with other people learning the same foreign language.

8. Acknowledgement of the presence of the foreign language in the new technological communication systems and its usefulness to communicate with people of various origins.

4th ESO

I. Communication skills

1. Understanding the speaker's intention when giving oral or written messages.

2. Inferring the meaning from unknown information through the interpretation of linguistic elements.

3. Using the conventions typical of natural conversation in simulation roles.

4. Reflecting on the ways to improve one's own oral and written production.

5. Transferring information from one code to another.

6. Appreciating formal accuracy in the production of oral and written messages.

7. Production of oral and written texts containing elements to give cohesion and coherence.

8. Structuring and organisation of the ideas to put into paragraphs.

II. Reflection on the language

A. Language functions & grammar

1. Describing and comparing habits and lifestyles. Expressing likes and dislikes:

   - Present Simple & Continuous.
   - Used to + infinitive.

2. Expressing past events related to the present or to a previous past:

   - Past Simple & Continuous.
   - Present Perfect Simple: for, since, already, yet, etc.
   - Questions on the subject and on the object.
   - Discourse makers.

3. Making predictions and expressing intentions. Expressing certainty and probability:

   - Will.
   - Be going to + infinitive. Present Continuous.
   - Time & conditional (Type I) sentences.
   - May, might, can, can't.

4. Expressing preferences and opinions. Accepting and refusing invitations:

   - Interrogative pronouns.
   - I like/ enjoy/ hate + V-ing./ It's too… etc.
   - Connectors: and, but, because, so, such, both, etc.
   - Comparatives & superlatives.

5. Expressing hypotheses and making recommendations:

   - Conditional sentences type II.
   - Should.

6. Transmitting other people's opinions & ideas:

   - Indirect style.
   - Time expressions.

7. Expressing processes & changes:

   - Passive voice

8. Describing and identifying objects, places and people:

   - Relative pronouns.
   - Specifying relative sentences.

B. Vocabulary

1. Related to the topics covered: personal and social relationship, leisure, feelings, places, etc.

2. Formulae & expressions.

C. Phonetics

1. Pronunciation of particularly difficult phonemes.

2. Pronunciation of contracted forms.

3. Pronunciation of verbal endings.

4. Weak forms.

5. Word and sentence stress.

6. Intonation of sentences.

7. Rhythm.

III. Socio-cultural aspects

1. Appropriate use of semiotic elements such as gesture or proxemic patterns depending on who the other speaker is, respecting at the same time one's particular idiosyncrasies.

2. Appropriate use of register depending on the communication situation.

3. Interest in identifying the socio-cultural aspects in the news or in current affairs broadcast by the mass media.

4. Identifying the socio-cultural aspects implicit in the texts covered.

5. Show respect towards different opinions on matters of interest and understanding of different socio-cultural viewpoints.

6. Use of the foreign language to encourage inter-cultural encounters.

7. Deeper understanding of the cultural aspects and social behaviours shown by different groups within the same language community.

8. Favourable disposition to understand and make oneself understood in the foreign language, using formal or informal styles depending on the other speaker.

4.2. The setting

4.2.1. The school

The school where this teaching programme has taken place is a secondary school situated in a borough of Figueres (Girona). It is called La Salle and it is not a state school but half state half private.

La Salle School in Figueres

La Salle schools are religious schools distributed around the world, with a set of common guidelines: *Caràcter Propi*, where their identity is defined. These guidelines lead all school projects as well as the syllabus design of every area.

The Regulations Governing School Organisation (RRI) will make clear the rights and obligations for everyone. The School Educational Project (PE) and Curriculum Project (PC) are documents that every teacher will also have to have in mind while preparing the teaching programme of a specific area. The main objectives of the school, reflected in these documents, are the general improvement of language and mathematical competencies along with the integration of all the students; so social inclusion is a main issue.

The whole centre is "a centre for world peace" and some of the activities in every area as well as some tutor's tasks should be related to it. Peace is encouraged through "mediation" processes, worked mainly during tutorial hours. Peaceful solutions of problems among students are also fostered through every area.

Example of activities of La Salle as a school for Peace:
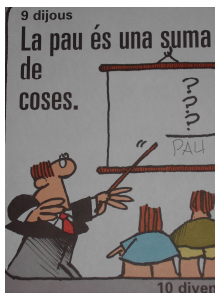
Daily reflection

Area: Tutorial

School magazine

Area: Catalan language
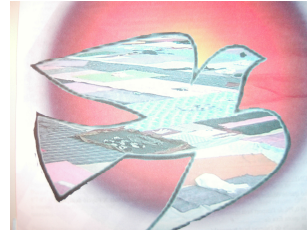
Poster

Area: Arts

The Peace Day in the school

The tutorial action plan (PAT) will also have to be taken into account in the syllabus design of every subject. The teachers of the different areas should work together with tutors to be coherent in the education of all learners.

In this school each level has a stipulated value that students, together with the whole group of teachers, have to deal with. The students in the 3rd year are working with: solidarity while the students in the 4th level are working with: voluntarism.

a) Solidarity is encouraged through information of concrete facts and ways to help solving them. Teachers in every classroom should foster social interaction among students through specific individual or group activities.

b) Voluntarism is fostered through information of different campaigns for particular causes inside and outside school. Tutors as well as other teachers should also encourage the act of helping classmates, etc. Through voluntarism individuals know better their own social background.

To connect the school with the students' social background the teaching staff has decided a) to do some work with the fixed values outside school, taking advantage of some punctual events and helping non-lucrative organizations, and b) to use facilities in the area (museums, theatres, etc.) to plan some specific tasks. For example, the English department has agreed to take students to the theatre at least once a year to see an English play. This last activity fosters connection with the student's social milieu because in the Figueres' theatre: El Jardí, students from many different schools meet to see a different English play every year, and exchange any type of information before as well as after the play, both inside the theatre as well as outside.

Frankenstein (Play set up by Eina d'Escola, 2005)

As there are many resources for students to learn outside school, school trips are also considered a good source of learning.

The social background of the students in the school is middle-mixed but, as in any school, there are some students who are from minority ethnic groups (6 to 9 in each level).

There are around 800 pupils in the school. Focussing on the ESO stage, there are 3 groups of students (A, B and C) for the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th year, with around 30 students in each group. There are around 85 students in each level and around 20 teachers in the whole ESO stage.

4.2.2. The material

4.2.2.1. Human resources

All teaching and non-teaching staff can be considered "human resources". The teaching staff for the secondary stage, as stated before, is constituted by around 20 specialist teachers apart from the psycho-pedagogue, the head of studies and the director. The psycho-pedagogue is an important figure in the school as he tries to help students with real emotional problems and educational needs. Another person is the one who helps the late-coming students (from other countries) in order to facilitate their adaptation to the Catalan language and culture as quickly as possible.

For the specific English class, we have asked for an extra human resource: a foreign reading assistant, though this school has never been granted one. We will go on with our request.

The non-teaching personnel comprise the caretaker, the two porter's lodge employees, the cleaning staff, the secretary, the administration staff and the person in charge of the library.

4.2.2.2. Spatial resources.

The **ordinary classroom** for each group of students is where most of the subjects are taught. The temperature inside the classroom is normally quite cold in winter but during spring or summer it is very comfortable. The lighting is, most of the time, artificial, though natural light comes into the classroom during the afternoon. The classroom design is, as one can see from the image below, really traditional: in orderly rows, with a blackboard in front of the students and the hangers and notice board on the wall behind them. The best thing about the pupils' desks is that they can be rearranged easily depending on the teacher and on the activity being held. The teacher's desk is a bit above the level of the students' and although it can seem to create distance between teacher and student, it is helpful in terms of discipline. Finally, these classrooms are not acoustically isolated so every now and then people can hear what happens in other classrooms and this is a limitation for the teacher who wants students to communicate

orally, to do group projects or to rearrange desks, as these practices end up being quite noisy.

Ordinary classroom

English language classroom: there is a lot of visual material on the language classroom walls: maps, posters, flags, etc. to make the classroom more attractive for the students. This classroom is in the underground of the school so it lacks natural light. Students do not have desks but chairs with a kind of platform to write on, which are very uncomfortable but they are easier to move than normal desks.

Foreign language classroom

As in the school there is also the primary education stage, the language room has to be shared with many other foreign language teachers. So the timetable for every teacher to have access to this classroom has to be accorded at the beginning of each academic year.

There are also: **two computer rooms** to be shared with all the other teachers in the school; a **music room,** acoustically isolated; a **gymnasium;** a really big **theatre**, a **playground** and a **library.**

Computer room
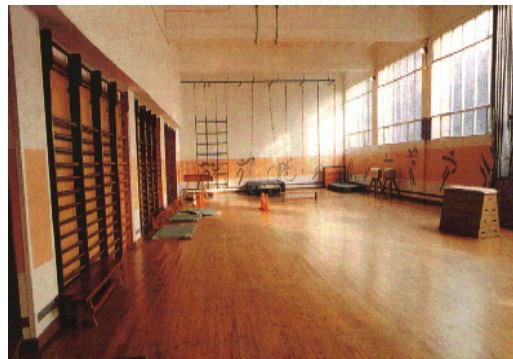
Gymnasium

Theatre

Playground

Library

In the library there is an English self-access corner where students can work on their own or under the English teacher's supervision. Students can go to the library with a teacher during school hours or on their own during library opening hours. They can choose from: a) any book to read inside or outside the library (there are many graded readers to practice English), b) newspapers or magazines in different languages; c) recorded material such as English music; or d) DVDs to practice their listening skills. The new technologies are also present in the library; there are several computers to be used either to find information in the Net or to accomplish some tasks in the available CDs.

The criteria for the use of common areas such as the gymnasium, the theatre, the library and the computer rooms is the following: in all these areas there is a list with a timetable for every term where each teacher, whenever (s)he needs the space, writes his/her name in the correct grid of the timetable.

4.2.2.3. Material resources

In the school

The material resources of the school –**videos**, **DVDs**, **cassette-recorders**, **video camera**, **overhead projector (OHP)**, **slide projector**, **computer projector**– should also be booked in advance, except for the **CD-players**, for every language teacher has his or her own.

In the classroom

The course book used to work with during the whole year is different according to the level group each individual belongs to (see point 4.3). However, as the groups are open, students can change groups whenever they need to do so, and their book will consequently change. The school has spare books to give to these students. The two books are: *Oxford Exchange* III and IV or *Longman Zone* I and II.

Every student needs a **notebook** that will be periodically revised by the teacher, as (s)he will be able to check whether classroom activities, homework, etc. are done.

Dictionaries and grammars will also be provided in the classroom library.

The teacher also has different level **photocopiable worksheets** from different sources to prepare the lessons.

Moreover, the teacher will also be responsible for bringing, creating or organising students to bring *realia* into the classroom**.**

Besides, maps, **posters,** or charts and flashcards created by the teacher, the students or the publishing houses will play an important role on the foreign language classroom as they are visually very motivating.

In the language room there will be a set of **games** to be played in English such as: *Who's who?, Pictionary, Scrabble*, *Irregular Verbs Game*, different dominoes, etc.

What is more, different types of **videos** and **DVDs** will be used by the teacher throughout the year to practise oral skills in class.

The school will provide third year ESO students with a **magazine** each month to work on within the classroom. This magazine will occasionally be used by the fourth year ESO students.

Finally, the **computer** room is available certain hours per week for the English students to learn, practice and establish real communication with other people around the world (e.g. see appendix 33.11).

Desks are also other material that we ought to consider due to their importance in the classroom distribution. As stated before, the allocation of students in the classroom will normally be in rows of individual desks, though it will change depending on the activity, task, project, game carried out or craft created. The possibilities are unlimited: individual desks, pairs, small groups (SG) or big groups (BG), or the Whole class (W) –"U" formation, semicircle formation, circle– etc.
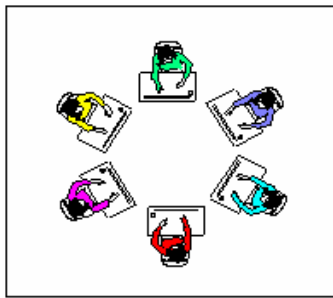
Circle
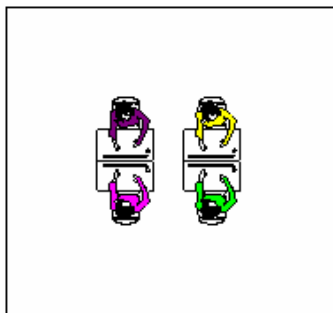
Orderly rows

Pairs
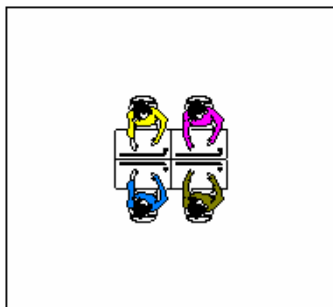
Small groups
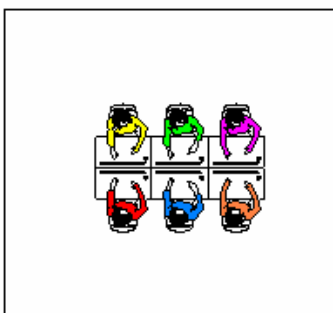
Semicircle

Big groups
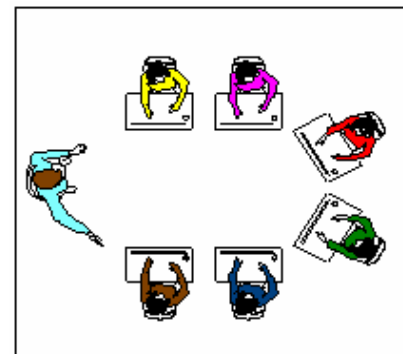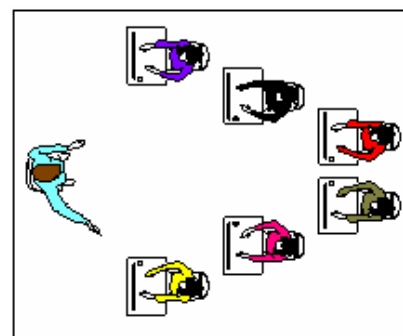
U-formation

4.3. **Class Dynamics**

The Common European Framework for Languages (S.S.A.A. 2002) states that a widespread, clear and coherent frame of reference for language learning, teaching and assessment must transmit a very general view of language use and learning. Language use comprises the actions performed by people who, as individuals and as social agents, develop a range of competencies: general (knowledge about a subject, etc.) and specific (communicative language learning competencies: linguistic, socio-linguistic and pragmatic).

Grouping: as students should attain the already mentioned competencies (see point 4.1.2.1), teachers have decided to try to teach pupils in more or less "homogeneous" groups. In the second cycle of ESO, that is to say in the 3rd and 4rth year, the students in maths, English, Catalan and Spanish languages are divided –to be able to cater for their needs appropriately– in four flexible groups (1, 2, 3 and 4) according to:

a) their previous qualifications,

b) what preceding teachers think about the progress of each individual, and

c) their attitude towards learning.

It is true that a student can be really good at maths and very bad at languages, but because of a lack of teaching staff the groups have to be the same for the four subjects.

The learners in each group will necessarily be heterogeneous despite the fact that the groups will tend to be as homogeneous concerning their level of learning as possible. Hence, inside each flexible group there will be small remedial groups. The English seminar, composed by three teachers, will have the concern to act producing material for remedial groups or individuals inside the flexible grouping. The teaching staff will specify some guidelines that should be taken into consideration while designing the teaching programme for every year. These guidelines will be extracted from the annual internal or external evaluation summary.

Every student, during or after each credit, will be able to change group according to decisions taken by the teachers involved, the student and the parents.

Apart from the aim of learning to learn the language effectively, teachers must attend diversity and adequate the classroom material, peace and methodology to the needs of the class.

The **methodology** used in the English language classroom will be first of all open and flexible, that is to say, it may change according to the feedback the teacher receives. It will change depending on the students' needs and their results.

The teacher will try to use a Social Constructivist methodology. This methodology, as well as Piaget's Constructivist theories of learning, also takes into account Vygotsky's and Feurstein's Social Interactionism as well as Erikson's Maslow's and Rogers' Humanism. According to all these scholars, social constructivism can be at the base of the Communicative Approach; whose slogan is: "language is learned through its use".

Social Interactionism adds the social dimension to the Constructivist Theories, as learning is constructed through interaction in a social context. On the other hand, the humanistic aspect adds the facet of human beings' holistic development.

Dealing with errors: the teacher will note errors and then correct them at a time when doing so does not interfere with communication. Errors will not simply be corrected but also analysed and explained at an appropriate time.

4.3.1. The topics

Bearing in mind recent research, motivation is the first factor of success (see also point 2.1.4), so taking into account the students' interests and their age, contents will be presented in different interdisciplinary topics combining social issues and very modern and fashionable subjects for teenagers such as body fashion, adventure sports, scary films, peer pressure, etc. If students are motivated they will be engaged and if they are engaged they will be interested in understanding and making themselves understood in the foreign language.

4.3.1.1. The cross-curricular themes

Through the different units and along the diverse issues, the teacher should work with some transversal topics which are extremely important nowadays.

- **Moral and civic education**: the teacher should make clear the rules of the classroom as well as the rules of any game. Moreover, the students are active beings who have to reflect upon important topics of their everyday life such as the music they listen to, the computer games they play with, etc.

- **Equal opportunity education**: Students have to listen to and try to understand each others' (boys and girls, natives or immigrants) opinions. The culture and habits of the English speaking people are studied to understand better their own habits and to respect others too (see point 2.1.3).

- **Consumer education**: The teacher should try, through different projects, to make students see critically the advertisements on TV, on the radio, on web pages, etc. (See point 2.4).

- **Health education**: Some of the most serious health problems nowadays among students of ESO are problems related to food (anorexia, bulimia). The teacher, through the topics dealt with in the foreign language classroom, should explain or make students infer the healthy habits any teenager should follow.

- **Environmental education**: Nearly every day a natural disaster occurs in any part of the world, and most of them happen because of human beings. Thus, students are encouraged to think and reflect upon the causes and possible consequences of this phenomenon.

- **Education for peace**: Through the use of different sources of information, students work to value how dialogues help to avoid conflicts and how their emotional intelligence (see point 2.2.1.2) can help them to be coherent with themselves and with others; that is to say, to be a good citizen. As stated before, this transversal topic is extremely important in this school as it is the base for a global school project (see point 4.2.1).

4.3.2. The activities, tasks and projects

In this syllabus design I refer to activity as a very concrete exercise while a task is the addition of different activities to reach a common aim. Moreover, there is even another term to be clarified: project. It is a group of different activities and tasks to be accomplished to attain a final product (González Davies 2004: 22).

Concerning activities, there will be a mixture of activities to be able to reach the needs and interests of most of the students in the class and motivate them.

There will be different types of activities: warming up, development, consolidation, strengthening and extension (see appendix 1). These types of activities will go from graded to free according to the students possibilities. Introductory or warming up activities are very useful to motivate students and create expectation to start a lesson. Development activities are the ones used to build up the contents of a unit. Consolidation activities can be the general activities to consolidate the contents already worked. Strengthening activities are those to help slow students; and on the contrary, extension activities are the ones to encourage fast students to go even further in their study.

After each unit students are encouraged to deal with different kinds of projects to try to put what they have learned into practice. Some of these projects will deal with videos students watch or songs they listen to; others are about theatre plays they will have to prepare, learn and/or perform; others are related to computers technology (e.g. *webquests*), and even others are about hand crafts students create.

The diversity of activities, tasks and projects employed makes it possible for many students to find something that suits their learning style. Due to a variety of opportunities to access the same content, the students will be encouraged to learn. A regular follow-up, though, will be needed (see point 4.5).

4.3.3. Sequencing Criteria

Obviously, the teacher has to take into account the previous knowledge of the students and from that point (s)he will try to amplify or improve it.

Sequencing:

1. All units will begin with warming up activities to interest students and try to involve them in the topic. An initial evaluation will also be needed to identify what learners already know.

2. The students will receive input (*readings* or *listenings* together with images, music or real life items) with the content the teacher wants them to learn. Obviously, vocabulary and grammar will play an imperative part. Memorisation is a useful tool students have in order to learn new language. The situations

created to put the content across should be easy to remember; in this way students can relate them with the vocabulary or grammar learned.

3. Learners will have to deduce first the meaning of new words and then the content put across.

4. Some general and then more specific activities (before, during and after the reading or listening) can be formulated to check comprehension.

5. Vocabulary will be explored: coordinating (adding terms), subordinating (classifying), or associating images to words; through the use of synonyms, antonyms or the students' L1.

6. The different sections and tasks will be dealt with through the point of view of the different areas and in an intercultural way (as more and more immigrant students are nowadays coming into our classes to share their knowledge with us and to obtain a positive learning experience).

7. Once the vocabulary has been studied in different motivating ways –and as graded as possible–, the teacher will encourage the students to produce and to use the specific vocabulary in context. The vocabulary will be constantly revised.

8. Pronunciation is another factor on which a lot of emphasis should be set, so listening and pronunciation tasks should be encouraged.

9. Grammar is put across gradually and through different sources. Students would have to deduce the rules through different exposures to the grammar points being studied.

10. Writing is a summative skill where the teacher will check the written communication abilities of every student and remedial work will be planned.

11. The teacher will try implicitly or explicitly to make clear some of the most common studying techniques. In this way, students will be aware of the fact that they can also improve the study of any language autonomously.

4.3.4. Timing

The following calendar of the 2004-2005 academic year, is a broad educational plan for the 3rd and 4th year ESO students.

It represents:

- the start and end of the three practical divisions of the 9 English credits that the students have to do during the fourth year of ESO, that is, the starting and finishing point of the three terms.

- When the synthesis credit will be. Every school or high school organises the synthesis credit in a different way. In La Salle Figueres school this credit lasts a week. The synthesis credit is work on a project that involves all the school subjects and is intended to be a synthesis of what students have learned through the year; it may be achieved handing in a piece of work and/or with an exam.

- When the teacher has planned to finish each unit.

Calendar: 2004-2005 academic year

SEPTEMBER-2004

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
		1	2	3	4	5
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19
20	21	22	23	24	25	26
27	28	29	30			

OCTOBER

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
				1	2	3
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	12	13	14	15	16	17
18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	31

NOVEMBER

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30					

DECEMBER

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
		1	2	3	4	5
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19
20	21	22	23	24	25	26
27	28	29	30	31		

JANUARY-2005

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30
31						

FEBRUARY

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28						

MARCH

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

APRIL

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
				1	2	3
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	12	13	14	15	16	17
18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	

MAY

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
						1
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29
30	31					

JUNE

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
		1	2	3	4	5
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19
20	21	22	23	24	25	26
27	28	29	30			

■ End of the term

■ Synthesis credit

■ End of each unit

The terms will last around three months and the teacher has planned to do three units for every term. The units will last around three to four weeks. In each week there will be three lessons of around 60 minutes each. The activities and tasks will be distributed through these 60 minutes.

4.4. Main participants

4.4.1. Students' role

The students in the third and fourth year of ESO are around 14 to 16 years old (occasionally 17 or 18); they like to learn through play and recreation. Even if their curiosity is difficult to arise, they can have a lot of imagination. They have fully developed the ability to work in groups and, generally, they like it. They are capable of organising and analysing their own learning, however, they do not like to work much, neither in school nor at home. They have to be pushed to do some work. They do not normally like reading (see pages 233-234), and they do not generally like to show their feelings.

Psychologically speaking, adolescents strive to lose their ties with their parents, and their emotions and intellectual capacities increase. This plays an important role in finding one's relationship to oneself, groups and the opposite sex. The adolescents' self-dependence and a sense of responsibility become apparent, along with their mission to contribute to society and find their place in it. Generally, they are in the final stages of developing their deductive reasoning skills (Overton, Yaure & Ward 1986).

Pedagogically speaking, it is essential for students to feel confident in their capacity to influence their progress in a subject as demanding as that of learning a new language. This is why every student should be taken as an individual human being, since their learning style and developmental level is different.

As students have different capabilities, they also have different interests and needs. The compulsory schooling, that is to say having to cope with:
- some students who refuse to be educated,
- learners from different origins lacking many resources,

• children who arrive at any moment in time during the academic year, together with

• the existence of a certificate classifying some students as learners with specific educational needs or others as specially gifted learners,

make them very difficult to motivate as a group. This teaching programme is based on the assumption that in everyday secondary classrooms there are students with different learning speeds and degrees of motivation. This fact, together with the difference in the learning styles of every student (see point 1.1.4.12) and their learning abilities (see point 2.2.1), drives the teacher to use different activities or tasks according to the levels. In any case, the learner is an active subject.

For the **students with minor learning difficulties and or behaviour problems**, the adaptations will focus on the learning pace and speed. The more individualized the specific learning methodology for these students, the better results in the consolidation of learning techniques, improvement of procedures, attitudes and habits and learning contents. For learners with serious behavioural difficulties, the teacher will try to accord a contract with: special objectives, requirements, engagement on the part of the student, and a concrete evaluation criterion. The contract would be sealed with the student's, teacher's and parent's signature[10].

Name: ……………………
Unit:
Objectives: **1.**
2.
3.
I will:
If I find a difficulty I will:
The teacher will:
Control: (homework, attitude…)
Evaluation criteria:
Signatures

---

[10] As parents are involved in the education and formation of their children, I think a section starting with "the parents will" should be added to this contract.

For the **students with serious learning difficulties**: for the less able, procedural and behavioural content will be prioritized. The main aim would be social integration when achieving sufficient progress in conceptual content is impossible.

Finally, for the **most talented**, those who are more capable, extension material and adapted objectives and contents will be provided: extra worksheets, extra homework, extra tasks and projects. Also, some useful activities can be established for fast finishers (see appendix 2).

Concerning the group dynamics, one can say that it is essential for the students together with the teacher to be fully implicated in the learning process. Cooperative learning is a key to success. The progression, then, will be effective and satisfying.

As stated before, one of the most important factors in order to learn is motivation (see point 2.1.4). If students are not motivated in any way, they will not learn, and teachers play an important part in motivating students.

4.4.2. Teachers' role

A teacher works to make students work. First of all, the teacher needs to find out about the students' learning styles, abilities and preferences through questionnaires, personal interviews and different kinds of activities and have them in mind while teaching. Then, any teacher should try to motivate students and encourage them to a) be more and more autonomous and b) find out about their personal way to learn. According to this, and to the feedback received through the credit, the teacher will have to adapt the teaching programme, materials and type of activities, tasks and projects. Moreover, there should be a balance between 1. individual and group work; 2. visual and auditory activities; and 3. the skills practised in the different tasks.

The teacher wants to imply the students in their own learning process for them to be able to identify their own strengths and weaknesses. Thus, another teacher's role is: orientating the students. The activities are used to activate the classroom dynamics. The multimedia materials, as well as helping to attend individual learning styles, will be used to connect the students' real-life with their classroom-life and can be used either in school or at home.

Other teacher's roles are:

1. trying to make students achieve an ability to communicate opinions and values,

2. raising their self-awareness and, consequently,

3. making them realise the world diversity of languages and cultures, and

4. helping them respect these cultures, comparing them with their own culture.

Summing up, the teacher, in general, will be in charge of supervising and maintaining discipline sometimes and will circulate to monitor and guide work other times. In conclusion, (s)he will have to adopt the roles of: supervisor, facilitator and mediator. Teachers should help every individual student to learn how to learn.

In conclusion, educating and instructing are not easy jobs, but if all the concerned parties act together, success is nearly guaranteed.

4.4.3. Parents' and guardians' role

Even though the teacher-researcher will use "parents" through this section to refer to both, she has included "guardians" in the title, because in the La Salle Figueres school there are quite a few students who come from a centre for children who cannot live with their parents for some reason, and these children are appointed a guardian who takes care of them.

Parents are encouraged to collaborate with the centre and specifically with teachers, in projects, trips, etc.

There are different individual or group meetings during the academic year not only with tutors but also with all the other teachers to discuss about the progress of every student in particular and of the group class in general.

Learners will have a diary where parents and teachers can communicate with each other concerning the progression of the student's conceptual, procedural and attitudinal contents.

4.5. Evaluation criteria, instruments and remedial work

The Common European Framework distinguishes between "assessment" and "evaluation". "Evaluation" is used to refer to the level of effectiveness of particular methods, materials, activities and/or performances. While "assessment" is used to refer to the level achieved in the objectives set by a specific year; that is the proficiency of the language user. Thus, assessment as well as evaluation would be important tools to take into consideration while planning the classroom syllabus.

4.5.1. Who? Who evaluates or assesses?

Teachers as well as **students** should be constantly evaluated either by themselves (self-evaluation) or by their peers. Students ought to be evaluated by their teacher and the teacher by their students (see also point 4.5.4). Feedback is essential for any teacher to change or improve his/her performance and for students to improve their learning.

4.5.2. What? What is evaluated or assessed?

The **teacher's performance**: how does (s)he teach? His/her capacity to attend diversity. Whether mutual respect is a norm in the classroom.
The **students' knowledge** or level of acquisition of a) aims; or b) procedural, conceptual and attitudinal contents. This is based on an assessment criterion stated again by the European Framework (see pages 193-198).

Going on with what should be evaluated, I think that, apart from the teaching performance and the students' knowledge, there are many other things to be assessed:

The student's motivation: how and why is the student motivated? This is closely related to the students' attitude in the classroom and to the students' performance (sees also point 2.1.4). How do students act in front of a specific task? How do they react in front of an individual or group work? Do they accept feedback from the teacher or from other students? All the answers to these questions may provide teachers with enough data to react.

The methodology: it is important for teachers and students to get feedback to redirect their way of teaching, that is to say, the methodology being used in the classroom, or their way of learning.

The classroom: light, temperature, atmosphere, classroom design, furniture distribution, etc. should also be evaluated in order to adapt them (whenever possible) to the group of students being taught (see point 2.1.1).

The material: to know whether the material used for the programmed activities, tasks and projects is the appropriate one would be of utmost importance. If there is enough variety to engage every student, the resources may be adequate (see point 2.4).

The activities: if they are appropriate to make students learn and practice, and whether they interest and motivate them.

The topics. Are they interesting enough? Are they fashionable enough? Do we deal with them critically? Positive criticism helps (see point 2.4), while dealing with society issues, as much as critical friendship does, while dealing with peers (see also point 2.4).

4.5.3. When? When should evaluation or assessment take place?

There are three types of evaluation or assessment concerning time:

Initial

Following the line started already in the first cycle of ESO, there is, at the beginning of each year an oral and/or written diagnostic test to make clear what students know or what they do not know. Apart from this, the teacher will give learners at the beginning of each lesson a type of initial evaluation to learn about a) their level concerning the topic which will be dealt in the unit and b) their knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar they are going to study. This kind of initial evaluation is also useful to correctly place the late-coming students in one of the four level groups. Once in their level group, students can evaluate their objectives from 1 to 5 depending on their knowledge related to particular topics and contents (see appendix 1). In all these tests there is extra space for students to suggest their own ideas.

Formative

The student should know how his/her learning improves and what can be done in order to progress. The teacher ought to know 1. whether students are making the most of the lesson, 2. the usefulness of the material they are working with and 3. the appropriateness of his/her teaching. Students will give feedback to the teacher through individual interviews or group discussions in order for him/her to decide whether to change the method or material used in class or not.

The students either take a multiple choice test or they write their own impressions freely. Mind maps given to complete throughout the lesson are also very useful as another type of evaluation. The teacher can use self-assessment with him/herself to really know his/her opinion, and with the students in order for them to get more and more engaged with their own learning (see also appendix 1). This type of evaluation should be done when the teacher or maybe the students consider it necessary or convenient: during the tasks, units, credits, etc.

The European Language Portfolio (see appendix 1.1), designed to encourage the lifelong learning of languages, to make the learning process more transparent and to promote plurilingualism and intercultural learning, proposes to keep record of some of the students' language learning (inside or outside school) to document relevant intercultural experiences or to witness their achievements; and this is, again, another type of formative evaluation.

Summative

Through tasks, projects and exams, the teacher will obtain more results at the end of a lesson/credit. Subjective assessment is more frequently used than objective assessment (indirect tests in which the items have only one right answer). The evaluative exams, tasks or projects are closely related to the teaching-learning tasks used in the classroom, and they value the four skills as during the unit or credit all the skills will have to be exploited. Both types of assessment should be used in order to effectively evaluate every student, always according to their own initial level.

There is another evaluation classification. During speaking, writing and listening group-tasks, one can use direct assessment which assesses what the learners are actually doing. The indirect assessment uses a test to assess the basic skills.

Summing up, evaluation should be used a) to know about the degree of knowledge of the objectives and contents and b) to reshape learning and teaching accordingly.

4.5.4. How? How do teaching staff and students evaluate or assess?

Evaluation should be done individually and in groups, that means: teacher-student, student-teacher, teacher-teacher, students-students, and student-student, students-student.

There are different means of evaluating through: tests, exams, ordinary-classroom or computer-classroom tasks, interviews, whole-class discussion, individual work or group work, etc.

4.5.5. Promotion criteria.

According to the Spanish Educational laws from the 2004-2005 academic year, students can pass from one year to the next if they do not fail any subject or if they only fail one or two subjects. If the learner fails 3 subjects belonging to the main areas (Catalan, Spanish or maths) students will have to repeat the year. In other cases, the teachers will decide whether it is convenient for them to repeat the year or not. Finally, if students fail four or more subjects, the child will have to repeat. Together with this criterion, the basic competencies already listed (see point 4.1.2.1) will help the teachers to promote students, again, bearing in mind individual advancement.

Summing up, the teacher will try to use as many different types of evaluation to obtain as much information as possible: 1. initially, to know more about the learners; 2. during the term, to be able to change the teaching material and methodologies if needed; and 3. at the end, to change the teacher's approach and material for the next year and to give students their deserved mark.

In conclusion, despite the fact that English is nowadays considered essential for the pupils' future, the secondary students' willingness to learn a new language and a new culture is minimised by the fact that we are living in a welfare society with

sufficient resources to translate English films, games, cartoons, web pages, instructions, soap operas, etc.

English teachers however will go on struggling to make their subject teaching as pleasant, engaging and enjoyable as possible searching for different methods, approaches and resources to help students learn.

5. Research design: action-research

The investigation process used in this thesis is a combination of quantitative as well as qualitative methods, oriented towards knowledge extension. Hence, this research does not only focus on positivist or interpretative investigation paradigms.

According to Arnal (Arnal, Rincón & Latorre 1996) there are three investigation paradigms:

• **positivist**, concerned basically with explaining the relationship between cause and effect,

• **interpretative**, interested in understanding and interpreting reality,

• **sociocritic**, engaged in social changes, using the binomial: practice-reflection.

This last paradigm is the most appropriate to apply to this research, since what is intended through a hypothesis testing course of action is to reflect on a new possible teaching approach: ADA (Affectivity and Diversity Approach).

Any type of research, including educational research, should be systematic and scientific. There are two types of scientific methodologies (Wiersma 1986: 13) to conduct a good research:

• **Basic research.** Its objective is to prove the theoretical relationship among variables.

• **Applied research.** Tries to explore and solve immediate and practical problems.

One type of applied research is **action-research**. According to Kemmins and McTaggart (1990: 5) action-research is:

a form of collective self-reflective inquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own social or educational practices, as well as their understanding of these practices and the situations in which these practices are carried out.

In this definition one can find a mixture of what this dissertation intends to encourage: knowledge acquisition improvement, participant's autonomy as well as collaborative skills, motivation and social change.

To attain all these principles, the teacher-researcher has gone through a four phase cycle:
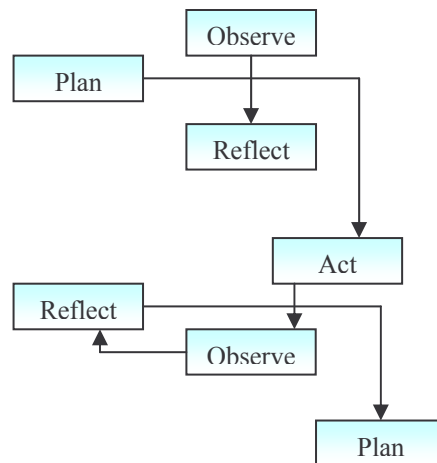
(Kemmis & McTaggart 1990)

As one can deduce from the above image, action-research is flexible and adaptable, two essential qualities exploited all through the research process. For example, many things have been changed (tasks, speed, etc.) during the application of the investigation practice to adapt the approach to the current learners.

There are many types of action-research. In this thesis, educational action-research has been chosen for obvious reasons:

Educational action-research is a term used to describe a family of activities in curriculum development, professional development, school improvement

programmes, and systems planning and policy development. These activities have in common the identification of strategies of planned action which are implemented, and then systematically submitted to observation, reflection and change. Participants in the action being considered are intricately involved with all of these activities. (S.S.A.A. 1981: 159)

As stated by Sagor (2000), many teachers attempt to improve teaching considering ideas or hypotheses that they might investigate. When they focus on the use of a new idea the research becomes a quasi-experimental study of the adequacy of that idea. Since the nature of teaching is dynamic and ever changing, this is the most common form of educational action-research.

Therefore, we have to talk about quasi-experimental and not about experimental research, because very often, in educational research, it is "simply not possible for investigators to undertake true experiments" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 1996: 168). For example, in schools, experimental or control groups do not tend to be equated by randomization.

In the research study carried out for this dissertation, the classes were formed on the basis of ability grouping (see point 4.3). In one class there were high ability students (group 4.1) and in the other there were high to average ability students (group 4.2). If the groups receive different experimental treatment and there is an effect favouring the high-ability class, it is complicated to argue that this effect is the result of the experimental treatment. Thus, a pre- and post-test have been used to measure the improvement of each group separately without comparing their results. But, even so, the high-ability group could have improved anyway. Therefore, the extrapolation of results should be made really carefully.

Summing up, the research in this dissertation is:

```
                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │      This       │
                    │    Research     │
                    │      is:        │
                    └─────────────────┘
          ┌──────────────────┼──────────────────┐
┌─────────────────┐ ┌─────────────────┐ ┌─────────────────┐
│ Quasi-experimental │ │   Educational   │ │  Action-research │
│ (The nature of teaching is │ │ (It is set in a school to improve │ │ (It is a self-reflective enquiry to │
│ dynamic and groups are not │ │ the teaching-learning practice) │ │ improve own practices in a │
│ equated by randomization) │ │                 │ │ social situation) │
└─────────────────┘ └─────────────────┘ └─────────────────┘
```
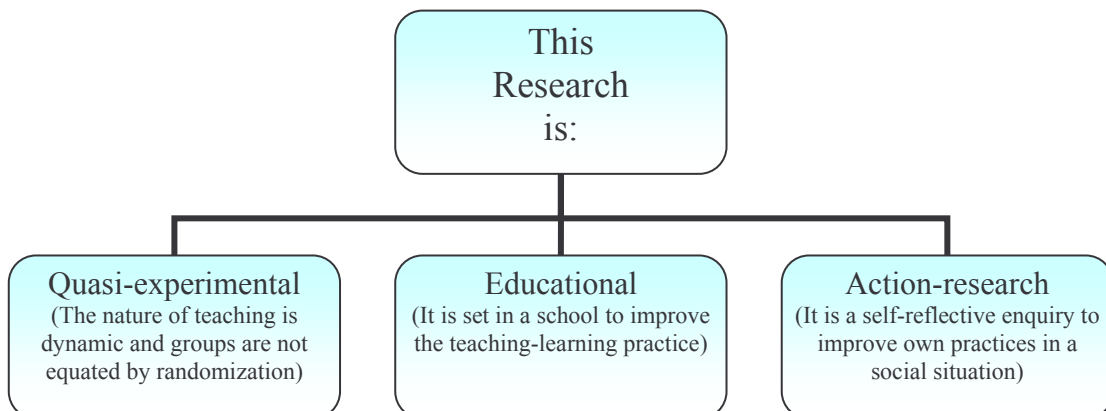
This research is inspired by a social issue. Despite the fact that in secondary schools pupils study English at least three hours a week, their proficiency level is, in general, far from being satisfactory, according to Consell Superior d'Avaluació del Sistema Educatiu (S.S.A.A. 2005).

Before starting this dissertation, this situation had been investigated in the first and second cycle of La Salle Figueres school, as the students' scores were not as good as expected. The conclusions the English teachers reached were:

- Most students were not especially interested in learning English or in the tasks or projects proposed by the course book and/or the teacher.
- Generally speaking, the learners did not have respect for others.
- The students' attitude towards other cultures was mainly based on stereotypes and facile concepts.
- Their general linguistic accuracy in English was low.

These problems were made obvious through the students' attitude towards learning. A kind of dissatisfaction was perceived at some stage in individual interviews, classroom debates and/or formative evaluations. Another helpful source of information was the internal evaluation (inner school exam to value the general English level of every student, see appendix 3). By means of this exam, one could notice some of the students' poor level of reading accuracy, for example.

After a period of time reflecting, thinking and debating with other English teachers about the main points written above, the research started with an investigation on how to:

a) motivate students,

b) improve their reading accuracy and

c) make learners aware of the importance of the self and of the other, that is to say, of difference.

Motivation was chosen to try to improve the students' attitude towards English language learning and, consequently, their language proficiency.

Why was reading accuracy chosen? Because before producing a relevant output, the English teachers agreed on the fact that learners have to have a certain degree of

understanding. Finally; why not oral input? Because written input can be revised as many times as needed; so it can be much easier to work with.

Concerning the statement about making learners aware of the importance of the self and of the other, the teacher-researcher focussed on the Anglo-Saxon culture as a means of increasing the students' knowledge of the culture surrounding the language object of study, and at the same time making them aware that difference enriches.

As these topics were so wide, three specific empirical hypotheses were designed (see point 5.1.3). The investigation that intended to be cyclical, was at the beginning, carried out not for extrinsic purposes but for intrinsic reasons, that is to say, for the teacher's own professional development.

After a lot of reading, Gardner's, Salovey and Mayer's and Bandler and Grinder's ideas introduced a new perspective on the teacher-researcher professional and psychological background knowledge, which led to the design of the teacher-researcher own teaching model: ADA (see point 2.4).

The research study tries to show that the suggested affectivity and diversity approach is useful to verify the hypotheses formulated (see point 5.1.3). This can be proved by means of a data collection (see point 5.1.4), data analysis (see point 5.1.5) and an interpretation process (see point 5.1.5).

5.1. Design of the study

The pilot study was carried out during the academic year 2003-2004 and the actual research was carried out during the academic year 2004-2005 at the La Salle Figueres school with 15 to 16 year old students. The main aim was to observe and analyse the improvement of the students' a) reading accuracy b) motivation and c) awareness of different cultures when they had used translation in the English classroom, and the teacher-researcher had had in mind the students' individual learning styles while planning the lessons.

The theoretical framework draws from studies on:

- translation studies (see point 3.3),
- reading accuracy (see point 3.6.4),
- Neuro-Linguistic Programming (see point 1.1.4.12),

- multiculturality (see point 2.1.3),

- Multiple Intelligences (see point 2.2.1), and

- motivation (see point 2.1.4).

The research involved some main issues, all related to the aforementioned studies:

a. Awareness of the usefulness of translation (far from the grammar-translation approach).

b. Acquisition of reading comprehension skills.

c. Consciousness of the preferred representational system (NLP).

d. Knowledge of different cultures.

e. Awareness of the different individual intelligences (MI).

f. Achievement of motivation skills.

Issue a (awareness of the usefulness of translation) is extremely significant according to the teacher-researcher because most secondary school students use translation a lot, to understand the meaning of words, paragraphs and even texts. Hence, learning to use translation in a communicative way is important to avoid misuses.

Item b (acquisition of reading comprehension skills) is one of the main skills the Department of Education wants the students to develop during secondary education in the foreign language field (see also point 4.5.2). The more input students receive, the better. Students gradually realise they can understand more and more of what is being said; and later, they will be better prepared to produce their own output.

Following the current pedagogical principles where the key tip is to attend diversity, this research actually deals with this standard through features c (awareness of the different individual intelligences), d (knowledge of different cultures) and e (consciousness of the preferred representational system). These points handle individuality both through self-knowledge and knowledge of others.

Finally, issue f (achievement of motivation skills) is a crucial point for the past, present and future learning of any subject. Yet again, to learn something, a certain degree of motivation is required.

ADA addresses most of the matters quoted above. The teacher-researcher wants to be able to reach some of the students' interests and needs. So, the approach exploited in this educational action-research is, above all, open and flexible enough to be adapted

to the year students. How can an approach be adapted to the year students? First of all, the teacher-researcher tries to improve the students' self-knowledge so that they know themselves better, and to encourage communication with others. All the way throughout a communication act one expresses meaning, which is conveyed to oneself or others in a particular context. The teacher-researcher fosters self-communication and communication with other people, as they are useful tools to improve self-understanding as well as an understanding of others. By observing this process and its outcomes, the teacher-researcher first reacts and then shapes the approach used.

This study is based on a triangular arrangement: pupils, approach and teacher-researcher. These three elements, and others related interact in this action-research.
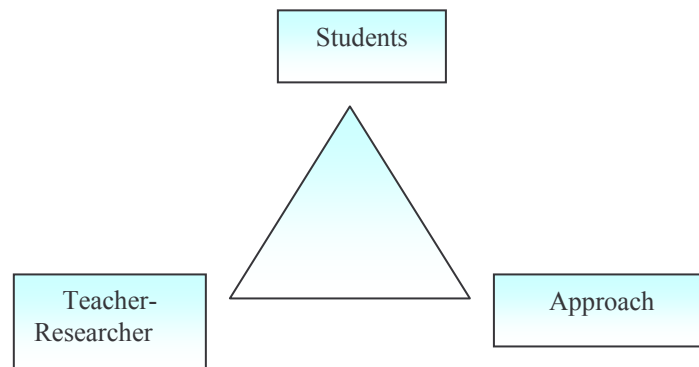
5.1.1. Participants

The teacher-researcher, the students as well as other teaching community members and parents are all direct or indirect participants in this research study.

Students

The students participating in this action-research are generally learners with a middle-class socioeconomic level. Nevertheless, 5,8% come from a better socioeconomic environment and 25% come from a lower class level. They mostly (69%) come from the area where the school is situated. Some of the students' parents have higher studies and most of the students' parents work in the 3rd sector as commercials. This data was gathered from the statistics given in the Evaluación del Servicio Educativo (see appendix 4).

The students coming from minority ethnic groups represent a 9,6% of the total number of students. They are mostly South-Americans or Europeans and there is a small presence of pupils from Africa, mainly due to the fact that the school tries to educate under the Christian religion.

The students in the 4th year of ESO have been studying English for 6 or 7 years. As has been already stated, in the school, the teaching staff of the main areas (maths and languages) classifies learners in quite "homogeneous" groups (according to the previous year marks, their attitude towards learning and the previous teachers' opinions on their general aptitude) (see point 4.3).

As stated before, the students' state of mind is very important to learn, as pupils should have, apart from the predisposition to learn, a good self-concept to be convinced they are able to learn (see point 2.4). When learners lack this positive self-concept, it is difficult to make them become interested in something. At the same time, students should also have a positive attitude towards the tasks, the techniques used in the classroom, as well as towards the teacher and the other classmates. Students are individuals who learn cooperatively in interaction with others.

Pilot group

Before starting the action-research with the experimental group, it was applied to a pilot group of learners, during the academic year 2003-2004. These learners had similar characteristics to those of the actual study. They accomplished all the activities, tasks and projects designed, successfully. The data collected from the pilot group served as a starting point for this research and was very useful to pinpoint the strengths and weaknesses of the action-research project so as to improve the final study explained in this dissertation. Thanks to the pilot study the teacher-researcher changed the format of many different tasks and projects, and the contents of several activities were improved.

In the course of the application of the research to the pilot group, the teacher-researcher realised that multiculturality was not taken too much into account and that some of the already planned activities could be the starting point for a cultural exchange.

The learners in the pilot group were quite easy-to-read. They expressed their satisfaction or dissatisfaction after finishing the tasks either individually or in front of the group class. If they really liked an activity, they even clapped their hands at the end of the task. Some classroom debates about the approach used also showed the group in

general was happy and pleased to do extra tasks to try to foster their mind and progress in their English proficiency.

The pilot study was really successful, according to both the teacher-researcher and the students, who gave their opinions through classroom debates, individual interviews and written comment. Students were motivated and they went to class expecting new and interesting activities to take place "Què farem avui?" was one of their everyday questions.

Summing up, and as stated before, this pilot group was very useful. Through the previous application of tasks, the teacher-researcher noticed some drawbacks and improved many things in order to enhance the final action-research.

Experimental group

The experimental group varied in number along the school year –between 26 and 29 students– owing to learners' work, behaviour or marks. In this group there was just one late coming student. All the learners in the experimental group had at least a computer at home and half of them spent more than an hour and a half a day using it. They all thought computers were useful and enjoyable. 69% of the individuals of this study group did not like reading, and only 21% stated that they read more than 2 books, (apart from the school compulsory books), during the year. 6% of the students were from other nationalities. (This data, among other, is collected every academic year by the students' tutors.)

89% of the subjects of this study declared that English was important for many things, but that they did not feel motivated to learn through books. All the population in the experimental group recognised they did not use English very often outside the classroom setting despite the fact that they could have the possibility to watch DVDs in English or TV films and serials in their original version, for example. Nonetheless, they admitted they used English in some of the computer games they played with, or sometimes in the Net. They also acknowledged they had never had a pen pal neither English nor from other countries. In this group, 4 students had been in an English speaking country. Apart from the three weekly hours none of these students was doing variable credits in English (the La Salle school does not offer nowadays any variable credit in English) and no one attended the English extra school activity (offered by the La Salle school AMPA –pupils' parents' association). Still, 86% of the students went to

English classes outside school. (This information is gathered every academic year by the English teacher.)

Control group

The control group, similar to the experimental group, varied also in number -between 18 and 23 students. One may wonder why the number of students in the experimental group and in the control group is so different. It is because the higher the level of the students, the more quantity of learners a class has. According to the psycho-pedagogue of the school, this is the way flexible grouping should work. These two groups were not modified in any way for the purposes of this study, thus, making it totally realistic and reflecting the every day circumstances in which teachers work. This makes the study generalisable to other situations to a certain degree.

From this group, most of the learners had computers at home (only two did not have any). 87% of the students did not like reading and only 4% stated that they read more than 2 books (apart from the two school compulsory books). Concerning nationality, 9% of the students were from a non-Spanish nationality. (Again, this information is gathered every academic year by the students' tutor.)

The students in the control group admitted that they did not normally use English out of the classroom setting, and though they all considered English was an important subject, they were not very motivated to study it. 1 student had been to an English speaking country before. (Again, this data is collected every year by the English teacher.)

The control group was cohesive and whenever needed, they acted as a whole. Differently from the learners in the experimental group who were pretty individualistic, but grouped themselves in rival groups. Teachers in general were more pleased to teach them than to teach the experimental group, as many students in the experimental group were fairly "arrogant" (according to some teachers' comments).

An important consideration is that neither the experimental group nor the control group had received any previous specific training on translation, NLP or MI.

Teacher-researcher

This research was carried out by one teacher, the researcher. Though she proposed other teachers to work together, a lot of work had to be done and they declared they would maybe participate in future research. The director, the head of studies, the

head of department and all the other members of the teaching staff knew about the research as its purposes had been explained during one of our weekly meetings. Some teachers were not very fond of involving "their" students in an investigation, but it is also true that others liked the idea of doing anything to improve the teaching-learning practice; they even asked to be kept informed. Teachers were informed of the evolution of the action-research all through the academic year 2004-2005 during some of the weekly meetings.

In the classroom setting, the teacher-researcher, throughout the different tasks, tried to be a facilitator of communicative situations and processes, as well as an orientator and a counsellor. During all the credit, the students' needs were analysed and a lot of work was done to meet them.

The teacher was, apart from an educator, a learner. Every new group of students instructed the teacher on the behaviour, attitude, tasks and teaching approach to be used. In every lesson, the teacher-researcher tried to look for the "teachable moment" –when students are ready to learn because their interest is high. The teacher-researcher acted with the kind of leadership needed to help students to go in the most convenient direction for them to go. Not imposing, but suggesting and being as respectful as possible with others was a must, so the teacher when needed acted also as a mediator.

The teacher-researcher was also responsible for creating a good learning atmosphere and maintaining students' enthusiasm and motivation for learning. That is why the activities proposed were varied and interesting for the students and the approach used was considerate with individuals. Raising students' self-awareness also helped to improve the learning atmosphere.

The teacher-researcher also took care of the classrooms' physical appearance and organisation. She tried to hang up on the classroom walls as much visual material as possible to make the classroom welcoming. But the main aim of the teacher-researcher was to have clear ideas on what, how and why to teach and to evaluate.

Parents

Parents were informed from time to time on what was going on in the English class. The information was transmitted through a) the school informative sheets (full informatiu), b) the school magazine (see appendix 5), c) meetings and d) interviews.

The approach used entailed different reactions. While some parents were pleased and wanted to be kept informed of the educational research evolution, others did not

like the idea that the teacher "experimented" with their sons or daughters, according to some interviews they held with tutors.

5.1.2. Approach

The approach proposed in this dissertation has been designed to favour two types of communication: self-communication and communication with others. When students see that they are able to learn, and that the language they learn is useful to interact with others, they are encouraged to learn more and that means their language learning is stimulated. All language teachers try to make students perceive the language object of study as a functional vehicle. Speech acts generate interaction and establish relationships. In order to create a good rapport with others one should know the functions, the culture and the social milieu of a given language. The context of every speech act is crucial. Language is a social process.

As learning is a social activity, in order to learn meaningfully, students have to be involved affectively with the other students as well as with the teacher. That is why a comfortable and distended atmosphere is desirable. In this action-research, the teacher-researcher tried to balance discipline and relaxation. Yet again, the students in the pilot and control groups were clusters, so the relationship among them was extraordinary. The students in the experimental group were subdivided into different groups; therefore, their relationship was far from being appropriate as they did not apply the critical friendship concept in a positive way. Different resources were used to try to mitigate the effect of the experimental group students' disunity.

Resources

To complement the approach proposed, the teacher-researcher used many types of resources:

- Human resources (other secondary school teachers such as the first cycle English teacher or the technology teacher responsible for the computer room and for the computer projector).
- Space resources (ordinary classroom, computer room, English classroom, theatre and library).

• Material resources (books, notebooks, workbooks, video books, cardboards, posters, photocopies, magazines, newspapers and *realia* in general), among them, the media resources (such as the T.V., CDs, DVDs or computers).

Human resources

A research of these characteristics cannot be carried out in isolation. One of its components is the human network required to make things go as smoothly as possible.

The English teacher in the first cycle of ESO was really helpful to check many different things such as students' abilities, attitudes, interests, etc. She was also a good counsellor whenever needed. The Primary English teacher was also of help in the middle of the process when a meeting was held to try to agree on how to improve reading accuracy.

The technology teacher responsible for the computer room was a key person to be able to use the computer room in proper conditions. The teacher responsible for the La Salle web page was also of utmost importance because many problems arose during the days the internet was used with the experimental or control group and he solved them. I am grateful to them all for their cooperation and support.

Space resources

The classroom setting changed frequently according to the activities, tasks or projects carried out. The English lessons were held in different places in the school. It all depended upon the daily tasks and the disposition of the material spaces.

The students' own **flexible grouping classroom** was where both the experimental and control group felt most under pressure because all the other areas where mainly taught in that room and it was considered the "formal classroom". The room was quite dim because of the wall painting, the floor tiles and the desks colour. On the walls there were very big notice boards and, although they were decorated by the students, the classroom was not visually attractive. When in that room, the teacher-researcher was more worried about the students' behaviour and she felt she was more under the head of studies control. The students also felt their behaviour had to be more formal in order not to disturb the other next door classroom mates. Consequently, the atmosphere in that classroom was more tense.

In the **English classroom**, feelings were quite different. Students felt more relaxed, more at ease. There was a lot of visual material, that is to say: posters, flags,

maps, flash-cards, etc. It was used, above all to carry out different projects. However, some learners' behaviour was rarely appropriate in that room. The experimental group was in general very talkative; subsequently, the noise the pupils produced was fairly high. When in the English classroom, this did not worry the participants, as there was normally no one in the ground area where the classroom is placed. Students in this classroom felt more unbound to commit disrespects in particular towards their classmates.

The **computer room** was the most successful room, as most of the projects carried out there worked really well. The only drawback was that going to the computer room was really stressful for the teacher, as she was required by more than one student at a time. Apart from that, she had to watch out because pupils liked *Messenger* a lot (a live computer communication programme, which is impossible for the teacher to control) and, whenever they had some spare time, they tried to use it without the teacher's permission. Moreover, she had to explain to the students what was expected from them before the learners had the computer screens switched on in front of them, as, then, their attention diminished considerably. One could tell that learners enjoyed themselves a lot while being in the computer room. The atmosphere there for the students was relaxed, but for the teacher-researcher it was, again, stressful.

The **theatre**, which is impressive, was just used occasionally to represent theatre plays or to see films with the computer projector. Most of the students liked the theatre. They felt really important when they had to perform on the stage, for example. There, the atmosphere was tenser for the students than for the teacher-researcher, who only had to maintain discipline.

The **library** was also another space used to do some projects as the arrangement of the tables and chairs was really appropriate to work in groups, or read. The library atmosphere was relaxed for the students as well as for the teacher-researcher.

The teacher-researcher tried to use the **gym** several times to do some activities involving movement, but it was not possible due to the fact that the PE teachers needed it.

Summing up, the classroom setting changed significantly depending on the classroom used for each lesson, or on the project carried out. In general, the students in the experimental group were more talkative and uneasy than those of the control group. Nonetheless, my perception was that the experimental group benefited more from the

English lessons than the control group; it was maybe because of their willingness to improve.

Material resources

The material resources used depended upon each participating group and the sequencing of the tasks designed. But most of the material resources mentioned in point 4.2.2.3 were used at one moment or another.

Regarding the activities, tasks and projects carried out by the control as well as by the experimental group, they were enjoyable and adequate for the students to build up on previous knowledge.

- **General common activities: control group**

During the first days, students in the control group were told what would be evaluated as concepts, procedures and attitude in the English subject during the "credit". Some activities to introduce the subject, themselves and the teacher were held in the class. Then, learners completed an initial evaluation worksheet. The pupils in the control group were not informed that they were part of a research study.

During the second session, the students in the control group did the reading accuracy pre-test and Anglo-Saxon culture pre-test. It took them about half an hour.

With the control group the teacher-researcher followed the course book *Oxford Exchange 4*. Besides, some extra tasks or projects from Case (1994) and other photocopiable material books were used. Different pages on the internet such as: http://www.better-english.com, http://www.xtec.net, http://www.englishday.com, http://www.etanewsletter.com, http://www.peakenglish.com were also helpful to complement the lessons. *Right Now* videos as well as DVD films, Power Point presentations or graded readers were also used to plan the units. After each unit, students carried out different projects to check their general English proficiency. And at the end of the academic year, during the last session, students had to complete the two post-tests.

- **Specific activities: experimental group**

The first day of class, learners were given the guidelines of the subject. Students were informed that they would be part of a research study. After some activities to

introduce the subject, the teacher and to know their classmates better, the learners completed the initial evaluation worksheet.

During the following session, students were told about Multiple Intelligences and Neuro-Linguistic Programming before starting to complete the MI, VAK and VAKOG questionnaires, which lasted from 20 to 30 minutes (these two questionnaires could also be carried out on the http://www.xtec.net/˜cmallol3 web page, but the teacher-researcher needed to keep the resulting information in order to analyse it). The translation survey lasted from 10 to 15 minutes, and it was completed in the following lesson together with the two pre-tests (accuracy and culture).

This action-research was guided by a main corpus of tasks and projects that the teacher-researcher prepared for the occasion (see appendix 33). They all try to observe ADA mixing, among other things, a consideration for MI and a predisposition for NLP assumptions to be able to engage every student.

All the tasks proposed are a conglomerate of different activities drawn from many different sources: course books, activity books, Internet, courses. Some of them also come from the investigator's own creativity. In all tasks, there is at least a translation activity. Translation played an important role in most of the tasks as an activity, not isolated, but in harmony with the rest of the task. The translation activities planned entail a communicative development of the activity as they are the point of departure of something else; of course, they are far from the grammar-translation approach.

In translation activities, a very specific type of learning activity, what is important is to transmit the message the translator thinks the original author wants to transmit. However, this is always conditioned by the real or imaginary client of the translation. A translator or any other writer, as well as speaker, will always leave his/her conscious or unconscious printings in his/her texts. All products are interpretations of contextual ideas. While dealing with translations in the English classroom, the teacher-researcher monitored the process her pupils went through as well as the products her students attained. Both process and product are key elements to take into consideration when analysing translation.

When translating, the steps the teacher-researcher made the students follow were:

1. Reading the whole text first, as reading comprehension is a basic prerequisite for translation to take place.

2. Understanding the text to be translated. This was achieved throughout either an implicit or explicit analyses of: a) the original author's intention and b) its context, that is to say the culture, and the norms the text is inscribed in; c) the communicative functions as well as d) the textual information of the pieces of work. This understanding involved at least the reading accuracy and the multiculturality hypotheses (see point 5.1.3).

3. Deciding whether to exoticise or to carry out a cultural transplantation of a text. Students decided whether they wanted to write naturally in the target language and give the target reader an adapted version of the text, or if they wanted to leave a foreign flavour in the target text. Multiculturality played an important part here.

4. Decoding the text according to the signs used and according to their previous world knowledge. Reading accuracy was one of its bases in this case.

5. Encoding the text, again bearing in mind the target text culture and society and the specific target audience. Students were always given a context, that is to say, addressees, to guide the type of encoding. This issue dealt with multiculturality.

6. Checking whether the intention of the original message had been transmitted into the target language. That is why more often than not the students exchanged their individual or group translations to test out the results. Again, reading accuracy played a central part.

The development of translation activities in the foreign language class tried to make students aware and very conscious of the processes to achieve a suitable translation far from the one-to-one rendering of the source text.

The tasks planned were used during the units. Nevertheless, they were not intended to substitute the course book, but to complement it. Following the course book structure, the first part deals more specifically with vocabulary and then with grammar. The vocabulary and grammar to be learned were always in a context proposed by the book. Thus, the activities prepared followed this guideline. Through the tasks, the students practiced the vocabulary and grammar to be learned in different situations. Some of the tasks may be considered games, others may be considered crafts, etc.

Apart from giving a name to each activity, task or project, the teacher-researcher specified the approximate time to be spent on each task, the material used and the

worksheets required. The objectives, a description of each task and the Multiple Intelligences, the perception styles and the hypotheses involved were also detailed.

There is still another collection of tasks in a different site: the teacher-researcher's web page (http://www.xtec.net/˜cmallol3). This webpage was used once a month. Students could familiarise themselves with the Anglo-Saxon culture through the study of its main festivities, for example. Besides, there are many more resources students can use on the web such as dictionaries or grammars. Students are able to get in contact with other people around the world, to know other cultures better and consequently to improve their self-knowledge. Computers are very motivating and they also make students realise that English is a real language to communicate.

The feedback from the students concerning the activities themselves through questionnaires, interviews, together with the test and exam results, showed if the application of ADA was successful. Some of the tasks were recorded and some of the recordings together with the notes the investigator took, the students' opinions (either oral or written) and their results (exams, tests, projects or oral questions) helped to redirect the research process (see point 5.1.5). During that academic year, the students also used the net to communicate concerns, expectations or to put their ideas in common. They used the teacher-researcher's web page forum as well as her e-mail to do so (see appendix 22). Again the information was extremely useful to change directions at particular moments.

Everything was guided by an initial, a formative and a summative evaluation that gave ideas and feedback to the teacher-researcher to change and improve her pedagogical practice.

Evaluation

Initial evaluation

It is well known that initial evaluations are really functional to establish the point of departure with a group of students. The initial information required from the students to be able to attain the objectives of this study was extremely helpful as it was the starting point of this research. The instruments to obtain this information were as precise as possible, although some teenagers tend to misunderstand instructions due to a lack of attention. The initial evaluation results were functional to guide the students

learning. The teacher-researcher changed the activities, reshaped the approach to be used, etc.

Thus, in this action-research the initial evaluation was constituted by many different surveys or tests.

First of all the students, had to complete a questionnaire on Multiple Intelligences punctuating the different statements from 0 (if the student disagreed) to 2 (if the student agreed) (see appendix 7).

Then, they had to complete a VAK (Visual, Auditory and Kinaesthetic) questionnaire or perception styles questionnaire where the students had to write a cross under 0, 1, 2 or 3 depending on whether it was easy or difficult for them to follow the instructions fixed (see appendix 8).

In the second perception styles questionnaire or VAKOG (Visual, Auditory, Kinaesthetic, Olfactory and Gustatory) questionnaire, the students had to write some given words under: see, hear, feel, smell or taste according to how they first represented them in their mind (see appendix 9).

Another initial evaluation worksheet was the one given to the pupils to check how they considered the hypotheses the teacher-researcher would work on. They just had to evaluate positively or negatively some given statements (at least 2 for each hypothesis) and answer some free questions to be analysed. The teacher-researcher wanted to know what they expected from the tasks, from the teacher and from themselves as students (see appendices 10 and 11).

The teacher-researcher also wanted to find out, through an initial evaluation, how translation activities were considered by the students: whether translation was, for the learners, something they did consciously or unconsciously, and whether they thought it was a good or bad practice. Another instrument was a survey to know whether students used translation consciously or unconsciously and whether they thought it is a good or bad practise to do in the classroom and outside it (see appendix 12).

Another part of the initial evaluation was the pre-tests. Two pre-tests were designed to quantify the evolution of the students. The first one was about Anglo-Saxon culture. It was to check how much students knew about the target language culture (see appendix 13). The second pre-test was to verify the degree of reading accuracy the students had. The text was taken from the last chapter of the course book (the chapter

that revises all grammar and vocabulary points learned all through the academic year) (see appendix 14).

Finally, a debate where the teacher-researcher tried to discover whether the students were motivated or not, was held during the first week. This debate was based on a reflection upon a mind map students had to do about: *Why should we learn English?* (See appendix 15).

All those initial evaluation surveys, questionnaires and tests were completed by the experimental group. The control group only undertook the pre-tests and the *Why should we learn English?* task.

In the teacher-researcher viewpoint, the data collected was coherent with the objectives of the action-research as comparing its results with those of further evaluations, one can verify whether students improve or not.

The initial information obtained from the evaluation of the teacher-researcher was also very valuable because one could tell, from previous years, that unconsciously, while teaching, the teacher emphasized her preferred perceptual style over the others'. Thus, the teacher-researcher also fulfilled her MI and VAK and VAKOG questionnaires –to check her predominant intelligence and her leading learning styles– (see appendices 7, 8 and 9), as well as her initial evaluation worksheet to encourage herself to start the action-research with as much energy as possible (see appendix 16).

Formative evaluation

The control group, as well as the experimental group, was constantly evaluated through a following up of the classroom activities. This following up was registered in the teacher-researcher's diary (see appendix 17).

The unit exams were also helpful to check experimental and control group students' progression. Students had an average of three exams per credit. In the experimental group exams there were, apart from other exercises, some translation activities and several cultural questions (see appendix 18).

The projects, essays, and other tasks done during the credits together with the books, notebooks, video books and workbooks were also evaluated and used as guidelines to go on with the teaching practice or change it. According to how the books, notebooks and projects were presented, the teacher-researcher could more or less tell the interest of a person in the subject, for example.

Before the end of each "credit", a pre-evaluation was done (see appendix 19). In this qualitative pre-evaluation, teachers decided whether the 4th of ESO students had to work and/or study more and whether it was a good idea to hold an interview with some parents to make students react.

Another important means of formative evaluation for both groups of students was an inner school evaluation exam (see appendix 20.) This academic year, it was decided that the English inner evaluation exam had to be, again, about reading accuracy, but also about written expression. Thus, it also helped to obtain more information about the students' reading skills.

As stated before, learners were also asked to express their opinions in several debates held during the year (see appendix 17), or write their opinions on paper (see appendix 21) or on the teacher-researcher's web page (see appendix 22).

The experimental group also had a worksheet where some of the activities were evaluated in terms of: a) grammar or vocabulary being learned, b) appropriateness of the activities being held, c) suitability of the material being employed and d) appropriateness of the translation activities used. Every activity evaluated ended up with two different punctuations, one by the students (see appendix 23) and another one by the teacher-researcher (see appendix 24).

Apart from that worksheet, the experimental group also had to fill in a formative evaluation survey. There were two sections: in the first one, learners had to value positively or negatively some statements related to the three hypotheses being tested in this dissertation. In the second one, students had to mark –from 1 to 5– six statements about the activities, the teacher and their own attitude towards the subject (see appendix 25).

The teacher-researcher also had to fill a similar formative evaluation worksheet in order to analyse the results, compare them with the students', and act consequently (see appendix 26).

Summative evaluation

In addition to the exams and the post-tests (see appendices 13 and 14), the experimental group students had to complete another survey on the three hypotheses. Learners had to decide if they agreed or disagreed with some statements. They had to mark them with a number from 1 to 5, and finally they had to give their answers to seven open questions (see appendices 27 and 28).

All groups had to have a mark at the end of the credit and at the end of the academic year. The mark was given according to the evolution of every student from the first day of class. That means that students with different levels can obtain the same mark according to the difference in the amount of effort put on a particular subject. Students from a high group can obtain a pass and student from a lower group can also obtain a pass, but their English levels are completely different. Is this fair? This would be a topic for a completely new dissertation. But due to the fact that there are so many students with low levels and since the ESO educational period is compulsory for everybody, the final ESO pass mark, in La Salle Figueres school is more or less given according to whether students want to go on with future studies or go to work.

The results for some of the students in the control group and the experimental group were similar in a way, but their English level was not the same. That is why a post-test helped to demonstrate the progress or non-progress from different points of departure or pre-tests. The Anglo-Saxon culture as well as the reading accuracy post-tests were exactly the same as the pre-tests. While pre-tests were held during one of the first lessons, obviously post-tests were held during the last English session in the 2004-2005 academic year.

The students who failed the subject, either in the experimental or control group, had the opportunity to do a special exam (see appendix 29), on the 21st June, when all the other "sufficiency" exams were held.

5.1.3. Objectives and hypotheses

This experimental research focuses on the consideration of individual learning styles to attain better results in language learning in general and, specifically, in reading accuracy. Translation tasks played a central role in this research. The consideration of individual learning styles, together with the reflection that a student is not a *tabula rasa* when (s)he starts learning a new foreign language, may lead students to be more motivated when they are faced with learning English.

In short, the objectives of this action-research are:

a. To develop motivating reading comprehension activities to be carried out by 15 to 16 year old students.

b. To obtain data on the benefits of using translation in the foreign language classroom.

c. To observe the effects of considering ADA when carrying out the classroom tasks.

d. To make students realise that the cultural exchange that occurs inevitably while learning English will enrich them.

Bearing all these goals in mind, three hypotheses can be shaped:

1) H$_1$. **Motivation** in the English class improves if translation activities that explore ADA are implemented.

2) H$_2$. The explicit use of translation framed by ADA can lead to a significant improvement in English **reading accuracy**.

3) H$_3$. **Multiculturality**. The consideration and work on ADA while dealing with English texts makes students improve their cultural awareness of the Anglo-Saxon world.

5.1.4. Data collection and sequencing

In the teacher-researcher opinion, the data collection processes should be as varied as possible in order to gather information from different perspectives. The information collected was:

1. Introspective, that is to say, the students had to reflect upon their own feelings and thoughts looking inwardly, as NLP encourages doing (see point 1.1.4.12).

2. Empirical, that is, learners were asked to reflect upon an aspect of the external world.

There are many ways to collect data, but according to the aims of this action-research, the teacher-researcher chose:

a) **Field notes**. These are notes the teacher-researcher took while in a concrete research situation.

b) **Diaries**. The diaries are normally private, although they can be reshaped as a public derived version of them. Diaries are opposed to journals, which lose some authenticity because they are written to be read. Journals as well as diaries illustrate an awareness of the teaching-learning process and they reveal a reflection upon them. The diary version that can be read in the appendices of this dissertation gives details on first-hand every day experiences.

c) **Verbal reports**. It is an introspective technique used to reflect upon learning and teaching practices through dialogues or interviews. In this educational action-research some debates as well as some interviews with tutors, parents and learners were held during the whole academic year to value the progress of the implemented approach.

d) **Observation techniques**. As the name indicates, they are procedures to examine a specific situation. In these techniques the first thing to be identified is who is the observer and who or what (s)he wants to observe. The observer, who was the teacher, wanted to observe the learners' attitude towards some tasks and their development. The recording methods were established: audio and video recordings. The transcriptions were useful to study the learners and the progression of the activities in depth. Finally, the methods of analysis were determined: structured (with a finite array of categories or ad-hoc from a particular topic) or unstructured (impressionistic).

e) **Questionnaires**. Either open or closed questionnaires were helpful to state facts, experiences, perceptions, anecdotes, opinions and preferences.

The data was collected throughout different means. The teacher-researcher used some techniques to collect quantitative data and other techniques to collect qualitative data. Both types of data were very important for the results, since some hypotheses were more difficult to evaluate quantitatively than qualitatively. Here, it should be clarified that the data was collected collaboratively, that is to say, students, as well as the teacher-

researcher, evaluated themselves, the others and also the approach –and together with the approach, the materials used in the classroom setting. The data collected was used to focus on the product as well as on the process because the approach used was flexible and it was adapted depending on the feedback received.

Reliability

A good research design should be appropriate, "doable" and free from bias, that is to say that the data collected should vary only because of random fluctuations.

There are several empirical procedures for estimating reliability. Once more, in this dissertation the pre-test post-test procedure has been chosen. It is true that skill improvement, measured through reading accuracy tests, tends to be more reliable than motivation inventories for example, due to the type of data collected.

The tests data has been analysed through descriptive statistics. In this study the teacher-researcher has used:

a) likert scales (students had to choose a punctuation depending on whether they agreed or disagreed with a statement),

b) rating scales (statements were judged with a number included in a given set of numbers) and

c) free answer questions which were a bit more difficult to analyse, but they were also very helpful.

Inventories gave a lot of information about the students' progress.

The more different type of data an investigator collects and uses, the more reliable an action-research may be. Hence, to increase the credibility of the study, the teacher-researcher has also used recordings, both audio and video. For the recordings, the first step was to ask the students' families for permission. The school asked parents or legal tutors whether they allowed their sons and daughters to be recorded for educational purposes only. Luckily, all children's families (participating in the study) were permissive.

Some ethical considerations were taken into account: the individual's rights have been preserved and the identifiers removed from tests, diagrams, transcriptions, etc. Every student in the experimental and control group was given a number. This number identifies every individual, and a learner will have the same number all through the study (e.g.: S23 (see appendix 6)).

Again, the data was collected from different groups of participants: teachers and students. If both groups obtained similar results, the research could also be considered more reliable.

Before, during and after collecting data, a reflection on the research was carried out through:

1. a fine-tuning process (to check whether the hypotheses were correctly formulated),
2. the application of the activities, tasks and projects designed, together with the analysis of the interviews, debates and tests and
3. the study of the results after each credit.

Finally, the hypotheses were checked since, through this study, the teacher-researcher wanted to explore, interpret and suggest further paths of research and action. Obviously, new needs were identified as well as new questions such as whether the affectivity and diversity approach would be useful for other types of accuracy.

5.1.4.1. Data collection instruments to prove the three hypotheses

In these grids "E" will be used to refer to the Experimental group and "C" to refer to the control group.

- Quantitative

Data analysis	Week number (sequencing)	Quantitative methods of data collection to prove the hypotheses	Group	Hypotheses involved	Appendix
5.1.5.1.	1	Reading accuracy pre-test	E/C	H_2	14
5.1.5.2.	1	Anglo-Saxon culture pre-test	E/C	H_3	13
5.1.5.1.	36	Reading accuracy post-test	E/C	H_2	14
5.1.5.2.	36	Anglo-Saxon culture post-test	E/C	H_3	13

- Qualitative

Data analysis	Week number (sequencing)	Qualitative methods of data collection to prove the hypotheses	Group	Hypotheses involved	Appendix
5.1.5.3.	All year	Teacher-researcher's diary: classroom tasks, debates, individual interviews, etc.	E/C	H_1	17

5.1.4.2. Data collection instruments to guide the research

Instruments used during the action-research to redirect the investigation:

- Quantitative

Data analysis	Week number (sequencing)	Quantitative methods of data collection	Group	Hypotheses involved	Appendix
5.1.5.4. 5.1.5.5.	1	Experimental group students' and teacher-researcher's MI questionnaire	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	7
5.1.5.6. 5.1.5.7.	1	Experimental group students' and teacher-researcher's VAK and VAKOG questionnaire	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	8, 9
5.1.5.8.	1	Experimental group students' initial evaluation questionnaire	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	10
5.1.5.10.	1	Experimental group students' Perception on translation	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	12
5.1.5.11.	4,9,12,18, 21,24,28, 31,34,36	Pre-evaluations, unit exams, and term and year marks	E/C	H_1, H_2, H_3	18, 19, …
5.1.5.8.	18	Experimental group students' formative evaluation questionnaire	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	25
5.1.5.8.	35	Experimental group students' summative evaluation questionnaire	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	27
5.1.5.12.	All year	Experimental group students' perceptions of the appropriateness of different activities, tasks and projects	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	23
5.1.5.12.	All year	Teacher's perceptions of the appropriateness of different activities, tasks and projects	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	24

- Qualitative

Data analysis	Week number (sequencing)	Qualitative methods of data collection	Group	Hypotheses involved	Appendix
5.1.5.14.	1	Experimental group students' initial written comments	E	H_1	11
5.1.5.15.	1	Teacher-researcher's initial written comments	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	16
5.1.5.16.	18	Teacher-researcher's formative evaluation questionnaire	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	26
5.1.5.15.	18	Teacher-researcher's formative written comments	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	26
5.1.5.14.	36	Experimental group students' summative written comments	E	H_1	28
5.1.5.16.	36	Teacher-researcher's summative evaluation questionnaire	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	30
5.1.5.15.	36	Teacher-researcher's summative written comments	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	30
5.1.5.3.	All year	Teacher-researcher's diary: classroom tasks, debates, individual interviews, etc.	E/C	H_1, H_2, H_3	17
5.1.5.13.	All year	Experimental group students' video and audio recordings	E	H_1, H_2, H_3	31

5.1.5. Data analysis[11]

5.1.5.1. Experimental and control group results regarding reading accuracy

Although there are many types of activities to check reading accuracy, as translation tasks were used rather often in the English classroom, and as the teacher-researcher considered these tasks were indicative of the students' progression, she decided to use translation for the pre- and post-test.

---

[11] I would like to thank the La Salle Figueres school maths teacher, David Álvarez, for his help in the analysis of these action-research results.

Thus, the reading accuracy pre- and post-test was a text from the last unit of the students' book that learners had to translate from English to either Catalan or Spanish. The test correction was done in the following way: the maximum was 10 points and the minimum 0 (no negative punctuation was given). Every time the teacher-researcher found a big error such as a change in the sense of the text, she subtracted a point from 10, and for mistakes that did not change the meaning of the original text but were not appropriate the teacher subtracted 0,5 points. No Catalan language mistakes were negatively valued. For solutions above the average the teacher-researcher added 0,5 points. Both groups the control and the experimental group worked with that text the same amount of time.

The variance for the experimental and for the control group was calculated in order to know whether the difference of the pre- and post-tests results was closer among students in one group or the other.

Finally, the median of the pre- and post-tests results was also worked out to see in which group students had improved their marks the most.

Experimental group			
STUDENTS	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
1	2	9	7
2	9	9	0
3	7,5	8,5	1
4	5	6	1
5	3	2	-1
6	8	9	1
7	1,5	6,5	5
8	4	7	3
10	1	4	3
11	3	5	2
12	2	7	5
13	4	9	5
15	6	8	2
17	3,5	8,5	5
19	3	7	4
21	0	5	5
22	5,5	8,5	3
23	4	6	2
24	8	9	1
25	5	8	3
26	7	10	3
27	0,5	3,5	3
28	5	8	3
29	4	6	2
		Variance	1,88

Accuracy. Experimental group
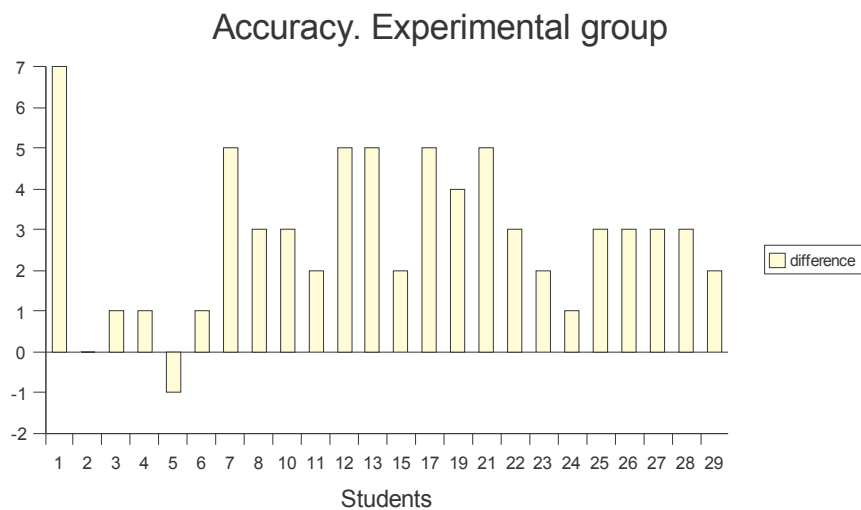
Control group			
STUDENTS	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
30	0	3	3
32	5	3	-2
40	1	3	2
41	0,5	0,5	0
42	1	0	-1
44	5,5	4,5	-1
45	0	0	0
46	0,5	0,5	0
48	3	5	2
49	5	7	2
50	2	2	0
51	2	7	5
52	2,5	3,5	1
		Variance	1,91

Accuracy. Control group
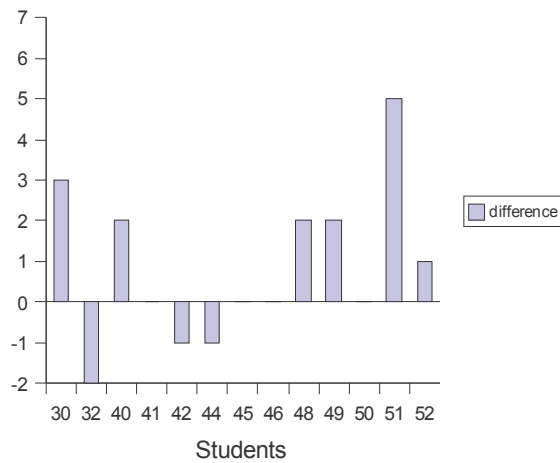
	Average improvement
Experimental group	2,83
Control group	0,85

Average
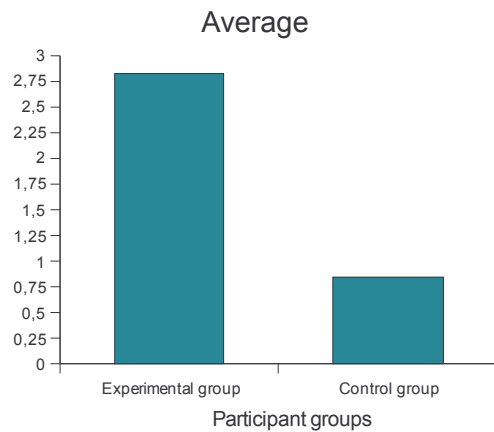
Looking at the information from the quantitative pre- and post-test, one can tell that the highest punctuation in the experimental group for the pre-test was 9 and for the post-test was 10. The highest difference between pre- and post-test was 7 (from 2 to 9). As to the control group, one can say that only three people passed the pre-test and the highest mark was 5. The highest score for the post-test was 8. And the highest difference between a pre- and a post-test was 5 (from 2 to 7).

The variance or the standard deviation is higher in the control group (1,88). The highest the variance, the more disperse the results. That means that some students have learned a lot while others have not.

Summing up, the average pre-test/post-test difference on punctuation to measure the improvement on reading accuracy for the experimental group was 2,83 while for the control group it was 0,85. That means that the reading accuracy of the experimental group improved much more than that of the control group, and according to a hypotheses contrast (see appendix 14.1) this improvement is meaningful.

5.1.5.2. Experimental and control group results on multiculturality

The multiculturality pre- and post-test included 10 questions on Anglo-Saxon culture. The test correction was done in the following way: the 10 questions were 1 point each. If the answer for each question was correct, the students got the point; if it was not completely correct or if there was information missing, the student got half a point. Finally, if the information was wrong, or there was no information at all in the answer, students got 0 points. For answers above the average students got 0,5 additional points.

The variance for the experimental and for the control group was calculated in order to know whether the difference between the pre- and post-tests results was closer among students in one group or the other.

Finally, the median of the pre- and post-tests results was also worked out to see in which group students had improved the most concerning their marks.

Experimental group			
STUDENTS	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
1	7	8	1
2	7,5	9	1,5
3	5	8	3
4	2	2	0
5	4,5	6	1,5
6	8	7,5	-0,5
7	3	3	0
8	4,5	4,5	0
10	2	7,5	5,5
11	6	8	2
12	4,5	6	1,5
13	3	5,5	2,5
14	3,5	8	4,5
16	4	6,5	2,5
17	5,5	3	-2,5
19	4,5	6	1,5
21	2	5	3
22	4	7	3
23	2,5	4,5	2
24	5,5	9,5	4
25	3,5	5	1,5
26	4	3	-1
27	4	8	4
28	6,5	6,5	0
29	5	8	3
		Variance	1,86

Multiculturality. Experimental group
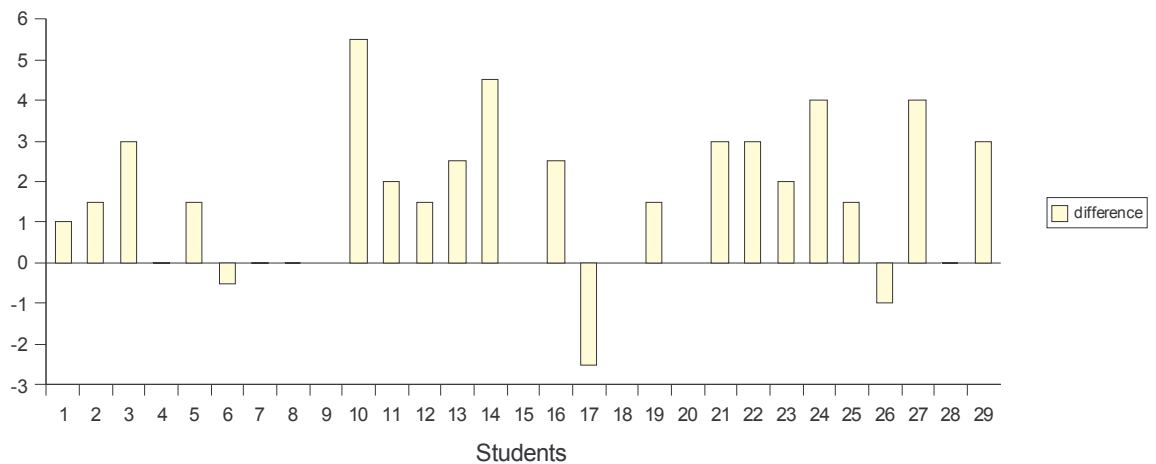
Control group			
STUDENTS	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
30	4,5	5	0,5
31	1,5	2	0,5
32	3,5	3,5	0
33	1	1,5	0,5
39	3	4	1
40	3	5	2
41	3,5	5	1,5
44	3	6,5	3,5
45	3,5	4	0,5
46	2,5	4,5	2
48	4,5	5	0,5
49	1,5	6	4,5
50	3	6	3
51	3,5	5	1,5
52	2,5	5	2,5
		Variance	1,31

Multiculturality. Control group
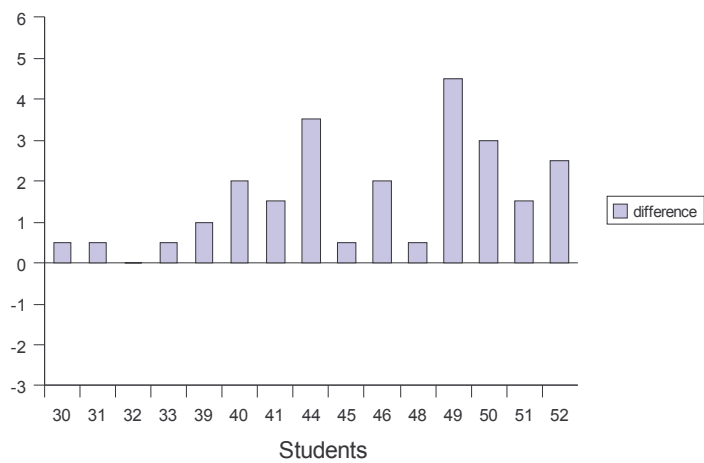
	Average improvement
Experimental group	1,74
Control group	1,6

Average
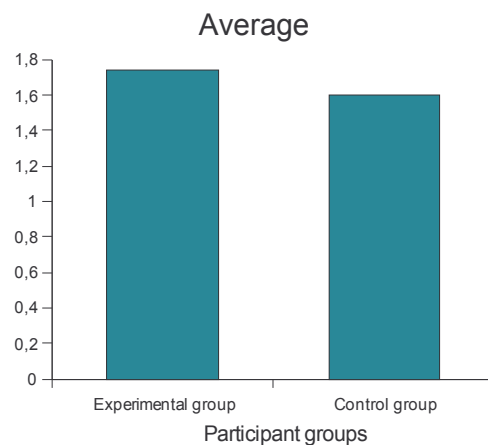
The quantitative multiculturality evaluation only refers to the English culture as it is the target culture of the language being studied. However, during lesson time, Anglo-Saxon culture was compared with many other cultures.

The highest punctuation in the pre-test for the Experimental group concerning English culture was 8 and as can be seen from the graphic, there were students who seemed to have learned quite a lot as the difference between pre and post-test was high. Some students reached a 9,5 which is nearly the highest mark they could have (10). The highest difference between pre- and post-test was 5,5.

As to the control group the highest punctuation in the pre-test was 4,5, and in the post-test was 6,5. The highest difference between the pre- and post-test was 4,5. That means one point lower than with the experimental group.

From these data about the two groups one can conclude that the experimental group, as a general rule, improved more than the control group. The graphic representing these data is also clear. The experimental group had better results than the control group. The only drawback was that three students from the experimental group obtained negative results while no one in the control group obtained negative results. This might be because since the experimental group was bigger, the class was more heterogeneous, and as the teacher-researcher encouraged individuality with that group, some students wanted to learn only what they thought was necessary or helpful for them. Some of the learners explicitly thought culture was not central. Another reason could be that in the control group there was a larger number of different cultures represented and the cultural activities were richer as they were expanded with real life comments. This may also be why the standard deviation or variance is higher in the experimental group than in the control group.

The average difference between the experimental and the control group concerning multiculturality is 0,14, and according to a hypotheses contrast (see appendix 13.1) that means that it is not especially meaningful.

5.1.5.3. Teacher-researcher's diary, classroom debates and individual interviews with control and experimental group students and parents.

Bearing all the aims of this research study in mind, the interpretations of the teacher-researcher's diary, classroom debates and individual interviews have been classified according to different parameters:

- Evidence of students' positive and/or negative attitudes
- Evidence of the improvement on the use of translation
- Evidence of dealing with multiculturality
- Evidence of considering ADA
- Evidence of reading accuracy improvement

- **Evidence of students' positive and/or negative attitudes**

Every group of students is different. Something explained to one group of students may have an extremely opposed effect when the same thing is explained to another group of learners. According to the teacher-researcher's diary the enthusiasm and feelings of the pilot group were explicitly shown and, for the teacher-researcher, this was gratifying. On the contrary, most of the students in the experimental group did not frequently show their feelings; which was sometimes a bit disappointing. The control group students were somehow similar to the pilot group in that they expressed their feelings. They were rather eager to do different types of activities. The control group students complained because the teacher was using many amusing tasks (according to students in the experimental group) with the experimental group and they were not doing them.

Most teenagers are, at least externally, against parents, society, school and, obviously, teachers. It is not fashionable to show preferences for any type of classroom activities. Most teenagers' main objective is to be on good terms with their peers. Classmates' opinions are more important than self-impressions, so in general teenagers are not very assertive. The teacher-researcher did not really know the true feelings of the experimental group students as to the tasks proposed while being in the classroom but, through individual interviews, the teacher-researcher could tell most of the students were enjoying themselves.

As the teacher-researcher's diary elucidates, learners in the experimental group were very reluctant to be creative and invent. At the beginning of the year, they found creative tasks bizarre and useless. They had never been asked about their likes or dislikes concerning words, for example. Students did not know how to involve themselves in such "weird" tasks, so they did not find them appealing –or at least that is what they said during classroom debates on the subject matter. However, the tasks results were really impressive. As one student said, trying to get the logic point of an odd match is a really complicated task, but it makes us think. The control group students were, again, very different. Whenever the teacher-researcher proposed any creative activity, they were the first to say they would do it without any problem. Their results, though, were not as the teacher expected from their first reaction.

Parents knew about the educational research that was being held in the English classroom. Some parents, those that worried most about the education of their children, expressed their opinions: a) through the students' diary, b) through interviews with the teacher-researcher and/or tutor and c) through the AMPA (Pupils' Parents' Association) representative. Most of the reactions were encouraging, but it was also true that a mother complained about the *Obituary notice* task. Later on, it was discovered that that mother was really ill, so the task might have affected her emotionally. When the teacher-researcher apologised to the whole experimental group of students for any psychological damage caused, they were very understanding and most of them encouraged her to go on with the different types of tasks she had planned. They orally stated that they were having fun and the tasks were enjoying and exciting.

Group dynamics is vitally important, and another thing that can be deduced from the teacher-researcher's diary is that, from a very early stage, the teacher-researcher could more or less tell who the leaders in the experimental group were. In the activity *A woman on a roof,* students had to vote for the most original stories and they voted according to the author of the story. The teacher-researcher perceived that students left good stories behind because they were not written by any member of their group of friends. Two group leaders were chosen. Was it by chance? What was obvious was that there were several groups in the same classroom and some groups were psychologically aggressive towards others. Whenever there was a situation such as that in the *Well-known people passives* video recording, where some students laughed at others, at the end of the lesson the teacher-researcher took the instigators out of the classroom and tried to make them reason. Respect was one of the main aims in every classroom.

Concerning the control group, the teacher-researcher perceived there were quite a few group leaders, but the thing is that they got on really well and the group dynamics was harmonious.

- **Evidence of the improvement on the use of translation**

From the teacher-researcher's diary, one could perceive that many students in the experimental group were quite perfectionists. They wanted and needed to know the exact meaning of words, sentences or utterances in general to set off a task. They checked and sometimes cheated with classmates if the teacher-researcher refused to give them a translation of what she had previously said in English. That was not a consequence of the use of translation tasks because it was mostly required at the beginning of the academic year. On the contrary, translation tasks may have minimised the need to rely on their L1. Students during the third term did not require so much translation from the teacher-researcher as at the beginning of the academic year.

Translation is also useful to learn word for word non-correspondence, as could be inferred from the *Why do I have…?* video recording. In the *Why do I have…?* task, students translated "you are going to go to ride" by "aniràs a muntar", for example. Students turned 7 English words into 3 Catalan words. In a classroom debate, a student expressed his opinion saying that there are people who translate a sentence, for example word for word and in the target language that sentence does not work. The conclusion reached in that debate was that any translation should be revised. Thus, the teacher-researcher insisted in not handing a translation right away after finishing it, she explained that if they reworked on it later, they would change many things and they would, almost certainly, improve it. This debate came after the visioning of a film *Billy Elliot* (during the tutorial hour). In the film, Billy Elliot entered his home saying: "¡Abuela! Ya es la hora del té." Some students noticed that right away Billy went to the kitchen, opened the fridge door and took some eggs. A few learners were a bit shocked by this fact and asked the English teacher for an explanation. Then, a discussion on cultural items started. Thus, translation also helps to understand a different culture.

Yet again, according to the teacher-researcher's diary, students could perceive through the *Inner grammar experiences* task that there is not one only right translation for the same text. Students could get into the shoes of different publishers, and the same

text was translated for different audiences. Students were astonished to read the resulting texts. There were fairly different translations of the same text.

In the teacher-researcher's diary one can also read that, during the project where students had to create activities to match with a chosen song, they mostly used inventive translation activities. The teacher-researcher wondered why they had used translation activities. The answers could be summarized as: they are good activities to check comprehension.

Many debates arose from tasks planned. A student said, during a classroom debate, that translation is a very important tool because learners mentally translate, and the more they translate in class, the better they will do it. According to the teacher-researcher, the more students know about translation, the more aware they will be concerning its use. In the same debate, another student gave his opinion saying that, if one translates, this person is carrying out a lot of actions, and therefore, translation should be avoided. "When do people avoid using translation?" –asked the teacher-researcher. Another student answered that it was when one has translated a lot. A learner, who the teacher-researcher thought was highly bilingual (Spanish speaking parents and Catalan speaking friends and school), gave an example: he said that as his mother tongue was Spanish, whenever he started talking in Catalan, he started translating; then, after a while, without realising it, he was talking and thinking in Catalan. He said he found it very hard. The other students agreed on that they had used translation a lot either in the L2 or in the FL classrooms and outside the classrooms setting. They also agreed on the fact that no one had taught them how to translate and that this was taken for granted. Learners concluded it was useful for them to learn how to translate appropriately.

Regarding the control group students, and despite the fact that the teacher-researcher did not want them to do so, every time the teacher-researcher asked them to do a "writing", many of the students wrote first the text in their L1 and then, they tried to translate it into English. Their results were awful as they tried to translate word-by-word. Very few times the students in the control group had to translate a text from English to their L1, but whenever they had to do so, they started to translate before even reading the text and they also used word for word translations.

- **Evidence of dealing with multiculturality**

In the teacher-researchers' diary, one can also find references to multiculturality when working with the experimental group students. Even though the debate after the *Who is the agent?* task was not recorded, the teacher-researcher remembers it was fruitful to know the students' opinions about immigrants (from the first or the third world). Since it is very difficult to change a prejudice, the teacher-researcher thought the more students knew about a society, the more foundations they would have to give their own opinions.

Every text is dyed with the author's culture. Texts are written representations of cultures. So, deepening into cultures is also fantastic to understand texts better. This is why, taking advantage of the presence of boys and girls participating in a students' exchange, a cultural swap was held during an English lesson. The teacher-researcher thinks every moment is suitable to talk about the difference between societies.

The *Right Now* video tasks were, among other tasks, very appropriate to discuss about English-Catalan cultural differences, for example. Through these videos, as well as through films, texts and teacher-researcher's comments the students got to know the Anglo-Saxon culture better.

The teacher-researcher admits that once she unconsciously may have used the Affectivity and Diversity Approach while dealing with culture in the control group classroom. She thinks it may be because the task worked so well with the experimental group students that she wanted the control group students to take advantage of it also. This is what should be avoided in any study, of course, that is why it would have been better if two different teachers taught the two groups, but as the action-research was carried out in a real-life setting, this was not possible.

- **Evidence of considering ADA**

Regarding the <u>psychological context</u>, and according to some of the experimental group students' interviews, they felt, at one moment or another of the lesson, quite engaged in what was going on in the classroom setting. The students thought it was, among other reasons, because during the lesson, as the activities changed rather quickly, they went through a lot of different feelings that made them be alert. Concerning the control group students, they also said they felt engaged, but while they were in the classroom they got lost quite easily, for example.

The reaction of many students, both in the control and in the experimental group, in front of a difficult situation was to abandon. This is seen in the *Inner grammar experience* task, for example. According to the teacher-researcher's diary, when students in the experimental group got lost in a comprehension exercise, some of them abandoned and did not finish the activity. Some of their excuses were: "I couldn't do it"; "it was too difficult for me". The teacher-researcher explained that, according to an NLP presupposition, either if one thinks one can do something or if one thinks one cannot do it, this person is right (see point 1.1.4.12). That means that one can do anything one thinks one can do. This was hard for some of the students to understand and they only gave the teacher examples of things they could not do. However, the teacher-researcher sensed that the explanation she had given was worthy for some of the learners in the experimental group.

Since the teacher-researcher's intention was at first to attend individuality, the diary reflects she was not satisfied with her work because of the number of students she was teaching at a time. Nevertheless, she did not give up and tried, at least to focus on two experimental group students every lesson. She looked at their MI questionnaires and she tried to see how they reacted on the different activities proposed for the day. The teacher-researcher perceived that the students felt heartened and encouraged to learn if she focussed on them individually. Though the teacher-researcher tried not to do the same thing with the control group, she realised that she also did it, but in another way (e.g. encouraging individuals after receiving a bad mark in an exam).

About the physical context, the teacher-researcher thought that even though a lot of changes were made in the ordinary classroom (such as hanging posters or projects on the classroom walls), its setting was a bit dull. Among other reasons, this is why most of the experimental group projects were carried out in other school spaces such as the English classroom, the computer room or the library, which were lighter and decorated more colourfully. The teacher-researcher tried to use mainly the ordinary classroom with the control group, though some times she felt forced (mainly by the students) to go to other spaces.

Concerning the pedagogical context, and according to some teacher's notes, students in the experimental group were quite happy to participate in giving their opinion on the aims for that academic year. Even though some common objectives were accorded, learners also proposed to the teacher that each one of them could write their own goals on the first page of their notebooks, and they did it. At the end of the term,

they looked at their own goals individually to see whether they had been accomplished. According to some control group students' comments, they were not interested at all in the objectives the teacher wanted them to reach.

The activities, tasks and projects proposed were, according to the teacher-researcher's review of her diary, quite appropriate, even though she had changed many things from the pilot study, she would also change many things in further research. For the students, the best thing about the activities was that they were especially varied.

According to the predominant intelligences individual students had, the tasks proposed by the teacher-researcher either suited them or, on the contrary, were very hard to accomplish for them. Some students complained, for example, because they had to draw and they were not good at it, but as one can read from the teacher-researcher's diary, some incredibly fantastic drawings were seen in quite a few notebooks. In another activity, students had to create a song. For some students it was fun and easy, while for others it was a nearly unattainable task. All types of students were pushed to do all the activities to awaken their dormant intelligences.

Visually motivating material worked really well for most of the students. It was the case of the *Garfield* comic strip. The students' faces were good indicators of whether they understood and enjoyed the task proposed: each time a poster, some pictures, a colourful drawing, etc. was shown, most of the students' faces changed to show delight and, at the same time, a kind of relaxation. It might be due to the fact that they knew they would be doing something different, creative.

The tasks involving sounds were quite complicated for the students who could not imagine the sounds, that is to say, for the non-auditive students. Nonetheless, the teacher-researcher considered it a good exercise to educate as many senses as possible. So the three main perceptual styles were first equally used. To encourage the kinaesthetic type of perception many tasks such as *Believe it or not* involved movement, for example. After some activities entailing movement, the teacher-researcher realised that with so many students it was impossible to do the activities properly in the ordinary classroom, so every time a lot of movement was required, the teacher-researcher took the students to the English classroom; in this way the participants were not worried about disturbing next door students. Also, some of the activities entailing too much movement were readapted or changed. NLP presuppositions (see point 1.1.4.12), were taken into account in different situations. NLP perceptual styles were always kept in mind for the different proposed tasks.

The students in the control group were very dissatisfied with the tasks they had to accomplish. Despite the fact that the teacher tried to put the same amount of energy into explaining the different activities in the experimental and in the control group, the personal relationship –due to the action-research– with the experimental group students, made the control group students perceive they were left aside. Thus, they sensed their tasks were not as interesting as the ones in the experimental group, but it was only their impression.

Relating to the sociological context, in the teacher-researcher's diary, there are quite a lot of references to group work. The teacher was quite worried because the experimental group students were, again, very talkative and she thought they were not taking advantage of the activities involving group work, but the results were excellent. As students had to do so many group work activities, social inclusion was a must. Even though students in the control group sometimes also worked in groups, mainly one of the students in each group was the one in charge of doing all the work. The teacher-researcher senses they did not know what group work really was and they were not interested.

Despite the fact that the teacher-researcher had to spend a lot of time asking for silence in the experimental group class, her review shows that students also got the most out of the debates. They enjoyed themselves, they participated quite a lot and their reasoning was rather useful. On the other hand, students in the control group always asked the teacher to do debates, but then, they did not participate or they only participated to make their classmates laugh.

- **Evidence of reading accuracy improvement**

Throughout the activities proposed by the teacher-researcher, the students in the experimental group had to work mainly with a text. One of the first activities they had to accomplish was a reading activity. Then different activities were proposed to try to discover the degree of understanding of the text. The first tasks results were very disappointing according to the teacher-researcher's diary. The students just tried to do the activities as quickly as they could without taking much notice of the content of the texts. Gradually, and thanks to the success of classroom debates, students focussed more on the content and tried to make sure they fully understood the text.

The tasks where the understanding of the texts really stood out were the group tasks where translation played an important part. Students discussed on the meaning of

texts and they truly helped each other. Misunderstandings were clearly corrected by classmates or by the own students.

Concerning the students in the control group, they were generally not very eager to read, and whenever they started reading, they were quickly discouraged when they did not understand a word. Even though the teacher-researcher sensed the students in the control group had improved their reading accuracy from the beginning of the academic year, she also thought their improvement was far from being acceptable according to her year aims.

Yet again, it was very useful to have applied ADA in the pilot study before the actual action-research, because it helped reshape tasks and projects in some ways: technical improvements, content adaptations... In a planned task, for example, several pilot group students did not understand some clue words, so at some stage in the application of the same task to the experimental group, those words were written on the blackboard and explained.

Summing up, something the teacher-researcher learned is that things should never be taken for granted, that group work should be used appropriately and that, although with a big group the teacher-researcher could not consider individuality all the time, students appreciated any individual attention the teacher-researcher could give them.

5.1.5.4. Experimental group students' Multiple Intelligences questionnaire results

In the questionnaire to assess which kind of intelligence each individual learner has and which is the predominant in the class, students from the experimental group had to punctuate some items. Learners had to write 0 if they disagreed, 1 if they were somewhere in between and 2 if they strongly agreed with each statement. Then, they had to add their scores for each item in each type of intelligence (see appendix 7).

The numbers represented here are the punctuations of every student for all the nine intelligences. What is representative in this table are the resulting percentages for every intelligence, as it will provide us with information for future teaching.

Multiple Intelligences questionnaire								
STUDENTS	Linguis	Logic	Spatial	Kinaes	Musical	Interper	Intraper	Natura	Existen
1	5	5	6	5	7	7	6	7	7
2	8	4	7	5	6	7	6	7	7
3	5	8	3	5	5	7	6	7	4
4	8	7	6	7	8	8	9	7	8
5	5	5	8	4	3	5	4	6	5
7	9	7	3	4	5	3	7	3	8
7	6	2	8	8	10	9	7	3	5
8	5	6	7	7	7	10	6	6	9
10	7	2	7	9	10	10	8	5	7
11	5	6	7	5	6	7	5	5	8
12	8	4	5	5	7	6	5	4	7
13	6	8	3	8	3	9	6	4	9
14	5	3	4	4	2	6	3	6	3
15	7	7	5	7	7	9	7	4	8
17	6	3	4	5	9	8	4	3	9
18	8	7	7	7	4	8	9	5	7
19	6	8	4	4	10	10	6	3	3
21	7	4	5	4	5	7	8	9	6
22	6	5	8	7	9	8	6	6	6
23	7	4	5	9	7	8	6	4	8
24	7	3	6	6	7	6	6	6	2
25	7	5	8	7	2	6	8	6	5
26	8	7	6	7	8	8	9	7	8
28	10	7	5	7	10	10	8	7	8
29	7	6	7	8	3	6	7	8	7
TOTAL:	168	133	144	154	160	188	162	138	164
	11,91%	9,43%	10,21%	10,91%	11,34%	13,32%	11,48%	9,78%	11,62%
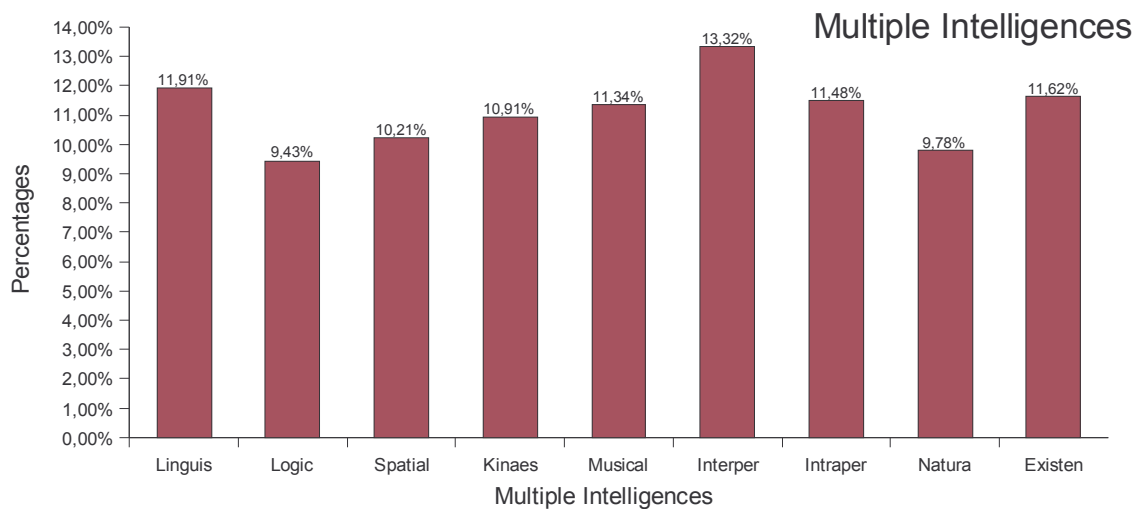
Analysing the students' Multiple Intelligences questionnaires, one could notice several things. The highest rated intelligence for the teenagers was the interpersonal. This is rather logical and obvious as the most important thing for most of these youngsters are friends.

The second highest rated intelligence was linguistic. The students in the experimental group were quite good at languages (Catalan, Spanish and English) according to the previous year marks, that is why they were in the highest level group.

Not very far from the linguistic intelligence, was the existential intelligence. One should remember that the school where this action-research took place is a religious school and students may possibly be exposed to more content related to ideological concerns than other teenagers from other schools.

Another highly rated intelligence was the intrapersonal one. This intelligence may be important in relation to the interpersonal intelligence. At this age, boys and girls are more strict and harsh with themselves than society is. It is difficult to meet teenagers with a good self-concept, their physical appearance is changing and their psychological side is going through difficult times. One of the most essential things for teenagers is to project a good self-image towards their peers. Although these two last sentences seem to be opposed, they are not, because in general terms, while their self-image is low, they have to pretend it is very high. Adolescents know themselves. They start to know their limitations and their aptitudes; this is why their interpersonal intelligence is not low.

Musical intelligence followed in punctuation. Teenagers listen to a lot of music. They try to identify themselves with a type of music, and in a way, this shapes their lives.

The following intelligences concerning punctuation were kinaesthetic and spatial intelligences. The experimental group students' previous ways of learning had not normally taken these two intelligences too much into account (according to the primary and first cycle of ESO teachers), that is why they were rated lower than most of the others. Students with a high degree of these intelligences are by and large considered to be disruptive, as they need to move around or do more things with their hands and bodies in general, than the rest of the students. However, it is also true that they were generally quite good at physical education.

Naturalist and logic intelligences were rated below. Most of the students are from Figueres, so they are urban teenagers. They do not worry very much about nature. For the majority of them, nature in itself is not a part of their lives. Finally, logic

intelligence was the lowest punctuated intelligence. It may have to do with the fact that even though these students are not bad at maths, they mostly think this subject is difficult and they do not like it very much; furthermore they associate all the everyday life logical problems to maths and so it is hard for learners to solve them. However, it should be clarified here that logic intelligence is not only and simply related to maths, but logical thinking for example.

5.1.5.5. Teacher-researcher's Multiple Intelligences questionnaire results

In this questionnaire to check the teacher-researcher's predominant intelligence, she had to punctuate some items from 0 to 2 to show if she strongly agreed, if she was somewhere in between or if she strongly disagreed with them. Then, she had to add her scores for each item in every type of intelligence (see appendix 7).

The numbers represented here are the punctuations of the teacher-researcher for all the intelligences. As for the students, for the teacher-researcher the percentages were also worked out.

Multiple Intelligences questionnaire								
	Linguis	**Logic**	**Spatial**	**Kinaes**	**Musical**	**Interper**	**Intraper**	**Natura**	**Existen**
TEACHER	7	5	8	9	9	4	4	8	3
TOTAL:	7	5	8	9	9	4	4	8	3
	12,28%	8,77%	14,04%	15,79%	15,79%	7,02%	7,02%	14,04%	5,26%
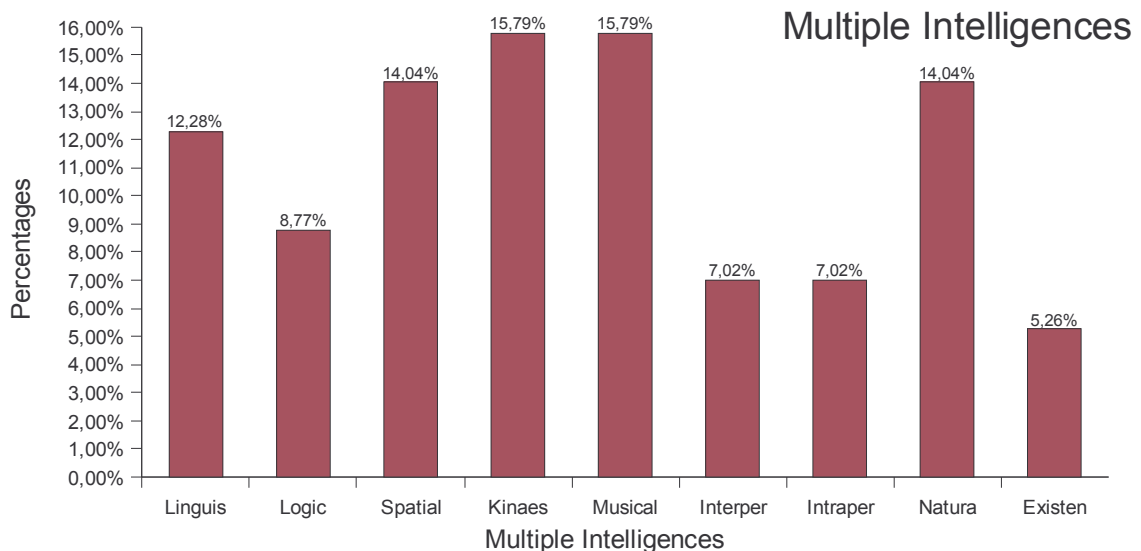
It is also interesting for the teacher-researcher to know her predominant intelligences to be able to compensate the differences between students' intelligences and her own.

The kinaesthetic and the musical are the highest rated intelligences for the teacher-researcher. The teacher-researcher uses a lot of miming and material in her classes, apart from CDs or DVDs. The intelligences the teacher-researcher had to compensate were the interpersonal, the intrapersonal and the existential. To compensate the interpersonal intelligence, a lot of group work was planned. However, it was hard to do a lot of group work because there were too many students in the classroom. The intrapersonal intelligence was easier to work with; some individual tasks were focussed towards improving the students' own perception. The debates on multiculturality also helped to learn from others and acquire more self-knowledge. Finally, existential intelligence was also taken into consideration during some activities, mainly in debates.

5.1.5.6. Experimental group students' VAK and VAKOG questionnaires results

For the VAK questionnaire to assess the individual predominant learning styles as well as the leading learning style among students, the learners from the experimental group had to write an X under 0 if they found impossible to follow some instructions given (e.g. see an elephant in their mind), under 1 if it was difficult to follow them, under 2 if it was OK and under 3 if it was easy to follow the instructions. Then, the number of X under 0, 1, 2 and 3 were worked out and wrote under each number (see appendix 8).

If the results under 0, 1, 2 and 3 were added, the product would be the same for the visual, auditory and kinaesthetic perception style. The teacher-researcher solution was to multiply the results under 0 by 0, the results under 1 by 1, the results under 2 by 2 and the results under 3 by 3. The resulting information was written in the VAK table.

Concerning the VAKOG questionnaire, what was expected was that the students wrote some words down in one of the five columns (visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, olfactory and gustatory) according to how they first represented these words in their minds. Then, they had to count how many words they had in each column and the total number was written down (see appendix 9).

The VAKOG table is the depiction of the number of words written by learners for each representational system.

VAK Questionnaires					VAKOG Questionnaire				
STUDENTS	visual	auditory	Kinaes		visual	auditory	Kinaes	Olfactory	Gustatory
1	17	13	15		8	8	4	2	2
2	13	10	10		15	3	6	2	1
3	18	12	10		7	8	7	3	2
4	20	20	16		12	3	7	3	2
5	19	17	17		10	8	5	2	2
7	14	16	13		6	9	7	3	3
7	19	16	6		9	5	8	4	1
8	18	12	13		7	7	8	5	1
10	15	10	8		13	3	6	1	1
11	19	17	10		9	6	6	6	0
12	10	9	4		10	8	1	7	5
13	18	18	6		7	7	10	2	2
14	17	17	3		14	6	3	2	2
15	17	17	20		10	4	5	6	2
17	16	16	10		9	7	2	6	3
18	20	20	19		11	4	7	2	3
19	11	12	9		9	4	4	5	5
21	13	13	9		7	6	6	4	3
22	19	19	17		14	5	5	1	3
23	20	21	21		11	8	4	4	0
24	13	9	14		15	5	5	2	0
25	14	14	12		9	6	5	4	4
26	18	19	19		12	6	4	2	3
28	17	15	15		10	7	5	3	2
29	15	15	12		12	4	5	2	1
TOTAL:	410	377	308		256	147	135	83	53
	37,44%	34,43%	28,13%		37,98%	21,81%	20,03%	12,31%	7,86%
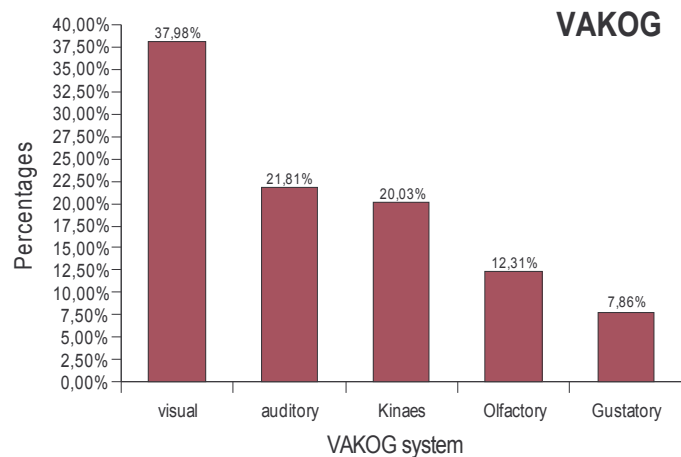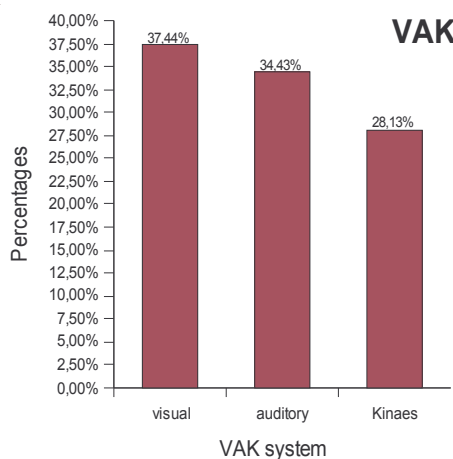
From the VAK and VAKOG questionnaires, one can infer that we are living in a clearly visual society. Thus, it can be deduced that the experimental group students on the whole tend to enjoy and learn more if information is displayed in a visual way. The auditory type of perception goes, in punctuation, after the visual type. Sounds, monologues, conversations and music overall are main auditory sources that can be used in class. The third more important type of perception for this group of students is the kinaesthetic. Since the kinaesthetic and spatial intelligences were low, it is quite normal that their lowest perceptive style is the kinaesthetic one. As intelligences can be developed through use, the kinaesthetic perceptual style can also be fostered through exercise.

5.1.5.7. Teacher-researcher's VAK and VAKOG questionnaires results

For the VAK questionnaire to assess the teacher-researcher predominant learning/teaching style, she had to write an X under 0 if she found impossible to follow the instructions given, under 1 if it was difficult for her to follow them, under 2 if it was OK and under 3 if it was easy for her to follow the instructions. Then, the number of X under 0, 1, 2 and 3 were worked out and wrote under each number (see appendix 8).

Once more, if the results under 0, 1, 2 and 3 were added, the product would be the same for the visual, auditory and kinaesthetic perception style. So, the results under 0 were multiplied by 0, the results under 1 by 1, etc. The resulting information was the one written in the VAK table.

Concerning the VAKOG questionnaire, the teacher-researcher had to write some words down on one of the five columns (visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, olfactory and gustatory) according to how she first represented these words in her mind. Then, she counted how many words she had in each column and the total number was written down (see appendix 9).

The VAKOG table is a depiction of the number of words written under each representational system.

VAK Questionnaire				VAKOG Questionnaire				
	visual	**auditory**	**Kinaes**		**visual**	**auditory**	**Kinaes**	**Olfactory**	**Gustatory**
TEACHER	17	13	17		9	4	11	3	1
TOTAL:	17	13	17		9	4	11	3	1
	36,17%	27,66%	36,17%		32,14%	14,29%	39,29%	10,71%	3,57%
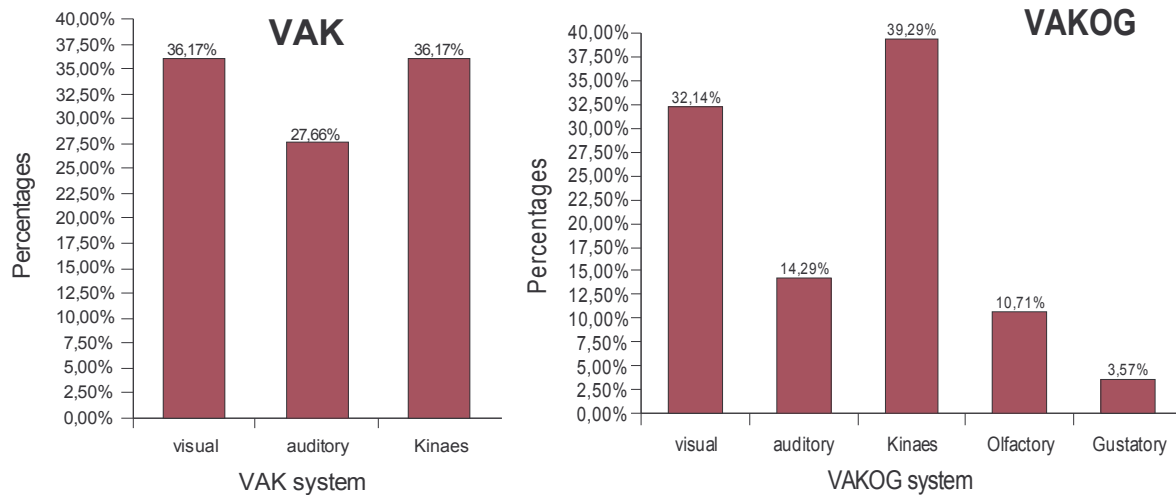
It is interesting to know the teacher-researcher's perceptual systems. Again, the visual type of perception is the most important one. The teacher-researcher has a pretty low auditory type of perception according to the VAK and VAKOG questionnaires. An effort had to be made to compensate the teacher-researcher way of teaching, favouring, for example, the movement in front of the auditions, to the students' way of learning. The teacher-researcher's kinaesthetic type of perception was as high as her visual one.

5.1.5.8. Experimental group students' initial, formative and summative evaluation questionnaires

Learners in the experimental group had to punctuate several items related to the three hypotheses at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the academic year to see the evolution of the hypotheses. Students had to write an X under a happy 😊 or a sad 😞 face (see appendices 10, 25 and 27).

Then, an average of the results on motivation, accuracy and multiculturality was calculated.

Initial, formative and summative evaluation on motivation, accuracy and multiculturality					
Initial evaluation			**Average**		
	yes	no	positive	negative	
I want to learn.	23		19,5	7	Motivation
I think the topics are going to be interesting.	16	7			
I will be able to understand the topics.	18	5	17	6	Accuracy
I will be able to apply the things I will learn.	16	7			
I will learn about English culture.	10	13	10	13	Multiculturality
I will learn differences between English and Catalan life.	10	13			
Formative evaluation					
	yes	no			
I enjoyed myself while learning.	12	11	16,5	6,5	Motivation
I want to continue learning.	21	2			
I have learned a lot.	10	13	14,33	9	Accuracy
I know how to use the vocabulary and grammar of previous units.	18	5			
I understood the oral and written texts.	15	8			
I have discovered some cultural differences between me and English people.	23		22	2	Multiculturality
I have learned that there are differences between Catalan and English life-styles.	21	2			
Summative evaluation					
	yes	no			
I enjoyed myself while learning.	22	1	21	2	Motivation
The topics were interesting.	20	3			
I have learned a lot.	19	4	18,5	4,5	Accuracy
I know how to use the vocabulary and grammar of the lessons.	18	5			
I have learned about English culture.	16	7	17,5	5,5	Multiculturality
I have learned many differences between Catalan and English people.	19	4			
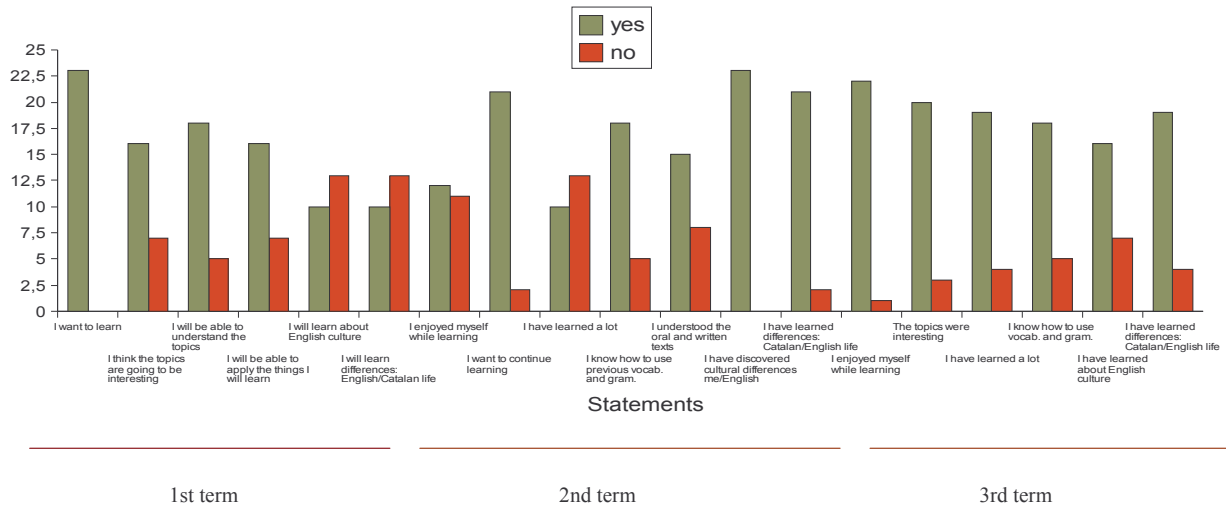
Graphic 1
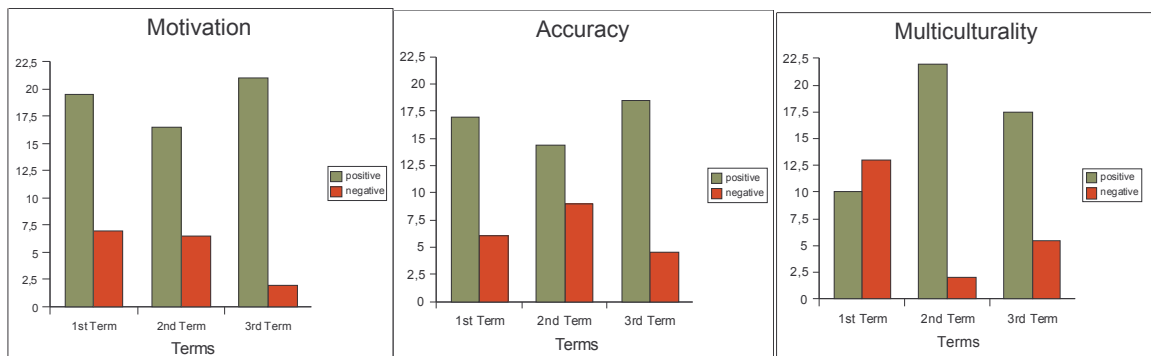
Graphic 2

Graphic 1

As can be seen from graphic 1, in the first term, the desire learners had for learning was high, but the expectations, especially those concerning cultural references, were low. It might be due to their perceptions of previous years. During the second term, the most worrying result was that learners thought they were not learning much.

Finally, during the third term, most of the accounts were valued positively and the highest rated statement was the one that said that they had enjoyed themselves. Regarding the lowest valued statement from the second term, in the last term it was rated very positively as well.

Graphic 2

As mentioned before, the second term was an extremely difficult term. This can be also seen through the students' evaluation questionnaires. Though in the second term the students' negative attitude is not more highly rated than their positive attitude, their positive attitude is lower than in the first term. This decreasingly motivating posture may be because this was an important period of their lives and most of them had not a clear idea of what they wanted for their future. During the third term the learners' motivation increased. It may be because they already knew whether they wanted to go on studying or whether they wanted to start work.

Concerning reading accuracy, as motivation, it went down during the second term but again, similar to motivation, it went up on the third term.

Finally, during the second term, one of the most striking features was that students considered they had learned about different societies much more than they had expected at the beginning of the year. In fact, multiculturality was the hypothesis they punctuated the highest. However, the punctuation on multiculturality became stabilised during the third term.

5.1.5.9. Experimental group students' evaluation on motivation

During the formative and summative evaluation, students had to value items related to the activities, the teacher and their own attitude. The items were evaluated from 1 to 5 according to whether they completely disagreed (1) to whether they completely agreed (5) with the statements.

The number of students who marked a specific number for each statement was added and this is how the table below was formed.

Formative and summative evaluation on activities, the teacher and their own attitude					
Formative evaluation					
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
The translation activities <u>are</u> interesting	5	9	12	3	
The activities <u>are</u> useful for me	2	12	12	3	
The teacher <u>considers</u> our individual needs	3	10	15	1	
The teacher's explanations <u>are</u> appropriate	3	7	8	11	
My attitude towards learning <u>is</u> good	3	6	10	10	
My attitude towards others <u>is</u> good	1	8	10	10	
Summative evaluation					
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
The translation activities <u>were</u> interesting	4	4	16	4	1
The activities <u>were</u> useful for me	1	7	14	5	2
The teacher <u>considered</u> our individual needs		3	14	11	1
The teacher's explanations <u>were</u> appropriate		3	5	14	7
My attitude towards learning <u>was</u> good		2	6	20	1
My attitude towards others <u>was</u> good		3	7	16	3

Interesting translation tasks?

Useful tasks?

Individual needs under consideration?

Teacher's explanations adequacy?

Own attitude towards learning

Own attitude towards others
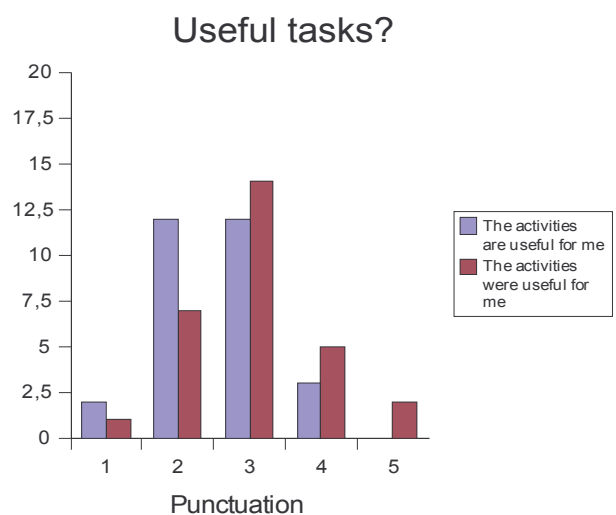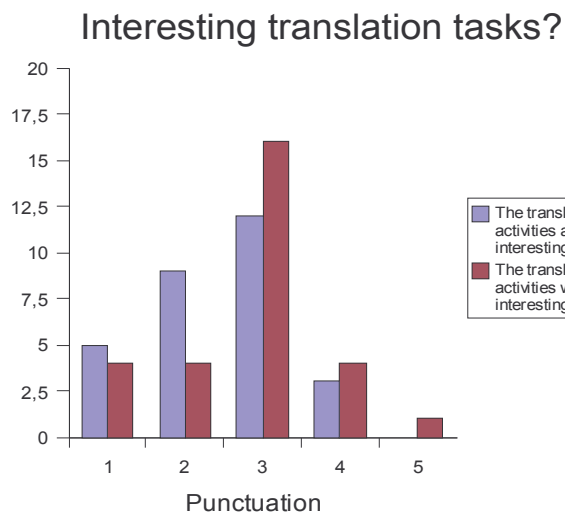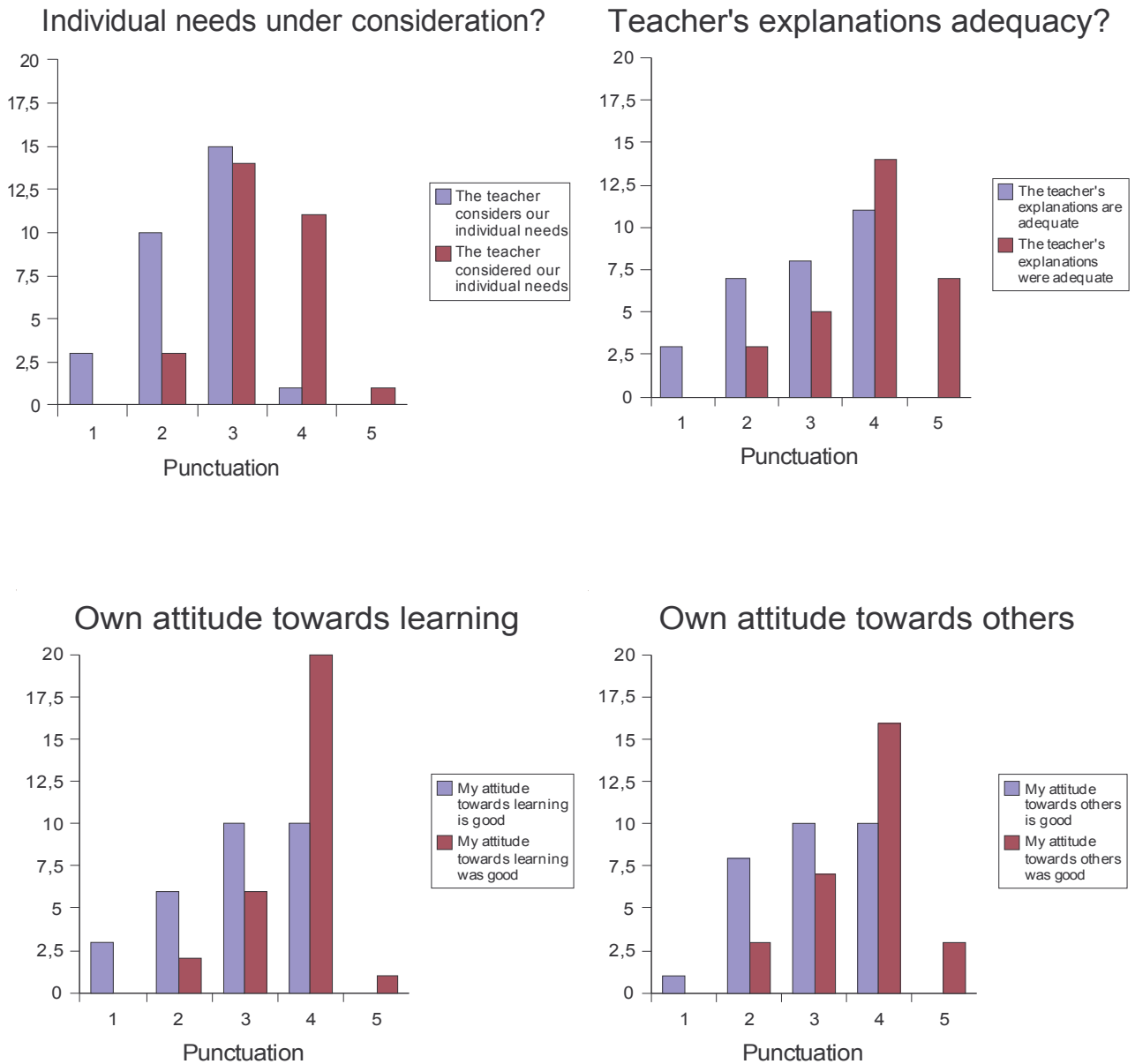
The evolution of the two graphics on the quality of the tasks being held in class is similar. Punctuation 1 and 2 were higher in the formative evaluation but punctuations 3, 4 and above all 5, were higher in the summative evaluation. The learners thought that the tasks were increasingly interesting and gradually more and more useful.

Concerning the teacher's performance, students consider that the teacher takes the individual needs more and more into consideration. Regarding the teacher's explanations, learners also rate them fairly high; in fact it is one of the highest rated statements.

Finally, the students have in quite good consideration their evolution related to their own attitude towards learning and towards others. As stated by the students, their own attitude was the thing that changed most during the credit either towards learning or towards others. This is good for the "affectivity" element in ADA.

5.1.5.10. Experimental group students' perceptions on translation

The students in the experimental group had to fill in a questionnaire to assess whether students considered translation tasks in the foreign language class and outside the classroom setting, to be helpful. They classified some items as: "sí" (yes), "a vegades" (sometimes) or "no" (see appendix 12).

Perceptions on translation			
	sí	a vegades	no
Quan sento algú parlar en anglès l'intento traduir per entendre'l.	13	12	1
Quan llegeixo un text en anglès les idees les capto directament en anglès.	2	16	8
Si comparo l'anglès amb les llengües que conec m'és més fàcil entendre'l.	11	10	5
Utilitzo més diccionaris monolingües que bilingües.	5	5	16
Quan parlo amb algú en anglès faig mentalment la traducció del que vull dir.	14	8	4
Si llegeixo un text en anglès i no sé un paraula, prefereixo que m'expliquin el seu significat en anglès i no que em donin una traducció.	5	10	11
Creus que t'és útil la traducció per aprendre l'anglès?	24	2	
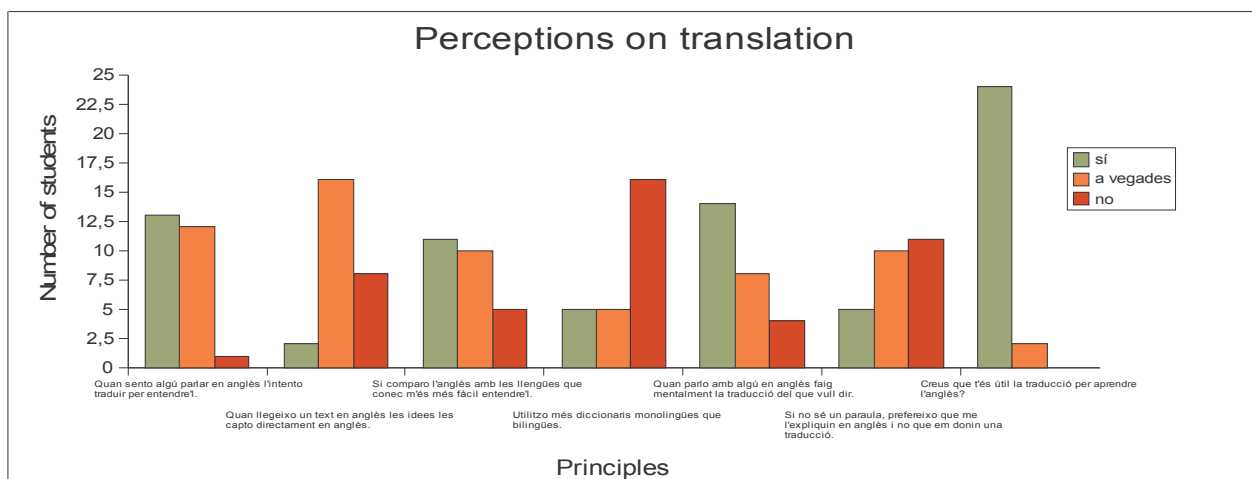
This questionnaire gives the teacher-researcher an idea of whether students considered translation in a positive or negative way. The entire graphic above shows

that translation is considered to be a very beneficial tool by students. Translation is important for the students, concerning the four skills. They state that comparing a FL with an L1 or L2 helps them a lot. Furthermore, to the last question on whether translation is useful to learn, no one answered negatively.

From the above graphic one can tell that learners in the experimental group translate a lot and rely a lot on their L1. If they use it so much, do they really know how to use translation appropriately?

5.1.5.11. Pre-evaluations, unit exams, and term and year marks: control and experimental group students

Marks were a very important issue for most of the students in the experimental group. This is something one can infer from many of their comments. Whenever a task was started, learners wanted to know if the teacher would mark it, for example.

For every unit students had to pass an exam. In most of the exams there were three parts:

1. a grammar part, where the grammar of the lesson was checked in context,
2. either a speaking section –where a personal interview was held with every student while others were doing the written part of the exam– or a listening section –where students had to answer some questions.
3. either a writing section –where students had to write about something concerning the topic of the unit– or a reading section –where learners had to read a text and either translate it (mostly the experimental group students) or answer some questions (mostly the control group students).

In total, learners had to do three exams in each term. That was a total of 9 exams. Finally, for the students who had not passed the subject, there was another final exam, the "sufficiency" exam (see appendix 29).

December the 3rd was the date the first term ended, March the 11th was the date the second term ended and June the 14th was the end of the third term (see point 4.3.4). As stated before there were not only the exams that served to evaluate students. The final year grades are, by and large, the most important ones for the students.

The results or marks of the experimental group were quite good. There was only one student who failed. He was a student who came from a lower group and he did not

want to do anything to improve his English. He just wanted the graduate title to go to help his family with their farm. On the other hand, there were three students who had an "excel.lent" and seven students who had a "notable". It was important that no one left school in the middle of the year.

The control group results were not as good. There were two students who left school without finishing their compulsory studies. There were also three students who changed group: two to a lower group and one to a higher group. Apart from that, there were six students who failed the subject at the end of the year. There was no "excel.lent" and there was just one "notable". As stated before, obviously the marks in this group did not have the same content value as the same marks in another level group. The marks are given according to the progress of every student, not according to the amount of knowledge they end up having.

Final results

	1rst term				2nd term				3rd term				Final year	
SS	conc1	proc1	attit1	final1	conc2	proc2	attit2	final2	conc3	proc3	attit3	final3		mark
1	7,00	7,00	8,00	7,20	6,50	6,70	8,50	7,00	7,00	7,00	9,00	7,40	7,20	NOTABLE
2	7,00	7,00	8,00	7,20	7,50	8,00	9,00	8,10	8,00	8,00	9,00	9,00	8,10	NOTABLE
3	9,00	7,00	8,00	7,80	8,00	6,50	8,00	7,30	8,50	8,50	9,00	9,00	8,03	NOTABLE
4	6,00	6,00	7,00	6,20	4,00	5,00	6,50	5,00	4,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,40	SUFICIENT
5	5,00	6,00	7,00	6,00	5,00	6,00	6,00	5,70	5,00	5,00	6,00	5,20	5,63	SUFICIENT
6	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,50	8,50	9,50	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	EXCEL·LENT
7	5,00	7,00	6,00	6,20	5,50	6,00	6,50	6,00	6,00	6,00	6,00	6,00	6,07	BÉ
8	5,00	5,00	6,00	6,20	4,00	6,00	5,00	5,20	6,00	5,50	6,00	5,80	5,73	SUFICIENT
9	8,00	8,00	9,00	8,02	8,50	8,00	9,00	8,40	9,00	8,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	EXCEL·LENT
10	5,00	6,00	7,50	6,00	4,00	6,00	5,00	5,20	5,00	5,00	6,00	5,20	5,47	SUFICIENT
11	5,00	6,50	6,70	6,10	4,00	5,00	5,50	4,70	4,00	6,00	4,00	4,00	4,93	SUFICIENT
12	6,50	8,00	8,00	7,60	6,00	8,00	8,00	7,40	8,00	7,00	9,00	7,70	7,57	NOTABLE
13	5,50	6,00	7,00	6,10	4,00	6,00	5,00	5,20	7,00	6,00	6,00	6,30	5,87	SUFICIENT
14	5,50	5,00	6,00	5,40	5,00	5,50	5,00	5,30	5,00	6,00	5,00	5,50	5,40	SUFICIENT
15	5,70	7,00	8,00	6,80	6,00	7,00	8,50	7,00	5,50	7,00	6,00	6,40	6,73	BÉ
16	6,00	6,00	7,00	6,20	5,00	6,00	6,00	5,70	5,00	5,00	6,00	5,20	5,70	SUFICIENT
17	6,00	6,00	7,00	6,20	4,00	5,50	5,00	5,00	4,00	5,00	5,00	4,70	5,30	SUFICIENT
18	7,00	5,00	5,00	5,60	6,50	6,00	7,00	6,40	7,00	7,00	9,00	7,40	6,47	BÉ
19	5,00	6,00	7,50	6,00	4,00	5,00	5,00	4,70	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,23	SUFICIENT
20					4,00	4,00	4,00	4,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	4,00	***INSUFICIENT***
21	7,00	6,50	7,00	6,50	6,00	6,00	6,00	6,00	5,00	5,00	6,00	5,20	5,90	SUFICIENT
22	7,50	8,00	8,00	7,90	6,50	8,00	9,00	7,80	8,50	8,50	9,00	9,00	8,23	NOTABLE
23	5,00	7,00	8,00	6,60	5,50	8,00	8,00	7,30	6,00	7,00	6,00	6,50	6,80	BÉ
24	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	EXCEL·LENT
25	7,00	6,00	7,00	6,50	5,50	5,00	4,00	5,00	6,00	6,00	6,00	6,00	5,83	SUFICIENT
26	8,00	7,00	8,00	7,50	8,00	8,00	9,00	8,20	8,00	9,00	9,00	9,00	8,23	NOTABLE
27	4,00	6,00	7,00	5,60	4,00	4,00	6,00	4,40	6,00	6,00	6,00	6,00	5,33	SUFICIENT
28	7,00	6,00	6,00	6,30	8,70	9,50	9,00	9,20	8,00	8,00	7,00	7,80	7,77	NOTABLE
29	5,50	6,00	7,00	6,10	5,50	6,50	7,00	6,30	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,80	SUFICIENT

Experimental group

	Number of:	
	Insuficient	1
	Suficient	14
	Bé	4
	Notable	4
	Excel·lent	3

	1rst term				2nd term				3rd term				Final year	
SS	**conc1**	**proc1**	**attit1**	**final1**	**conc2**	**proc2**	**attit2**	**final2**	**conc3**	**proc3**	**attit3**	**final3**		**mark**
30	5,00	5,00	6,00	5,20	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,50	5,00	6,00	5,40	5,00	SUFICIENT
31	5,00	3,00	5,00	4,00	4,00	4,00	5,00	4,20	4,00	4,00	4,00	4,00	4,00	*INSUFICIENT*
32	6,00	5,50	6,00	5,80	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	6,00	5,00	4,00	5,10	5,00	SUFICIENT
33	5,00	4,00	6,00	5,00	4,00	4,00	5,00	4,20	4,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	SUFICIENT
34	4,00	5,00	5,00	4,70	4,00	5,00	5,00	4,70						
35	5,50	5,00	5,00	5,20	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00						
36	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,50	5,00	5,00	5,20	5,50	5,00	4,00	5,00	5,00	SUFICIENT
37	5,00	5,00	6,00	5,20	4,00	4,00	5,00	4,20	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	SUFICIENT
38	5,00	6,00	5,00	5,50	5,50	5,00	4,00	5,00	4,00	5,00	5,00	4,70	4,00	*INSUFICIENT*
39	4,00	5,00	4,00	4,50	5,00	5,00	6,00	5,20	6,00	5,70	6,00	6,00	5,00	SUFICIENT
40	5,50	5,00	6,00	5,40	4,00	5,00	5,00	4,70	4,00	5,00	4,00	4,50	4,00	*INSUFICIENT*
41	4,50	5,00	5,50	5,00	4,00	5,00	5,00	4,70	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	4,00	*INSUFICIENT*
42	4,00	5,00	4,00	4,50										
44	8,00	7,00	9,00	7,70	7,00	8,00	8,00	7,70	7,00	5,00	6,00	6,00	7,00	NOTABLE
45	4,00	5,00	6,00	4,90	4,00	5,00	5,00	4,70	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	SUFICIENT
46	4,00	5,00	4,00	4,50	4,00	5,00	5,00	4,70	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	SUFICIENT
47	5,00	6,00	5,50	5,60	4,00	4,00	4,00	4,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	4,00	*INSUFICIENT*
48	5,50	6,00	5,00	5,70	6,00	5,00	5,00	5,30	7,00	6,00	7,00	6,50	6,00	BÉ
49	6,00	6,00	6,00	6,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	6,00	5,00	6,00	5,50	5,00	SUFICIENT
50	4,00	6,00	4,00	5,00	4,00	4,00	5,00	4,20	4,00	4,00	5,00	4,20	4,00	*INSUFICIENT*
51	6,00	5,00	4,00	5,10	5.5	5,00	4,00	5,00	6,00	4,70	5,00	5,20	5,00	SUFICIENT
52	5,50	6,00	6,00	5,90	6,00	5,00	5,00	5,30	5,00	6,00	6,00	5,70	5,00	SUFICIENT

Control group

Number of:		
	Insuficient	6
	Suficient	10
	Bé	1
	Notable	1
	Excel·lent	0

Despite the fact that for the experimental group the 2004-2005 academic year was very difficult, one can notice from the results that only one student failed in his final year marks. One can see the evolution of the results in concepts, procedures and attitude. The marks for the three aspects in the main went down through the second term. All the other teachers agreed on the fact that learners worked less than they could. Concerning the control group, their marks also decreased but the change in attitude was by and large worse among students in the experimental group.

As stated before, the experimental group had always been a quite difficult group (concerning group dynamics), but had never had such low marks before. Most of them

were boys and girls who studied quite a lot and, consequently, their results were normally very positive. On the contrary, the control group was a group of students with a rather constant evolution.

Though it is true that during the 4th of ESO, learners generally lose concentration on their studies and get lower marks during a term, the number of failed students in more than two subjects worried teachers a lot. That is why, general meetings among teachers, with parents and teachers, and teachers and students were held in the school to try to improve the situation.

The 4th of ESO coordinator made some graphics to represent the situation for every individual, the quantity of failed subjects for every group class and the quantity of students who could have their graduate title on April the 29th (see appendix 32). From these graphics one can infer that:

- in the 4th of ESO class A the number of students who got a pass in the English subject was: 17. Apart from natural sciences, physical education, music and technology, English was the highest punctuated subject.

- In the 4th of ESO class B the number of students who got a pass in the English subject was: 15. The quantity of students who failed the English subject was higher than most of the other subjects.

- In the 4th of ESO class C the number of students who got a pass in the English subject was: 19. It was the highest number of students who got a pass from all the subjects. Only the Spanish subject equalled this number.

The majority of the students in the experimental group were from the C class. So the results above exposed show a quite interesting view of the English positive results compared to other subjects the students had. In the English class, the marks may have been the effect of the application of ADA.

Summing up, despite the fact that the 2004-2005 academic year was a difficult year for the learners, the final year results were quite good for the experimental group. Again, only one student failed the English subject in front of the six students who failed the subject in the control group. The percentage of "suficients" is proportional in the two groups: control and experimental. The number of students with a "bé", a "notable" or an "excel·lent" is by far larger in the experimental group. This means that regardless of the difficult year, the experimental group got much higher marks than the control group.

5.1.5.12. Appropriateness of different activities, tasks and projects according to the students in the experimental group and the teacher-researcher

A questionnaire on the perception of different statements during some tasks was filled by the students and the teacher-researcher. The statements –(a) whether they felt motivated, b) whether accuracy played an important role, c) whether the task dealt with culture in any way, d) whether the material was appropriate, e) whether the teacher guided the task properly, f) whether their Multiple Intelligences were taken into account in that particular task and, finally, g) whether they found appropriate the implication of translation in the task– were related to the three hypotheses (see appendix 23 and 24).

Every statement had to be punctuated with 0 if the answer to the statement was: no, 1 if the answer was: so and so, and 2 if the answer was: yes. The punctuations for each statement were added and a mark was given for each task. This last mark is the one represented in the graphics.

<div align="center">Tasks abbreviations</div>

Fruit connection	fc	What is your partner thinking?	wpt
Three house description	3hd	Model machine	mm
Famous people	fp	The odd gadget	og
A woman on a roof	wor	Funny game	fg
Written conversation	wc	Mirror and water	mw
Computer project	cp	Dominoe	d
In a former life I was	flw	Possible, likely & impossible	pli
Obituary notice	on	The fortune teller	ft
Garfield	g	Future drawings	fd
Drawings and sentences	d&s	Desert Island	di
The wise old man	wm	If I… chain	ic
Doctor, doctor jokes	dj	What would you do if…	wyd
Scissors and experiences	se	Funny jokes worksheet	fjw
T&F connection	tfc	Attractive words	aw
Who's the agent?	wa	Achievents in life	al
Whisper dictation	wd	Moster maths	mrm
Well-known people passives	wpp	Brain teaser	bt
Is it true for you?	ity	Imagine an answer	ia
2 boxes	2b	Crazy story	cs
Sounds interpretation	Si	The present	p
Imagine a biscuit	b		

All tasks were abbreviated to be able to fit in the students' and the teacher's graphics.

Appropriateness of different activities, tasks and projects according to the students
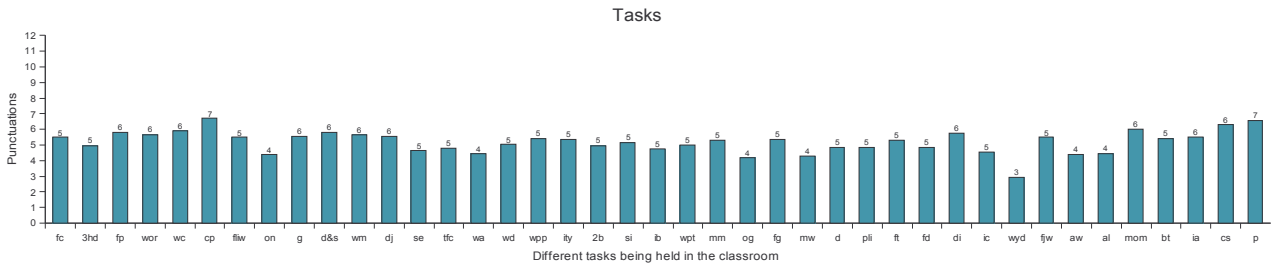
Tasks

Appropriateness of different activities, tasks and projects according to the teacher-researcher
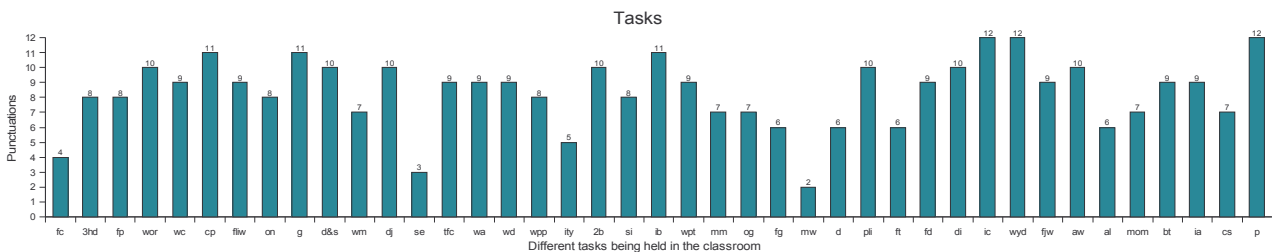
Tasks

The above tasks were, once more, rated by the students as well as by the teacher-researcher. The ones which were rated the highest by the learners were not the ones they considered to be the most useful for them, but the most amusing ones. The teacher-researcher thinks that even though she controlled the gradual completion of the chart, some of the students wrote the numbers randomly, without taking much notice of the content of what they were asked.

According to the teacher-researcher's opinion on the adequacy of the different activities, the tasks were generally rather suitable. It might be due to the fact that inevitably, the teacher-researcher did not have only the experimental group activity process and results in mind, but also the process and results of the activity when it was performed by the pilot group. The highest rated tasks by the students, which were: *Computer project* and *Present,* were also among the highest valued by the teacher-researcher. But on the contrary, the lowest rated activities by the teacher-researcher were not among the lowest rated activities by the students. It might be because the

students spent a great time with them but the teacher-researcher considered the tasks were not as productive as she had thought at the beginning.

5.1.5.13. Experimental group students' video and audio recordings

Taking all the objectives of this educational research into consideration, the interpretation of the recordings have been classified according to different parameters, following the teacher-researcher's diary interpretation model:

- Evidence of students' positive and/or negative attitudes

- Evidence of the improvement on the use of translation

- Evidence of dealing with multiculturality

- Evidence of considering ADA

- Evidence of reading accuracy improvement

First of all, it should be clarified that during the first minute or two, students played with the recording material: waving, making odd faces, changing places, etc. After a while, and as can be seen from their attitude, learners did not normally remember that there was a camera recording their words and/or movements. However, in only one activity, when the teacher-researcher thought learners did not remember the camera, there was a reference to the camera after 15 minutes: "xupant camera"; and then, after 19 minutes, there was another reference to the camera: "Ésto comporta presión". The curious thing was that every time it was the same person who reminded the others about the camera. While this person was playing his role in the small group he seemed to forget about the camera as he insulted another student, for example. But then, suddenly, he remembered the camera again. Though camcorders and audio recorders are intrusive elements, the teacher-researcher thinks they do not prevent anything from happening.

- **Evidence of students' positive and/or negative attitudes**

In the recordings' transcriptions it can be figured out that the members of the experimental group were fairly competitive. In the audio recording, for example, one could hear how one student had even asked a Catalan teacher from another cycle about a word she wanted to use in a translation, in order to get better results than some of her

classmates. Due to this competition, it was hard to obtain volunteers to start a task; they preferred to watch first. However, after the first person had participated, most of them even got upset if they could not participate actively in every task proposed.

There were people in the classroom who were not well considered and not integrated in the class. This could be seen in the *What would you do if…?* video recording or even in the audio recording. The leader student in the audio recording group, admitted –after saying that everything was a joke– he had been quite cruel to another student. Sometimes even the tutor and/or the school psychologist were called to work together to find a solution. Once, the psychologist explained that for the following year he was planning to create a "mediation" group among students to stop misunderstandings in the school setting. Summing up, the atmosphere among students themselves was slightly tense. Even though the teacher-researcher tried to mitigate its effects, this goes beyond the scope of the English classroom.

There are many ways to get in good rapport with the students; the teacher-researcher used irony in *The fortune teller* video recording.

S15: Tinc un problema.

T: Just one? (Meaning he was lucky.)

S15: I don't have the life line.

T: That's a very big problem! (With emphasis, meaning it was not important.)

Is this a self protection mechanism? The teacher-researcher thinks every teacher has a specific way to deal with students to get closer to them. The teacher-researcher has used irony for many years and it has worked either to stop disruptive students or to get in affinity with the rest of the learners. Being in good rapport with learners is the first step to get them involved in what happens in the classroom setting.

- **Evidence of the improvement of the use of translation**

Though the students should not rely too much on their L1, according to the video recording of the *Famous People* task, the students use translation a lot. Learners request a translation from the teacher directly: "Com es diu 'porta'?" or indirectly: "His girlfriend… 'està prenyada'?" The teacher-researcher tries to show that there is not an only translation, so she offers many possible answers, and learners have to choose the one that suits their sentences best. This need to rely on the L1 is also present when, from an English word, learners require a Catalan or Spanish word. When students ask "Què

vol dir això?" they do not expect the teacher-researcher to mime or give them synonyms (which is what she normally does), they want the word in their L1, otherwise they, themselves, translate the words and ask for confirmation.

Students, according to the video recording of the *Possible, unlikely and impossible clauses* task, need clear Catalan instructions to avoid failure; again, the students in that group were very competitive. Thus, after an English explanation, a normal question the teacher-researcher heard was "Així… què hem de fer?" after explaining again the instructions in English and hearing the same question again and again, the last option was to let someone be the interpreter. Sometimes it was not needed and sometimes they also asked the teacher for further clarifications, but always in their L1. The teacher-researcher's answer was normally once more in English and the process started over again. As one notes from the video recording transcriptions, at the beginning of the school year, this process is repeated many times while at the end of the school year students do not need so much repetition or clarification.

Among students, either direct or indirect translations were useful for them as one could notice in the audio recording.

S23: "Injustícies socials" no, "injustícia social", "social injustice", no "social injustices".

Group translation tasks, were –as stated by the students in a classroom debate– very useful because one could check other versions and compare them with their own. And classmates could also make peers realise they were not right.

In line with what can be read in the teacher-researcher's diary, in the audio recording one can notice that learners realised that more than one version is possible for the same text: "el més petit error", "el menor dels errors", "el mínim error".

As one can realise from the *Who is the agent?* video recording transcriptions, though the teacher-researcher normally uses the FL in the class to communicate with the students, she sometimes changes into Catalan whenever she thinks it convenient (maybe to get closer to the students, maybe because of the learners' insistence to explain something in Catalan or maybe to catch someone's attention).

Talking about the language, either in Catalan or in English, is fantastic, as can be inferred from this audio recording transcription, for example:

S23: "Autor" més que "escriptor"?

S17: Entre "orfe pobre" i "pobre orfe" sí que hi ha diferència!

S24: "Está en pasado o en presente?"

This means that students deepen in the structure and meaning of a given text and study the grammar of the target as well as of the source language.

In the audio recordings, one can hear that three languages are used simultaneously –two to speak about the other, and this is very enriching. The languages used were: English, Spanish and Catalan. In the same utterance, for example, someone said: "The smallest. Uno. Et donen poc menjar."

• **Evidence of dealing with multiculturality**

All activities involve, in some way, a cultural reflection. The reference on this cultural reflection is always the students' own culture (Catalan, Spanish or others). However, many different tasks focus specifically on the Anglo-Saxon culture as it is the culture of the language object of study.

While talking about daily routines of famous people, for example, the students have to be aware that the routines change depending on the country the person is living in. In *A famous person's life* learners had to reflect on where the famous people were from and what would they be doing at different times of the day. So, cultural references were obvious.

• **Evidence of considering ADA**

According to the psychological context, there are, in the video recordings, several references where the teacher-researcher encourages the students with a pleasant word. The teacher also uses humour to make the students feel relaxed and to create a more relaxed atmosphere.

As it can be seen from the video recordings, the physical context is carefully preserved. Many tasks take place in the English classroom and although the chairs are not too comfortable, they can quickly be arranged in different ways, for example.

Regarding the pedagogical context, as can be deduced from the transcriptions, the activities tend to be quite different and involve as many Multiple Intelligences as

possible in a way or another. For example, the *Famous people dice* task tries to involve kinaesthetic as well as spatial, logical, linguistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences and somehow the existential, naturalist and musical, depending on the famous people chosen. The teacher-researcher encourages the learners to think, and learners react to what is required from them.

In line with what one can read in the teacher-researcher's diary and as one can notice from the *Well-known people passives* video recording, the students' self-corrections were really useful. The teacher-researcher tried to encourage learners to perceive their errors not as failures but as means to improve, as NLP encourages (see point 1.1.4.12). It was maybe because of the fact that while doing a whole class task, the teacher-researcher first gave students the possibility for self-correction; then if it was not properly corrected, she indicated to another student to help; finally, the last step, if the solution was not found, and/or if she considered it necessary, was the teacher-researcher's intervention. Another way to correct students without interrupting too much the class pace is through repetition. The teacher-researcher repeated some statements wrongly produced by the students, corrected. This can be seen in the *Possible, unlikely and impossible clauses* task video recording transcriptions:

S6: If written two times "if".
T: Twice "if" [12], yes.

Another type of correction was the one showed by the audio recording, group correction: "Dickens como un niño" sería "Dickens de pequeño". Self-correction was also present in the audio recording.

S23: Yo estaba equivocado, "més estimats" está mal; sería "més apreciats".

Again, similar to what was said in the teacher-researcher's diary about the auditive people, as can be seen in the *Remember your classmates* video recording, some auditive people need to produce an oral outcome to be able to notice their mistakes.

S24: "Apuesta por la pobreza" ¡queda fatal!

That is why the teacher-researcher tries to create many diverse situations for all the students with different perceptual styles to make the most of them all.

_____

[12] This can be somehow considered a feature of Motherese or Parentese: repeating what the child attempts to say, in the right way (see point 1.1.1.2).

Concerning the <u>sociological context</u>, as can be seen from the audio transcriptions, students were not very respectful among themselves and so action was taken by the tutors, teachers and the school pedagogue (e.g. individual interviews). Nevertheless, the teacher-researcher encouraged group work and the groups had to vary from one task to the next to try to increase social inclusion.

- **Evidence of reading accuracy improvement**

Many of the activities recorded dealt with the understanding of a text. The clearest way to see the improvement in reading accuracy is to look at the first recordings and the last ones. As many tasks involved translation activities, the most precise way to see the learners' progress is through the resulting texts. At the beginning of the academic year in the resulting texts there were many comprehension errors, while at the end of the school year the quantity and quality of errors decreased in number and importance.

One thing for the teacher-researcher to improve according to the video recordings was that she said "OK" and "very good" too often. In order to catch more the students' attention, the teacher should use a wider range of ways to appraise good jobs: "fantastic", "fine", "great", "excellent", "that's it", "superb", "wonderful", "good job", etc.

5.1.5.14. Experimental group students' initial and summative written comments

Students had some open questions in their initial and summative evaluation worksheets where they could write their comments freely. The teacher-researcher classified all the answers and these are the results:

Initial evaluation comments

What do I expect from the activities?
- Que siguin divertides,
- entretingudes,

- que em serveixin per aprendre i

- que no siguin les típiques de sempre.

What do I expect from the teacher?

- Que ensenyi bé,

- que puguem aprendre d'ella i

- "que la profesora ens tradueixi si no entenem alguna cosa".

What do I expect from myself?

- Esforçar-me,

- aprendre,

- aprovar i

- anar ben preparat al batxillerat.

The students' expectations concerning the tasks at the beginning of the year, according to the students' initial comments, were varied but they all converged in similar guidelines. Learners wanted the tasks to be amusing and entertaining. They wanted to learn through the different activities and they also wanted them to be "different" (not the typical ones).

The students' expectations concerning the teacher at the beginning of the year, according to the students' initial comments, were clear. They wanted to be able to learn from the teacher. They also wanted her to explain appropriately. Finally, 17,2% of the students wrote something related to translation. They thought that what could be helpful for them was that the teacher translated the words they did not understand, for example.

Students themselves, at the beginning of the year and again, according to the students' initial written comments, thought that they had to make an effort to learn, to strive to pass and to get good marks.

Summative evaluation written comments

The answer to the question: **What activities did I like the most or what did I find most useful?** 96,5% of the students answered: translation activities. Only 3,5% of the students placed translation activities on: **What did I find most boring?** Apart from

that, other interesting opinions were the ones that showed the students interest for new technologies and specially for computers. Also they congratulate the teacher for having spoken to them mainly in English.

Finally, what is crucial is that some learners appreciated the work the teacher did on multiculturality with them, as they said they had learned a lot about cultural differences.

5.1.5.15. Teacher-researcher's initial, formative and summative written comments

The teacher-researcher had free questions to write her comments during the initial, formative and summative evaluation. These are the results:

Initial evaluation comments

The teacher-researcher main objectives are helping students to:

- attain a good degree of reading accuracy,
- use translation properly,
- be motivated to learn,
- understand other cultures' values,
- communicate.

The teacher-researcher expects:

- the activities to be useful and enjoying,
- the students to be interested and to learn,
- to attend diversity as much as possible.

The teacher-researcher thinks:

- reading accuracy can be improved making students read more and do comprehension activities such as translations, discussions, answering exercises, etc.
- Students can be motivated through a good preparation of every activity to be done, and if the teacher-researcher herself is motivated to do the activity.

- Learners can realise the cultural differences among the different societies teaching them the different backgrounds, social milieux, etc.

- Students would be more aware of their use of translation if translations become part of their classroom activities.

Finally, the more students and teachers know about individuals, the most respectful they will be concerning individual needs.

Formative evaluation comments

Always according to the teacher-researcher:

- the teaching practice can be improved not rushing or trying to do every single activity planned, but doing the tasks slowly and spending the time needed on each and every one of them.

- Giving "presents" to the best students is, in the teacher-researcher's opinion, a step towards success with the experimental group of students. One can deduce that immediate outer motivation works better with this group than inner motivation.

- The students' opinions should be taken more into account as individuals tend to know what they want.

- More cultural activities should also be prepared as learners asked to know more about other cultures.

Summative evaluation comments

The teacher-researcher thinks taking the MI into account was very valuable, but the problem was that there were too many students in the same group to be able to consider individual learning styles appropriately. Thus, the teacher-researcher tended to group the students and emphasize tasks for the different intelligences.

Apart from lecturing, the teacher-researcher analysed her own teaching. The teacher-researcher was quite satisfied with the job done, although she realised that all activities could be improved in a way or another. The improvement would depend on the group of students being taught. In the experimental group, the topics in the unit, for example, were not for the students as interesting as the teacher-researcher thought they could be at the beginning of the year. Some of the content was already known or was

not appealing enough for some learners and that is why they were not as motivated as they could have been. However, in line with the students' written comments, the activities were planned to be useful and amusing.

Respect was the main guideline during the English class. Everybody was called to participate either giving personal opinions on specific topics, or giving general ideas on what was being said. As stated by the teacher-researcher's initial written comments, learners could improve their different cultural perceptions through an increasing amount of cultural and social references.

Again, in the teacher-researcher's initial evaluation comments, one can read that the more individuals learn about other individuals, the more respectful they would be towards difference. Activities related to cultural distinction were very important for the students as they understood that the more they knew about the society object of study, the better they would understand other societies and the texts with situational cues. And so they would improve their general reading accuracy.

As indicated by the teacher-researcher's summative evaluation comments, cultural activities helped them in the interpretation not only of written texts but of oral dialogues, present day films, songs, etc. According to the teacher-researcher's evaluation on motivation, accuracy and multiculturality, students finally understood other ways of life and, apart from that, learners improved their knowledge on how English people live.

Translation tasks were really successful because, contrary to what the teacher-researcher thought, learners found the translation tasks proposed very interesting and different from the regular ones. Hence, students felt comfortable using translation tasks in the classroom setting.

As "new technologies" equal success in motivating students, computers were used rather frequently. The first project, which was to prepare a real trip, was really successful. And one of the most flourishing projects of the whole year according to the teacher-researcher's diary was the one that started in the computer room and finished on the stage of the theatre with an adaptation of: *A Christmas Carol*.

According to the teacher-researcher's formative evaluation comments, the teaching practice could be improved by slowing down the pace of teaching. As one can see from the *Looking into the future* video recording, the teacher-researcher goes too quickly doing and correcting the activities. A complete solution was not given by the students and the teacher-researcher said the answer. "Sempre vas depressa, senyo. T'ho

has d'agafar d'una altra manera" was a commentary of a 4th of ESO student. Once more, the students' opinions should be taken more into account because learners transmit to teachers, directly or indirectly, ways to improve the teaching practice.

5.1.5.16. Teacher-researcher's formative and summative evaluation questionnaires

The teacher-researcher had to write an X under "yes", "sometimes" or "no", to evaluate some items concerning the three hypotheses. These evaluations were done at two moments during the academic year: in the middle and at the end of the year.

If the evolution went from "yes" to "sometimes" or to "no" or from "sometimes" to "no" it was an inappropriate evolution. If it went from "sometimes" to "yes" or from "no" to "sometimes" or to "yes" it was a desirable evolution. If the X remained in the same place, it means that there was no evolution.

Formative and summative evaluation on motivation, accuracy and multiculturality						
Motivation	**formative**			**summative**		
	yes	**sometimes**	**no**	**yes**	**sometimes**	**no**
Do my students like the activities we are doing?	x				x	
Do I consider students' interests?		x		x		
Do I ask and listen to my students' suggestions?			x	x		
Reading accuracy	**formative**			**summative**		
	yes	**sometimes**	**no**	**yes**	**sometimes**	**no**
Do my students learn new vocabulary?	x			x		
Do my students improve their grammar?		x		x		
Do my students use English appropriately?		x			x	
Multiculturality	**formative**			**summative**		
	yes	**sometimes**	**no**	**yes**	**sometimes**	**no**
Do my students try to understand the English way of life?	x			x		
Do my students learn how English people live?		x		x		
Do my students notice the difference between Britain and Catalonia?		x			x	

The experimental group, according to their previous year teachers, is formed by many lively students. At the beginning of the year, the students in that group were quite motivated, but during the second term, as stated before, their motivation and their marks decreased. This was also reflected in the teacher-researcher's motivation, accuracy and multiculturality evaluation. The students' couldn't-care-less attitude worried all the teachers, so much that it was decided to call all the parents to a general meeting and try to find out a solution (see also point 5.1.5.11). An idea-sharing session with parents and teachers redirected somehow the enthusiasm of some of the students. The learners' motivation was mostly external. Their enthusiasm also improved with other types of motivations, such as presents (sweets, agendas from publishing houses, pencils, etc.). Presents also worked to withdraw the students' attention from the marks –vital for some

of them and their parents, to something else. Once more, according to the teacher-researcher's evaluation on motivation, accuracy and multiculturality, students' interests were also considered due to the fact that learners were more confident to express their preferences, and during the third term the teacher-researcher was more open to listen to the students' suggestions.

Although the reading accuracy degree of the students decreased during the second term, according to the teacher-researcher's evaluation on motivation, accuracy and multiculturality, it increased during the third term.

Finally, regarding multiculturality, the only statement that suffered an appropriate evolution was the statement: "Do my students learn how English people live?" So, the teacher-researcher, contrary to what students thought (see point 5.1.5.8) senses multiculturality did not improve as it should have done it.

5.1.5.17. Teacher-researcher's formative and summative evaluation questionnaires

The teacher-researcher had to evaluate affirmatively 🙂 or negatively 🙁 some statements in the middle and at the end of the application of the research.

The evolution (formative-summative evaluation) of the different items can be:

- from red to green: there is an improvement,
- from green to green or from red to red: the situation remains the same, and
- from green to red: the situation worsens.

Formative evaluation
Do I teach at an appropriate rate?
Do I teach at an appropriate level?
Do I consider individual needs?
Do I use appropriate material?
Do I use new technologies?
Do I encourage every student?
Do I give them enough opportunities to practice English?
Do I think the activities are appropriate?
Do I think I use too many translation activities?
Do I think translation helps them to learn?
Summative evaluation
Have I taught at an appropriate rate?
Have I taught at an appropriate level?
Have I considered individual needs?
Have I used appropriate material?
Have I used new technologies?
Have I encouraged every student?
Have I given them enough opportunities to practice English?
Do I think the activities were appropriate?
Do I think I used too many translation activities?
Do I think translation helped them learn?

At the beginning of the school year the teacher-researcher taught quite quickly (see also point 5.1.5.15), but then she slowed down to adapt herself to most of the students in the different classes. Thus, after a term, the teacher-researcher considered she had improved her teaching rate.

In the teacher-researcher's diary (see appendix 17) one can read that the teacher-researcher's sensations can be very different from reality. For example, while doing the *Scissors and experiences* task, the teacher-researcher thought she was clarifying the students' doubts, but it was the other way round. Students ended up being very confused. So, while the teacher-researcher considered that she was teaching at an appropriate rate and level, it could be only a subjective appreciation. Thanks to most of the students' comments, the teacher-researcher could confirm the positive assumptions.

It is particularly hard to consider individual needs with big groups, but the sensation of the teacher-researcher was that through different means she did it. This also can be confirmed with the students' evaluation questionnaire (see point 5.1.5.8). Nevertheless, to another statement related: "every student is encouraged" the teacher-researcher in the formative as well as in the summative evaluation answered negatively. So, one can deduce that there is still work to be done.

As to the material, one can infer that appropriate material was used and new technologies were taken into consideration according always to the teacher-researcher.

As maintained in the teacher-researcher's evaluation questionnaire, she thought she did not use too many translation activities, owing to the fact that students seemed to like them. Concerning the statement about the exploitation of translation tasks and their uses, she felt they helped students to learn. Thus, one could infer that the amount and the quality of the activities used during the action-research were appropriate.

The teacher-researcher also thought she improved in giving more opportunities to students to practice English inside and outside the classroom setting. Some suggestions of different films were made, graded readers were proposed, different web sites were recommended, etc. But language teachers as a general rule always want learners to practice more the language being taught.

5.1.6 Conclusions

Human grouping varies a lot depending on the individuals involved. This should be made clear before going on with the action-research conclusions for very particular groups. That is why we have to remember that this quasi-experimental educational action-research does not aim at being conclusive.

The quantitative and qualitative methods to collect data to guide the research have been proved useful to monitor the different contexts ADA is framed in:

- Psychological context
    a. Are students engaged?
    b. Do students believe in themselves?
    c. Do students experience different emotions during the English lesson?

        d. Do students feel well?

        e. Does the teacher take into account the student's personal world?

- Physical context

        a. Are the physical and environmental factors taken into consideration?

- Pedagogical context

        a. Are the aims made clear and decided together with the students?

        b. Is the input a bit above the students' level?

        c. Are tasks varied and creative?

        d. Are students learning in context?

        e. Are all the skills exploited?

        f. Is the information displayed according to the different perceptual styles?

        g. Are the MI taken into account?

        h. Is feedback received positively?

- Social context

        a. Are communication tasks carried out in the classroom setting?

        b. Is group work fostered?

        c. Are students among themselves and with the teacher in good rapport?

        d. Is inclusion cultivated?

        e. Is cultural awareness promoted?

        f. Are real-life situations used?

        g. Is positive thinking encouraged?

All the information collected served to give an answer to one or several of these issues and helped to improve and/or redirect the research. Thus, in the teacher-researcher opinion, any type of quantitative and qualitative device to see the evolution of the application of the Affectivity and Diversity Approach was of utmost importance.

This research set out to prove three hypotheses, which are going to be revised here, and consequently some conclusions are going to be drawn.

H$_1$. **Motivation** in the English class improves if translation activities that explore ADA are implemented. This hypothesis was studied through quantitative data taken from the teacher-researcher's diary.

The most useful information about students' motivation from the teacher-researcher's diary is the students' reactions, the students' individual interviews and the classroom debates where students expressed their ideas about the English class.

Despite the fact that learners were not very eager to show, in front of their classmates, their good feelings for the tasks carried out in the classroom setting, they told students in the control group they were doing some pretty amusing activities. Besides, individual interviews (where learners were alone with the teacher-researcher, that is to say, without the group to support their couldn't-care-less attitude) also helped the teacher-researcher to frame the students' thoughts. During classroom debates, learners also tended to put across their feelings about the subject matter; most of them were really encouraging. On the contrary, the control group students were less and less motivated due to the fact that they perceived the teacher had a preference for the experimental group students. Although the teacher-researcher did not realise it, it may be true that owing to this research, she was more involved at a personal level with the experimental group; she enjoyed herself more and consequently the experimental group students spent a better time than the control group students. This is something the teacher-researcher has learned through the analysis of the students' comments and she will mean to improve it in further research.

As the teacher-researcher's diary elucidates, many students relied too much on their L1 and did not know exactly how to do so in an effective way. Through the use of translation activities that took ADA into consideration, students could trust themselves more and could use translation and their L1 more appropriately. Hence, whenever they used translation their results were better and so they were encouraged to learn more.

Finally, it can be concluded that the experimental group students' attitude towards the different tasks and their attitude towards learning in general improved a great deal from the beginning of the academic year, when they mostly started the tasks with an unenthusiastic mind-set.

H_2. The explicit use of translation framed by ADA can lead to a significant improvement in English **reading accuracy**. This hypothesis was tested quantitatively through a pre- and post-test.

Comparing the control and experimental group results of these tests one can infer that it is obvious that the tasks planned were especially useful to improve reading accuracy.

The students' L1 helped the teacher-researcher to check comprehension as well as to correct misinterpretations of texts. It was also valuable to discuss on the errors made. Thus, communicative translation tasks were rather useful.

The translation tasks were planned to involve the different perceptual styles and engage every student during some precise moments of the academic year. Obviously, and also to take on every learner, the consideration of ADA also helped them to be fully engaged in at least some of the activities planned. This engagement was useful and necessary for most of the students whose types of intelligence were hardly ever taken into consideration in the foreign language classroom.

H_3. **Multiculturality**. The consideration and work on ADA while dealing with English texts makes students improve their cultural awareness of the Anglo-Saxon world. This hypothesis was checked quantitatively through a pre- and post-test.

Despite the fact that during the first term the teacher-researcher realised that not a lot of emphasis was put on multiculturality in the English class, during the second and third term cultural differences became a central issue with the experimental and control group students. The teacher-researcher only focussed on ADA while dealing with multiculturality in the experimental group. This was done through spotlighting diverse topics in the different tasks.

Nevertheless, the variation on the tests' results for the control and experimental group do not show a meaningful progress. This may be because debates on multiculturality were richer and more productive in the control group due to the fact that in this group there were a larger number of immigrants than in the experimental group.

Having ADA in mind does help students develop all kinds of diverse skills that may be dormant, such as all types of intelligences. The consideration of NLP has also turned out to be helpful as its life philosophy is positive, and that is what a lot of the students needed: to see their lives in a positive way. Finally, another factor was the use of translation in the foreign language class. One can tell that through the proper use of

translation, 1) students did not need to rely so much on their L1 in role-plays and other communicative activities and 2) their text interpretations improved.

Summing up, while students' motivation and reading accuracy increased a lot in the experimental group, multiculturality awareness increased much less. Although the results on the three hypotheses are positive, the H_3 results are far lower than expected and cannot be considered meaningful.

V. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

Discussions, conclusions and further research

The results set out in this dissertation can be classified as partial and final results. The big amount of partial results collected all the way through the research process has been very useful to redirect the educational action-research application. These partial results come from the analysis on quantitative data taken from questionnaires, unit exams, and evaluation worksheets; the qualitative data was drawn from the teacher's as well as the students' written comments and questionnaires, the teacher's diary, classroom tasks, oral debates and individual interviews, along with audio and video recordings. The analysis of all this data, which has been fully contrasted among the different participant groups, can be found in section 5.1.5 of this dissertation. With the information drawn from the aforementioned partial evaluations, a reorientation of the approach used could be carried out, and plan new tasks and projects as well as adjust some of the already designed activities. Summing up, they turned out to be very useful to successfully arrive at the final results.

Concerning the final results, they were based on data from three very precise sources: two pre- and post-tests and the teacher's diary. The pre- and post-tests designed are a quantitative method of data collection, and the comments written on the teacher's diary are qualitative records. Whether quantitative or qualitative instruments are better to collect data is a much-debated question with no definitive answer, as it mostly depends on the data analysed and the objectives of each study. As quantitative measures are more objective than qualitative ones, while interpreting the results and while extrapolating them, one should be extremely cautious.

This section is divided into: Discussion, Final Conclusions and Further Research.

Discussion

In this section two divisions are made: the discussion in relation to the method used and the discussion concerning the process.

In relation to the method

- Even if at the beginning of the application of the action-research, movement around the classroom was strongly encouraged, after some negative experiences that involved disturbing other teachers and their students, the tasks that implied movement had to be done away with. These tasks were not carried out in the ordinary classroom, but in the English classroom (used less often).

- "All skills are equally important" was a premise of ADA but, as this research focussed on reading accuracy, the other skills were left somewhat aside. Obviously, all the tasks carried out during the lessons, apart from reading activities, comprised other activities involving the other skills, however, the teacher sensed that not much emphasis was directed upon them.

- The network syllabus proposed by ADA comprised activities from many different subjects such as art, science, maths, music, religion, technology. However, other subjects were not taken into consideration. Besides,

sometimes the teacher did not have enough knowledge on whether the students knew or did not know some subject specific pieces of information.

- Educating for social inclusion is not easy, but it is made more difficult because most of the immigrant learners are, at least during the first years of their schooling to our country, going into and out of the ordinary classroom. They are called to attend Catalan language lessons, for example, which are of utmost importance for them, but which stop them from being completely integrated in the classroom. During the morning break, for example, one could see the different immigrant students from the different years all together in a playground area. Through the English lesson, while working on Anglo-Saxon culture, for example, most of these students were called to participate and exchange experiences, nevertheless, it was difficult to transfer this cooperation out of the classroom walls.

- According to ADA, the psychological elements of every student outline his/her learning. Although academic information transfer is carried out at the beginning of each academic year, more personal information could be very helpful. If teachers knew more about each learner, they may act differently in the classroom setting. A way to get to know the students was through personal information exchanges. The relationship teacher-pupil has been constant; the degree of confidentiality changed in intensity from the beginning to the end of the academic year. Even though it was expected, the students' predisposition to talk about the approach, the tasks being used in the English class, and especially about themselves was really low when it was most needed: at the beginning of the ADA implementation.

- Even if La Salle school has a nice setting, its classrooms are a bit dull. Despite the fact that I tried to improve the physical and environmental contextual factors of the classrooms, they were not the most appropriate ones due to various reasons. Students were sometimes very cold during the lessons. The classrooms were not well isolated from sound. The furniture was quite old and students were not very comfortable. The school material

the students could use, such as the computers, did not work properly, etc. These facts made me readapt my proposed tasks and projects several times.

- The control as well as the pilot group students followed cooperative group dynamics. Their personal relationship was fantastic and they all acted as a big and strong group. On the other hand, the students in the experimental group had an awkward relationship among themselves and with the teachers. That meant it was much more difficult to work with the experimental group than with the pilot or control groups. This reality made the action-research process focus on interpersonal intelligence and encourage collaborative tasks.

- Though a lot of effort was put on providing the learners with input that was a bit above their individual level, it was not achieved. To find out the right input for every one is obviously an aim really difficult to reach. Even if level classes tend to be formed by the teaching team, as homogeneous as possible (taking into account marks, effort or capability), students are evidently heterogeneous anyway, either in the aspects aforementioned or in other aspects of their lives. As ADA suggests, every individual is unique and the teaching practice should be adapted, as much as possible, to every person. But there are visibly many limitations, for example, the more students in a group, the less individually, student-centred can be the approach used in the classroom setting.

In relation to the process

- The experimental and control group students' samples were not chosen at random. The organization of the students for some subjects (maths and languages) in the ESO stage is mostly predetermined by means of their previous year marks. Students are classified in level groups. For the experimental group I selected the high group and for the control group, the high-intermediate group was chosen. Even though the experimental group was bigger in number, I thought they could make the most of all the activities planned. And though it may have been true, the large number of

students prevented me from fully applying all the tasks initially planned. Summarizing –as the sample had to be adapted to the existing groups and, moreover, the number of students taking the pre- and the post-tests was fewer than expected– it is not representative enough.

- There is a lot to say about ADA. First of all, it is a newly designed approach that needs to be further developed. As it was something innovative, not a lot of people had faith in it, that is why the rest of the teaching staff were far from being optimistic about its results and they were rather reluctant to participate. They were just expectant on what was going to happen. The language department teachers became engaged in the research as soon as I exposed my first partial results in a department meeting. Before that, I had felt alone in the hard process of individual action-research.

- Despite the fact that the relationship among La Salle Figueres school teaching staff is fantastic, maybe because teachers do not normally change from one year to the next, I had to face some specific objections while using my approach in the English class. As I meant to stimulate the curiosity and motivate students to be engaged in every lesson, I used a lot of different types of material in the English language classroom (e.g. an enormous colourful dice). Those types of behaviours were not approved by some members of the teaching staff that thought that the English teacher was carrying out some "very strange" activities and that she was spoiling the students with so much multi-coloured stuff.

- In spite of video recordings being frequently used in most of the extra-curricular events taking place in the La Salle Figueres school, video and audio recording objects are not frequently used in the classroom setting. When I used this type of items in the English class, some teachers questioned their use and they wondered whether it was legal. (Obviously, the teacher-researcher had asked the students themselves and their parents for permission.)

- The fact that the teacher for the experimental as well as for the control group of students was the same makes the research undemanding, as new variables such as the teacher's personality do not have to be considered while dealing with the results. But this also has some disadvantages; it was very difficult not to apply tasks that really worked with the experimental group, to the control group. Apart from my own criteria, I had the pressure of the students in the control group, who asked for this or that particular activity (that their high-group mates had done). This points to a debated issue in research, but, as this study was carried out in real-life conditions, this was the only option open.

Conclusions

There are two types of conclusions that need to be specified: the ones that refer to the hypothesis formulated and the ones that refer to the educational proposal. Though it is true that they are related and that the latter may be consequences of the former, they become clearer when divided.

Referring to the hypotheses

Thanks to the data collected through pre- and post-tests, as well as through the teacher's diary, the final results on the three hypotheses proposed have been either proved or refuted.

Concerning the first hypothesis:

- Motivation in the English class improves if translation activities that explore ADA are implemented.

The motivation to learn, as explained during this dissertation is modelled, by the motivation to achieve and/or the motivation to socialize. Most teenagers are very difficult to motivate as they are in a life stage where they have to form themselves questioning whatever surrounds them. Through ADA, English was considered a means to deal with other subjects as well as an aim in itself. This helps motivation as students

who are not very keen on languages, are more enthusiastic about logical reasoning or music or art or sciences… Obviously, all the activities' background was the English language. Hence, apart from choosing interesting present-day topics, a rather global curriculum was used to encourage enthusiasm.

Qualitative data extracted from the teacher's diary was used to measure the degree of achievement of this hypothesis. The teacher's diary gathers information about: individual interviews, classroom debates and classroom performance. Concerning individual interviews, while the teacher asked individual students whether they were enjoying themselves in the English classroom and whether they were interested in what was normally going on in the English classroom, most of the answers were affirmative for students in the experimental group (the negative answers were analysed with each student separately). From the individual interviews, it can also be inferred that students found the translation activities amusing and different, and they thought they were helping them to improve not only their English knowledge, but also their L1 knowledge. When the same question was asked to the students in the control group, most of them answered that they would better like to do the activities the students in the experimental group were doing. Some of them said their classroom activities were fine, others said they were boring, others even asked the teacher whether they could bring some material/activities to be used in class. (Curiously, they were similar to the activities planned for the experimental group.)

Classroom debates were also helpful to understand what was going on in the students' heads. Concerning the experimental group, though the group leaders were, at the beginning, the only ones who dared saying something, after the other students realised the teacher took notice of their complaints and thanked their positive comments, they also were encouraged to talk. A lot of fruitful debates arose. In one of these debates students discussed about the advantages of using translation activities in the English classroom. The conclusion can be summarised in: they mainly thought translation activities were helping them to translate correctly as well as not to rely on translation as much as before. The control group debates were not as successful. Their reaction was different. They started very enthusiastically asking for different types of activities; even though these activities were carried out in class, whenever they thought the teacher was doing what they **perceived** as "different", "more interesting" and "funnier" activities with the experimental group, they started to ask for the same activities. The teacher-researcher explained that it was an action-research and that they

could not do the same activities as their high-level mates. Yet again, the tasks carried out with the control group were as interesting as the ones carried out with the experimental group.

Classroom performance was the last step to be analysed in the teacher's diary. Though some of the students in the experimental group were always complaining about everything, the results of the tasks proposed by the teacher showed that they were very interested in accomplishing them, and not just that, but accomplishing them as successfully as possible. On the other hand, the student in the control group sometimes did the activities because they had to do them, other times they did not do them. Their excuses varied, but once a student said he had not done the tasks because they were boring (obviously, as he said, he was comparing them with the ones their high-level year mates were doing). Apart from that, experimental group students frequently asked the teacher, even before getting into the class, "What are we going to do today?" or "Where are we going to go?" or "Are we going to work in groups?" or "Are we going to use this or that material?" Through these questions it could be deduced that the students were looking forward to what was going to happen that day in the English language classroom. This kind of expectation breeds a lot of emotions that might lead to motivation.

Summing up, even though the students in the experimental group were always complaining, and although they did not frequently externalise their positive feelings with the teacher when they were in the group class, from the individual interviews, a lot of positive comments –either on the way the subject was taught, or on the activities used– helped me infer that they enjoyed themselves while learning. The fact that they explained to their year mates they were doing amusing and entertaining activities in the English class is also another indicator of their attitude towards the English class. Finally, their curiosity to know what would happen that day during the lesson is also another indicator of their willingness to do and learn. Thus, the motivation hypothesis can be said to have been proved.

Regarding the second hypothesis:

- The explicit use of translation framed by ADA can lead to a significant improvement in English reading accuracy.

Obviously, dealing with translation tasks in the foreign language class, does not mean that we use the grammar translation method to apply them. Through the thesis it has been clarified that translation is understood as another type of possible activities, framed by a task, to carry out in the foreign language class. It is true that this dissertation body of tasks and projects (see appendix 33) has at least a translation activity for every one of them, but one should have in mind that, while using the text book or while using other types of material, translation activities were not present. So, students were not using translation all the time, but at some specific moments.

Apart from that, the words "explicit use" in the hypothesis are vital, as students were firstly taught how to use translation. By means of an automatic machine translator, they realised how dull a literary text translated from English to their L1 turned out to be, for example. I wanted them to realise that word-for-word translations do not work. Then some guidelines were established to help students understand the translation process.

ADA tries to be present in every one of the activities of the corpus of tasks aforementioned. Concerning the psychological and social fields, the "self" was regarded as much as the group, and individual as well as group needs and interests were somehow tried to be taken into account. Regarding physical context, for example, a lot of visual material was used and the physical distribution of desks in the classroom changed from one activity to the next. With reference to foreign language pedagogy, objectives were made clear from the very beginning to clarify what was expected from the students at the end of every task.

In conclusion, during the action-research, the first part of this hypothesis "The explicit use of translation framed by ADA" was accomplished. Now, did it lead to a significant improvement in English reading accuracy? The answer can be found in the evolution of the students. This evolution was verified through a quantitative pre- and post-test. In their results one could read that the standard deviation of the students in the control group was much higher than that of the experimental group. That means that while some students learned a lot, others did not learn as expected. This may be due to the fact that in the control group, individuals were not taken so much into account as the group itself. Apart from that, and although the marks of the students in the two groups were already expected to be very different, the difference in punctuation from the beginning to the end of the academic year was much greater in the experimental group. Many more learners in the experimental group improved their reading accuracy much more than students in the control group.

Hence, from all these arguments, one can infer that this hypothesis was fully accomplished.

With reference to the third hypothesis:

- The consideration and work on ADA while dealing with English texts makes students improve their cultural awareness of the Anglo-Saxon world.

Most of the texts, either oral or written, in any language are marked by their culture. While learning any foreign language, it is inevitable to learn through texts and that is why an improvement on cultural awareness of the language object of study would, most of the times, help understand the content of a specific passage. Summing up, the more cultural knowledge one obtains, the easier it is to understand a great deal of texts. Cultural knowledge also leads people to be more respectful with individuals from different cultures. As ADA is meant to be an inclusive approach, it took advantage of the different cultures represented in the classroom setting and, through cultural exchanges, tried to enrich the situational context.

During the first weeks, and analysing the partial results, I realised I was not giving culture the weight I thought it deserved. But according to the following partial results, students as well as myself, were satisfied about how culture was dealt with during the English lessons. As this kind of cultural exchange worked so well, it was difficult for me to avoid projecting it to the control group class.

From the final results, that is to say, from the results on the pre- and post-tests, one can deduce that though the experimental group of students improved more than the control group of students concerning Anglo-Saxon cultural knowledge, the improvement was not meaningful. This might be because in the control group there was a larger number of diverse cultures represented by different students, and thus, the cultural activities were richer as they were expanded with real life comments. So this hypothesis cannot be said to have been proved.

Summing up, hypotheses one and two, that is to say the hypothesis on motivation and the hypothesis on reading accuracy can be verified while hypothesis three, the hypothesis on culture, cannot be demonstrated.

Referring to the educational proposal

This part has been divided in four blocks, the same four blocks used to specify what ADA is about: psychological, physical, pedagogical and sociological contexts.

Psychological context

- All the way through the application of this action-research, a lot of emotions have been experienced both on the part of the teacher and on the part of the learner. I was extremely curious about the degree of acceptance on the part of the learners of the different activities proposed, about the development of the tasks, about the partial results and, of course, about the final results. The students were rather expectant on what the teacher would propose this time and on whether they would succeed in doing so. Learners were sometimes pleased, other times excited, or relieved; at other times they were cross, or scared, or anxious… several sorts of emotions were experienced due to the fact that every lesson was a kind of constant discovery, which frequently led to the expression of emotions. This was a motivating point for the teacher as well as for the students.

Physical context

- The teacher encouraged students to bring or create personal material to hang on the classroom walls. This turned out to be really stimulating for the teenagers. On the other hand, desks were moved according to task needs and this proved to be truly exciting for the students who were normally arranged in orderly rows.

Pedagogical context

- With the implementation of ADA I wanted the students to see the English language not only as a subject to pass, but as a means to achieve multiple things. English has been used from globalization; that means not isolated

from the rest of the learner's life. It was really moving to see 4th of ESO students struggling to get their message across. For them, during some precise moments, the way they expressed themselves was not as important as the content they wanted to transmit, and they wanted to transmit it by all means! So, it was very striking to see their gradual improvement.

- Regarding the body of activities used for this action-research, leaving apart the fact that some of them had to be changed, as stated before due to the partial results of this dissertation, due to technical problems or due to "social" reasons, they worked really well. The tasks and projects created encouraged students to engage with the learning practice, creating expectations, trying to promote creativity, and taking into account individual interests. Through creativity, all the intelligences one has are working together. All individuals were creative in some of the moments of the action-research application. Creativity is extremely essential for personal development, for personality, for the motivation to learn, etc. Too soon, secondary school teachers forget they are dealing with teenagers who need to foster their creativity in order to grow as healthy human beings. Through this educational proposal, creativity has been encouraged and reinforced, and this is very positively valued.

Sociological context

- With the experimental group of students, all learners were called to participate and collaborate among themselves. For some, it was really difficult to achieve, as they were very intrapersonal, for example, but it was satisfying to see their progress in this field through the academic year.

- What should also be appreciated is the way students learned to be critical without judging others. The main aim during any school lesson was respect. At the beginning of the academic year, some students did not have any respect towards their classmates. As stated during this dissertation, in the experimental group, there were a lot of small groups of very different individuals. Some respect problems among students were sensed and, due to

this fact, a lot of effort was put on that point from the part not only of the teacher but on the part of other educational professionals, such as tutors and psychologists. The evolution of the problem went in the right direction, and in the lessons where group work was required, this progress was even more evident. Despite the fact that the learners were, in the English class, encouraged to be critical, they also knew they had to be respectful, and that was observed.

Finally, the general learning level of the students in the experimental group increased meaningfully according to their final marks. Most of their results were rather high and no case of academic failure emerged during that academic year despite all the problems teachers had with that group. Summing up, though a lot more thought should be devoted to the affectivity and diversity approach, it is regarded as being an appropriate method to apply in the English as a foreign language class.

Further research

The conclusions of this action-research open new queries and delimit some new proposals in relation to the new pedagogical approach presented in this dissertation. The aforementioned new proposals go in three directions: individual action proposals, institutional action proposals and proposals for other research projects.

Individual action proposals

I would like to suggest here some individual actions to improve my teaching performance and, consequently, to enhance the learning practice. Again this section is also divided into the four different contexts ADA applies to: psychological, physical, pedagogical and sociological.

But before going deeply into the aforementioned points, I want to state that audio as well as video recordings have been very helpful to detect and discover weak points to correct as well as strong points to encourage. Hence, teachers should not be afraid of using this type of material in the classroom setting.

Psychological context

- The more students perceive they are individuals learning a language and their personal context is taken into consideration, the less effort most of them

will have to make in order to learn, as they will feel there is at least someone that believes in them. Thus, I should consider individuality even more and encourage individual effort. In this way, the students' self-esteem will go up and, consequently, their motivation will increase.

Physical context

- Another issue to take into account is the students' physical environment. Maybe I could improve it through the use of more posters or through changing from time to time the static classroom design.

Pedagogical context

- This action-research was quite stressful for the teacher. She wanted all the tasks to be done and she tried to fit in as many extra activities as she could. If the teacher is stressed, the students do not get as much as they could from him/her, so a good idea for the teacher would be to take things easier. (This point was slightly improved through the academic year.)

- According to the activities, tasks and projects proposed, some tasks should be revised to fit better in the ADA guidelines.

- Maybe a means of giving students different input in the same lesson according to their level could be developed. Possibly through different handouts, perhaps through working by themselves on the subject matter, obviously assisted by the teacher, that is to say going more deeply into curriculum adaptations.

- Despite all the efforts I put into trying to convince students that their mistakes were not failures, perhaps feedback could be given in another way. Possibly not giving a right version of the students' errors, but practicing the

misuses through other texts, or re-using symbols[13] to guide them towards finding correct answers themselves.

Sociological context

- Regarding culture, other ways to catch the students' attention concerning cultural matters should be developed. Social inclusion is a social as well as an educational matter that has to be revised in the English classroom setting.

- Mass media sources were used rather critically through debates, for example, and that was really useful to form less easily influenced teenagers. Thus, positive criticism should be fostered.

- Oral communication is a weak point in this research. Although a lot of communication activities were planned, due to the number of students in the class, and their lack of practice with oral communication activities, these were extremely difficult. They made a lot of noise so, for some communication activities, the students had to wait to carry them out in the English classroom in the underground floor. Maybe other strategies can be developed to communicate orally without so much noise or perhaps learners can be taught to speak in a low voice.

Institutional action proposals

In order for educational practice to succeed, there is not only the teacher's action that should be put under consideration, but the action of institutions that can make his/her job easier. These institutions have a crucial role and some suggestions in this dissertation refer to them.

Again, this section is also divided into: psychological, physical, pedagogical and sociological improvements on the part of the institutions.

---

[13] I had used symbols at the beginning of the academic year, but students were so confused that I ended up giving them the right answers.

Psychological context

- The La Salle institution itself should encourage research within its body of schools maybe awarding teachers with grants, maybe reducing the amount of hours teachers have to be in front of a class (nowadays 24 per week), for example, to enhance its teachers' performances. In this way, teachers would be more motivated to teach and, consequently, they would transmit this motivation to their students and this would guarantee a better educational quality.

Physical context

- Concerning education funding, while it is true that some state assisted schools do have a lot more resources than state schools, this is not the case of many others, among which there is La Salle Figueres school. Whereas this school has an average number of 500 students, it lacks a lot of basic things nowadays. The classroom temperature is not appropriate, the desks are really old fashioned, the computer room (only 15 not-properly-working-computers) is far from being adequate, the quantity of common material such as DVD readers is insufficient, etc. If these inconveniences could be amended, the teachers' work could be enhanced and their teaching methods adjusted.

Pedagogical context

- I would like to suggest a revision on the part of the educational authorities of the number of teenagers a teacher can have per class. The more students a teacher has, the less he/she can focus on individual differences, interests and needs. One wonders if academic failure could be avoided reducing considerably the number of students per class, which according to La Reforma it should be twenty to twenty-five, but is not the case in many centres.

- According to the findings of this study, I would recommend a revision of La Salle Figueres school's Curriculum Project to make it more student-centred adapting it to the students' contexts. In this way, subject specific teachers will be better prepared to face the elaboration of a syllabus that considers individual needs and interests.

Sociological context

- It would be a good idea to unify efforts among teachers. The implication of other members of the teaching staff in any school project would be a further incentive to progress.

Even though these suggestions could be regarded as complaints, they are not. They are only recommendations made after the application of this educational action-research to look for general improvements.

Other research projects proposals

The results of this educational action-research lead to consider new lines to investigate. Some lines could go more deeply into other matters related to translation, Multiple Intelligences, Neuro-Linguistic Programming, motivation, reading accuracy or multiculturality. Other lines could specifically deepen into ADA. Clearly, the focus here would go towards developing ADA a bit further.

Some possible projects, always applying ADA:

- Research on, not only reading accuracy but also on other skills.

- Specific research on the increase of educational inclusion among classmates through an academic year, for example.

- Broaden the limits of the investigation to other contexts; that is to say, to other schools, to other educational stages or to other subjects.

- Analyse the results after a whole cycle in the ESO stage or after the whole ESO stage considering ADA.

This dissertation intends to favour: knowledge acquisition improvement, participant's autonomy as well as collaborative skills, motivation and, consequently, lead to a social change.

In conclusion, learning is one of the most difficult endeavours teachers are faced with. Teachers as learners assist themselves in planning and following personal professional development activities adapted to their specific interests and needs. Any school requires that teachers broaden and deepen their subject area and/or their pedagogical expertise. So, educational research should continue to contribute to the well-balanced development of our teenagers.

Since teaching can be understood both as an art and as a science, creativity should always be considered in any classroom, but above all, in early years, primary and secondary educations while the learners' personality is being shaped. Through creativity motivation is fostered and through motivation learning is enhanced.

All these conclusions as well as the reflection behind their writing are incentives to go on with the work, and share all the experiences, together with their results, with a lot of other professionals in the educational world. After all,

Teaching may be regarded as a means of improving schooling, by focusing on generalized issues of the management of curriculum or class, or it may be seen as a means of engaging in a critical process of action reflection which is in itself education. (McNiff 1988: XIII)

VI. BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bibliography

For this dissertation different sources have been used; traditional books, magazines and newspapers, lectures and electronic addresses. This is a list of most of the fonts used during the completion of the thesis, regardless of whether they are explicitly quoted in the dissertation or not.

Abaitua, J. (2001). "Por otra ruta en traducción automática". In *Annals of the Second International Workshop on Spanish Language Processing and Language Technologies,* 113-114.

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

Albert, M. L., & Obler, L. K. (1978). *The bilingual brain*: *Neuropsychological and neurolinguistic aspects of bilingualism.* New York: Academic Press.

Alcaraz, E., & Moody, B. (1983). *Didáctica del inglés: Metodología y programación*. Madrid: Alhambra.

Alderson, J. C. (2000). *Assessing Reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Algeo, J., & Pyles, T. (1982). *The Origins and development of the English language. Histories of the English language*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

AlHafidh, L. (Ed.). (2003). "Mariah Carey". In *I Love English*, 7, 8-9.

Allen, V. F. (1983). *Techniques in teaching vocabulary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Allport, A. (1985). "The historical background of social psychology". In Lindzey, G. & Aronson, E. (Eds.), *Handbook of social psychology* (Vol. 1), (pp. 1-46). (3rd ed.). New York: Random House.

Alonso Tapia, J. (1991). *Motivación y aprendizaje en el aula*. Aula XXI. Madrid: Santillana.

Alonso Tapia, J. (1997). *Motivar para el aprendizaje. Teoría y estrategias*. Barcelona: Edebé.
 --- Solé, O. (Trans.). (2000). *Motivar per a l'aprenentage. Teoria i estratègies*. Innova. Barcelona: Edebé.

Álvarez, R., & Vidal, M. C. A. (Eds.). (1996). *Translation, power, subversion*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Anderson, J. R. (1983/2001). *The architecture of cognition*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

Anderson, R. C., & Ausubel, D. P. (Eds.). (1965). *Readings in the psychology of cognition*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

Andreas, S., & Faulkner, C. (Eds.). (1994/1999). *NLP: The new technology of achievement.* New York: William Morrow and Company.

Anton, M., & DiCamilla, F. (1998). "Socio-cognitive functions of L1. Collaborative interaction in the L2 classroom". In *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 54, 414-342.

Anzaldua, G. (1987). *Borderlands/La frontera*. San Francisco: Spinsters/Aunt Lute.

Appelbaum, D., & Turner, I. (1978). "Tracking the discontinuity of perception". In *Philosophy East and West*, 28 (4), 469-484.

Arana Landin, S. (2000). "True cognates and false friends: double edged-weapons". In *A.P.A.C. of News*, 40, 26-30.

Armstrong, T. (1993). *7 Kinds of smart: Identifying and developing your many intelligences*. New York: Plume.

Arnal, J., Rincón, D., & Latorre, A. (1992). *Investigación educativa. Fundamentos y metodologías*. Barcelona: Labor.

Arnal, J., Rincón, D., & Latorre, A. (1996). *Bases metodológicas de la investigación educativa*. Barcelona: Grup 92.

Arnold, J. (Ed.). (1999). *Affect in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Arrojo, R. (1993). *Tradução, desconstrução, psicanálise*. Rio de Janeiro: Imago.

Arumí, M., & Canyada, M. D. (2004). "Dimensió metacognitiva i foment de l'autonomia de l'aprenent: una proposta pedagògica". In *Annals of the IX Trobada de Centres d'Autoaprenentatge*, 41-52. Barcelona: Secretaria de Política Lingüística.

Asher, C., Heys, S., & West, M. (1995). "MFL for pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties: exploring the possible". In *Language Learning Journal*, 11, 14-17.

Asher, J. J. (1982). *Learning another language through actions*. Los Gatos, C.A.: Sky Oaks Productions.

Atkinson, D. (1999). "An introduction to the current European context in language teaching". *In TESOL Quarterly*, 33, 4-7.

Atkinson, E. (2000). "Behind the inquiring mind: Exploring the transition from external to internal inquiry". In *Reflective Practice*, 2 (1), 149-164.

Ávila, A. (1997). *El doblaje*. Signo e Imagen. Madrid: Cátedra.

Baker, C. (2001). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism*. New York: UTP.

Baker, M. (1992). *In other words: A coursebook on translation*. London and New York: Routledge.

Baker, M. (Ed.). (1998). *Encyclopedia of translation studies*. London: Routledge.

Baldwin, J. M. (1897). *Social and ethical interpretations in mental development: A study in social psychology*. New York: Macmillan.

Balsam, P. D. (1985). "The functions of context in learning and performance". In Balsam, P. D., & Tomie, A. *Context and learning* (pp. 1-38). London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Bandler, R., & Grinder, J. (1979). *Frogs into princes*. Moab, U.T.: Real People Press.

Barnett, M. (1989). *More than meets the eye: Foreign language reading theory and practice*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Bartram, M., & Walton, R. (1991/1994). *Correction*. Hove: Language Teaching Publications.

Bassnett, S., & Lefevere, A. (Eds.). (1990). *Translation, history and culture*. London: Pinter.

Bassnett, S. (1992). *Translation studies*. London and New York: Methuen.

Beardsmore, H. B. (1982). *Bilingualism: Basic principles*. Tieto: Avon.

Beauvillain, C., & Grainger, J. (1987). "Accessing interlexical homographs: Some limitations of a language-selective access". In *Journal of memory and language*, 26, 658-672.

Beebe, L. (Ed.). (1988). *Issues in second language acquisition.* Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.

Beebe, L., & Giles, H. (1998). "Accomodation theory: A discussion in terms of second language acquisition". In *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 46 (4), 5-32.

Beeby, A., Ensinger, D., & Presas, M. (Eds.). (2000). *Investigating translation*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Belha, B. (1999). "Native language interference in learning a second language: Exploratory case studies of native language interference with target language usage". In *International Education Journal,* 1 (1), 1-9.

Bell, R. T. (1981). *An introduction to applied linguistics: Approaches and methods in language teaching*. London: Batsford Academic and Educational Ltd.

Bell, R. T. (1991). *Translation and translating. Theory and practice.* Applied Linguistic and Language Study. London and New York: Longman.

Benjamin, W. (1923/1970). "The task of the translator". In Arendt, H. (Ed.), *Illuminations* (pp. 217-251). London: Collins/Fontana.

Berman, R. (2002). "Crosslinguistic comparisons in later language development". In Strömqvist, S. (Ed.), *The diversity of languages and language learning* (pp. 25-44). Lund: Center for Languages and Literature.

Bernstein, M. (1988). "The bookmark and the compass: Orientation tools for hypertext users". In *SIGOIS Journal* 9, 34-45.

Bersntein, B. (1971). *Class, codes and control: Theoretical studies towards a sociology of language*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
--- Feito Alonso, R. (Trans.). *(1989) Clases, códigos y control: Hacia una teoría de las transmisiones educativas.* Madrid: Ediciones Akal.

Bhabha, H. K. (1994). *The location of culture*. London and New York: Routledge.

Biguenet, J., & Schulte, R. (Eds.). (1989). *The craft of translation*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Block, N. (Ed.). (1986). "Advertisement for a semantics for psychology". In French, P. A., et. al., (Ed.), *Midwest Studies in Philosophy,* X, 615-678.

Bloom, B. S. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives. 1: Cognitive domain.* London: Longman.

Bloom, B. S. (1964). *Taxonomy of educational objectives. 2: Affective domain*. London: Longman.

Bloomfield, L. (1933). *Language*. New York: Henry Holt.

Blum-Kulka, S., & Levenston, E.A. (1983). "Universals of lexical simplification". In Faerch, C., & Kasper, G. (Eds.), *Strategies in interlanguage communication* (pp. 119-139). London: Longman.

Bolitho, R. (1983). "Quoted in 'Talking shop". In *ELT Journal*, 37 (3), 235-242.

Bolívar, A. (2001). "Globalización e identidades: (Des)Territorialización de la cultura". In *Globalización y educación, Revista de Educación*, special issue, 265-288.

Bone, D. (2000). "Communication in the year 2000 and beyond". In A.P.A.C. of News, 38, 4-8.

Borges, J. L. (1932). *Las versiones homéricas.* Buenos Aires: Emecé.

Brecht, R., & Walton, A. R. (1994). "Policy issues in foreign language and study abroad". In *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences*, 532, 213-225.

Brennan, B. (2001). "Making meaning clear". In *A.P.A.C. of News*, 42, 33-35.

Brooks, F. B., & Donato, R. (1994). "Vygotskyan approaches to understanding foreign language discourse during communicative tasks". In *Hispania*, 77, 262-274.

Brown, H. D. (1980). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. (4th ed.). Harlow: Longman.

Brown, H. D. (2002). "English language teaching in the 'Post-Method' era". In Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brumfit, C. J. (1977). "The teaching of advanced reading skills in foreign languages, with particular reference to English as a foreign language". In *Language Teaching and Linguistic*, 10, 73-84.

Brumfit, C. J., & Johnson, K. (Eds.). (1979). *The communicative approach to language teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brumfit, C. J. (1984). *Communicative methodology in language teaching. The roles of fluency and accuracy*. Cambridge: Cambridge Language Teaching Library.

Campbell, S. (1998). *Translation into the second language*. Harlow: Longman.

Campos, M. (2004). "Constructivist method for the analysis of networked cognitive communication and the assessment of collaborative learning and knowledge-building". *JALN*, 8, 2-5.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). "Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing". In *Applied Linguistics*, 1 (1), 1-47.

Cánovas, M., González Davies, M., & Keim, L. (2006). (Forthcomming) *Acortar distancias: Las TIC en la clase de traducción y de lenguas extranjeras*. Libro electrónico: Octaedro.

Carbonell i Cortés, O. (1997). *Traducir al otro. Traducción, exotismo y postcolonialismo.* Toledo: Escuela de Traductores de Toledo-Universidad de Castilla La Mancha.

Carbonell i Cortés, O. (1998). "Orientalism in translation: Familiarizing and defamiliarizing strategies". In Beylard-Ozeroff, A., Králová, J., & Moser-Mercer, B. (Eds.), *Translators' strategies and creativity* (pp. 63–70). Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Carr, W., & Kemmis, S. (1986). *Becoming critical*. London: The Falmer Press.

Carrell, P. L., Devine, J., & Eskey, D. E. (Eds.). (1988). *Interactive approaches to second language reading.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Casagrande, J. B. (1954). "The ends of translation". In *International Journal of American Linguistics,* 20 (4), 335-40.

Casal-Madinabeitia, S. (2000). "Cooperative learning: Learning by doing". In *A.P.A.C. of News*, 39, 17-22.

Case, D. (1994). *English puzzles 2. Teachers' resource books*. Heineman English Language Teaching. London: Heineman.

Cassany, D., Luna, M., & Sanz, G. (1993). *Ensenyar llengua*. Barcelona: Graó.

Cayne, B. S. (Ed.). (1988). *The new lexicon Webster's encyclopedic dictionary of the English language*. New York: Avenel Books.

Celaya Villanueva, M. L. (2001). "I've got 12 years old. L1 in SLA". In *A.P.A.C. of News*, 42, 42-48.

Chamberlain, L. (1988). "Gender and the metaphorics of translation". Reprinted in Venuti, L. (Ed.), (1992). *Rethinking translation: Discourse, subjectivity, ideology* (pp. 57-74). London and New York: Routledge.

Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classroom.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chesterman, A., & E. Wagner. (2002). *Can theory help translators? A dialogue between the Ivory tower and the wordface.* Manchester: St Jerome.

Cheyfitz, E. (1991). *The poetics of imperialism*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Chomsky, N. (1957). *Syntactic structures*. The Hague: Mouton.

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.

Chomsky, N. (1980). *Rules and representations*. London: Basil Blackwell.

Chomsky, N. (1988). *Language and problems of knowledge*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.

Chugani, D. C. & Chugani H. T. (2003). "Does serotonin have trophic effects in temporal lobe epilepsy?". In *Neurology*, 60, 736-737.

Cisneros, S. (1995). *Loose woman*. USA: Vintage contemporaries Books.

Clarke, M. A. (1979). "Reading in Spanish and English: Evidence from adult ESL students". In *Language Learning,* 29, 121-150.

Clarke, M. A. (1980). "The short-circuit hypothesis of ESL reading –or when language competence interferes with reading performance". In *Modern Language Journal*, 64, 203-209.

Claxton, G. (1999). *Wise up: The challenge of lifelong learning*. London: Bloomsbury.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (1996). *A guide to teaching practice.* (4th ed.). New York: Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (1996). *Research methods in education*. (4th ed.). London: Routledge.

Colas Bravo, M. P., & Buendia Eisman, L. (1992). *Investigación educativa.* Ciencias de la Educación. Sevilla: Alfar.

Coll, C., Palacios, J., & Marchesi, A. (1990). *Desarrollo psicológico y educación. Volumen II: Psicología de la educación*. Madrid: Alianza.

Coll, C., Martín, E., Mauri, T., Miras, M., Onrubia, J., Solé, I., & Zabala, A. (Eds.). (1993). *El constructivismo en el aula*. Barcelona: Graó.

Collins, J. (1986). "Differential instruction in reading groups." In Cook-Gumperz, J. (Ed.), *The social construction of literacy* (pp. 117-137). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Conrad, J., & Gide, W. R. (1996). *Translation, transference and intertextuality*. Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Contreras Domingo, J. (1991). *Enseñanza, currículum y profesorado*. Madrid: Akal.

Cook, G. (2000). *Language play, language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Cook, V. J. (1985). "Chomsky's Universal Grammar and second language learning". In *Applied Linguistics*, 6, 1-18.

Cook, V. J. (1991). *Second language learning and teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.

Cook, V. J. (1994). "Timed grammaticality judgements of the head parameter in L2 learning". In Bartelt, G. (Ed.), *The dynamics of language processes* (pp. 15-31). Tübingen: Gunter Narr.

Cook, V. J. (1997). "The consequences of bilingualism for cognitive processing". In Groot, A. de & Kroll J. F. (Eds.), *Tutorials in bilingualism: Psycholinguistic perspectives* (pp. 279-299). Hillsdale, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cook, W. (2001). "Using the first language in the classroom". In *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57 (3), 402-423.

Coomey, M., & Stephenson, J. (2001). "Online learning: It is all about dialogue, involvement, support and control – according to the research". In Stephenson, J. (Ed.), *Teaching and learning online: Pedagogies for new technologies* (pp. 37-52). Sterling: Kogan Page.

Corder, S. P. (1978). "Language distance and the magnitude of the language learning task". In *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 2, 27-36.

Corder, S. P. (1981). *Error analysis and interlanguage*. Oxford: University Press.

Cordonnier, J. L. (1995). *Traduction et culture*. Paris: Hatier/Didier.

Crystal, D. (1995). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of the English language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crystal, D. (1998). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of language.* (3rd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cunningham, R. (1929). "The principles of the "indirect method" in the teaching of modern foreign languages." In *Modern Languages*, 9, 8-11.

Damasio, A. (1994). *Descartes' error: Emotion, reason and the human brain.* New York: Avon.

David, A. (2001). "Reading hypertext: Lower-level processes". In *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57 (3), 475-94.

Davis, P., & Rinvolucri, M. (1995). *More grammar games: Cognitive, affective and movement activities for EFL students*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Davis, P., Garside, B., & Rinvolucri, M. (1998). *Ways of doing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dean Brown, J. (1988). *Understanding research in second language learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Dechert, H. W. (1983). "How a story is done in a second language". In Faerch, C., & Kasper, G. (Eds.), *Strategies in interlanguage communication* (pp. 175-195). London: Longman.

Delisle, J. (1980). *L'analyse du discours comme méthode de traduction*. Ottawa: Editions de l'Université d'Ottawa.

Delisle, J. (1988). *Translation: An interpretative approach*. Ottawa: University of Ottawa Press.

Deller, S., & Rinvolucri, M. (2002). *Using the mother tongue. Making the most of the learners' language.* Kent: Delta Publishing.

Devitt, M. (2002). "Underdetermination and realism". In *Noûs*, 36 (1), 26-50.

Dewey, J. (1929). *The quest for certainty: A study of the relation of knowledge and action*. New York: Minton, Balch Publishing.

Diaz, D. P., & Cartnal, R. B. (1999). "Students' learning styles in two classes: Online distance learning and equivalent on-campus". In *College Teaching* 47(4), 130-135.

Diller, H. J., & Kornelius, J. (1978). *Linguistische probleme der übersetzung*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer.

Dilts, R. B., & Epstein, T. A. (1995). *Dynamic learning with NLP*. Capitola, C.A.: Meta Publications.

Dingwaney, A., & Maier, C. (Eds.). (1995). *Between languages and cultures: Translation and crosscultural texts*. Pittsburgh and London: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Dodson, C. J. (1967). *Language teaching and the bilingual method.* London: Pitman.

Dolet, E. (1540). *La manière de bien traduire d'une langue en autre*. Lyon: Techener.

Dollerup, C. & Loddeggard, A. (Eds.). (1992). *Teaching translation and interpreting: Training, talent and experience.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Dolto, F. (1985). *La cause des enfants*. Paris: Laffont.

Dubin, F., & Olshtain, E. (1986). *Course design: Developing programs and materials for language learning.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dubois, J., Giacomo, M., Guespin, L., Marcellesi C., Marcellesi, J. B., Mevel, J.P. (1994). *Dictionnaire de linguistique et des sciences du langage*. Paris: Larousse.

Duff, A. (1989/1992). *Translation*. Resource Books for Teachers. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dulay, H., Burt, M., & Krashen, S. (1982). *Language two*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Dunn, R. (2000). "Learning styles: Theory, research, and practice". In *National Forum of Applied Educational Research Journal*, 13 (1), 3-22.

Dunn, R. and Griggs, S. A. (Eds.). (2000). *Practical approaches to using learning styles in higher education*. Connecticut: Bergin & Garvey.

Dunn, W. (1997). "The impact of sensory processing abilities on the daily lives of young children and their families: A conceptual model". In *Infants and Young Children*, 9 (4), 23-35.

Durkheim, E. (1956). *Education and sociology*. New York: The Free Press.
--- Curell i Guerra, J. (Trans.). (1991). *Educació i sociologia*. Barcelona: Eumo.

Ehrman, M. (2004). "Psychological factors and distance education". In *The American Journal of Distance Education*, 4 (1), 10-23.

Ellis, G., & Sinclair, B. (1989). *Learning to learn English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R. (1984). *Classroom second language development: A study of classroom interaction and language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Ellis, R. (1996). *Understanding second language acquisition*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (1997). *Second language acquisition. Oxford introductions to language study*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Epstein, T., & Dilts, R. (1991). *Tools for dreamers: strategies of creativity and the structure of innovation*. Capitola: Meta Publications.

Estarellas, J. (1971). *La psicolingüística y la enseñanza de los idiomas extranjeros*. Salamanca: Anaya.

Even-Zohar, I., & Toury, G. (Eds.). (1981). "Translation Theory and Intercultural Relations". In a special issue of *Poetics Today*, II (4), V-XI.

Even-Zohar, I. (1990). "The position of translated literature within the literary polysystem". In *Poetics Today*, 11 (1), 45-51.

Faerch, C., & Kasper, G. (1983). "Plans and strategies in foreign language communication". In Faerch, C., & Kasper, G. (Eds.), *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication* (pp. 61-74). London: Longman.

Fasold, R. (1990). *The sociolinguistics of language*. Cambridge: Blackwell.

Fawcett, P. (1997). *Translation and language. Linguistic theories explained*. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.

Fernández Nistal, P. (Ed.). (1992). *Estudios de traducción: Primer curso superior de traducción inglés – espanyol*. Valladolid: Universidad de Valladolid.

Fernández Nistal, P., & Bravo Gozalo, J. M. (Eds.). (1995). *Perspectivas de la traducción inglés-español*. Valladolid: Universidad de Valladolid.

Ferré, R. (2002). *Duelo de lenguaje*. España: Vintage Contemporanies.

Fincher, C. (1994). "Learning theory and research". In Feldman, K. A., & Paulson, M. (Ed.) *Teaching and learning in the college classroom*. Needham, M.A.: Ginn Press.

Finocchiaro, M., & Brumfit, C. (1983). *The functional-notional approach: From theory to practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Firth, J. R. (1957). *Papers in linguistics 1934-1951*. London: Oxford University Press.

Fischbach, G. D. (1992). "Mind and brain". In *Scientific American,* 267(4), 48-57.

Foucault, M. (1982). "The subject and Power". In Dreyfus, H., & Rabinow, P. (Eds.), *Beyond structuralism and hermeneutics* (pp. 208-264). Brighton: Harvester.

Foucault, M. (1999). *Religion and culture*. New York: Routledge.

Gainotti, G., & Silveri, M. (1996). "Cognitive and anatomical locus of lesion in a patient with a categoryspecific semantic impairment for living beings". In *Cognitive Neuropsychology,* 13, 357–389.

Galisson, R. (1973). "Pour une méthodologie de l'enseignement du sens étranger". In Charaudeau, P., & Galisson, R. (Eds.), *L'enseignement du sens en française, langue maternelle et étrangère* (pp 11-22). Etudes de Linguistique Appliquée. Paris: Hachette.

Galloway, D., Rogers, C., Armstrong, D., & Leo, E. (1998). *Motivating the difficult to teach*. The Effective Teacher Series. London: Longman.

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1991). *The unschooled mind: How children think and how schools should teach*. New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1993). *Multiple Intelligences*. New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1999). *Intelligence reframed: Multiple Intelligences for the 21st century*. New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, R., & Lambert, W. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gardner, R. (1985). *Social psychology and second language acquisition: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Arnold.

Garnier, G. (1985). *Linguistique et traduction*. Caen: Paradigme.

Gass, S. & Schachter, J. (Eds.). (1989). *Linguistic perspectives on second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gass, S., & Selinker, L. (1992/1997). *Language transfer in language learning*. Philadelphia: Benjamins.

Gass, S., & Selinker, L. (1993/2001). *Second language acquisition*. (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Genesee, F. (Ed.). (1994). *Educating second language children: The whole child the whole curriculum, the whole community*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gentzler, E. (1993). *Contemporary translation theories*. London: Routledge.

Giauque, G. S., & Ely, C. M. (1990). "Code-switching in beginning foreign language teaching". In Jacobson, R. & Faltis, C. (Eds.), *Language distribution issues in bilingual schooling* (pp. 174-184). Clevedon, U.K.: Multilingual Matters.

Godayol, P. (1996). "La traducció a la didàctica de llengües?" In *Diálogos hispánicos*, 20, 89-99.

Godayol, P. (1999). "Escriure (a) la frontera: Autores bilingües traductores culturals". In *Quaderns*, 3, 29-37.

Goleman, D. (1996). *Emotional intelligence; Why it can matter more than IQ*. London: Bloomsbury.

Goleman, D. (2001). "An EI-based theory of performance". In Cherniss, C., & Goleman, D. (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace* (pp. 27-44). San Francisco: Jossy-Bass.

González Davies, M., & Celaya, M. L. (1992). *New teachers in a new education system: A guidebook for the Reforma*. Barcelona: PPU.

González Davies, M. (1998a). "Audiovisuals and translation, combined techniques". In *A.P.A.C. of News*, 32, 7-8.

González Davies, M. (1998b). "Student assessment by medical specialists: An experiment in relating the undergraduate to the professional world in the teaching of medical translation in Spain". In Fischbach, H. (Ed.), *ATA* Scholarly Monograph Series, X, 93-102.

González Davies, M. (2000). "Translation: How faithful can you be?" In *A.P.A.C. of News*, 39, 27-30.

González Davies, M. (2002a). "Translation in Foreign Language Learning: Sleeping with the Enemy?" In *A.P.A.C. of News,* 44, 64-74.

González Davies, M. (2002b). "Humanising translation activities: Tackling a secret practice." In *Humanising Language Teaching*, 4.
Available at:
http://www.hltmag.co.uk/jul02/mart2.htm

González Davies, M. (2004). *Multiple Voices in the Translation Classroom: Activities, tasks and projects*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins**.**

González Davies, M. (2005). "Minding the process, improving the product: Exploring alternatives to traditional translator training settings". In Tennent, M. (Ed.), *New directions for the new millennium* (pp. 67–82). Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins**.**

González Davies, M., & Scott-Tennent, C. (2005). "A problem-solving and student-centred approach to the translation of cultural references". In *Enseignement de la traduction dans le monde* monograph, *Meta,* 50-1, 160-179.

González González, P. (2005). *Inglés. Programación didáctica*. Sevilla: Editorial Mad.

González Ródenas, S. (1997). *Traducció i literatura. Homenatge a Ángel Crespo*. Vic: Eumo Editorial.

Goodman, K. (1967). "Reading: A psycholinguistic guessing game". In *Journal of the Reading Specialist*, 6, 126-35.

Gowing, M. K. (2001). "Measurement of individual emotional competence". In Cherniss, C., & Goleman, D. (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace*, (pp. 83-131). San Francisco, C.A.: Jossey-Bass.

Grabe, W. (1991). "Current Developments in second language reading research". In *TESOL Quarterly*, 25 (3), 375-406.

Grant, A. C. (1999). *Multicultural research. A reflexive engagement with race, class, gender and sexual orientation*. Falmer Press. Great Britain.

Grasha, A. F., & Riechmann, S. W. (1974). "A rational approach to developing and assessing the construct validity of a student learning style scales instrument". In *Journal of Psychology*, 87, 213-223.

Greenberg, J. (1966). *Language Universals*. The Hague: Mouton.

Grellet, F. (1981/1984/1986). *Developing reading skills: A practical guide to reading comprehension skills*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Grellet, F. (1987). *Writing intermediate*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Grice, H. P. (1975). "Logic and conversation". In Cole, P. & Morgan, J. (Eds.), *Syntax and semantics. Volume 3*: *Speech acts* (pp. 41-58). New York: Academic Press.

Griffin, J., & Symington, D. (1997). "Moving from task-oriented learning strategies on school excursions to museums." In *Science Education* (Informal Science Education-Special Issue), 81(6), 763-780.

Gurrey, P. (1954). *Teaching English as a foreign language*. London: Longman.

Gutiérrez Ordóñez, S. (1983). "La fonología". In Abad, F. & García Berrio, A. (Eds.), *Introducción a la lingüística* (pp. 75-113). Madrid: Alhambra.

Guyton, A. C. (1981). *Textbook of medical physiology*. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders. --- Villamizar, J. (Trans.). (1992). *Tratado de Fisiología Médica*. (10th ed.). México: Interamericana.

Hagen, I. (1992). "Democratic communication: Media and social participation." In Wasko, J. & Mosco, V. (Eds.), *Democratic communications in the information age* (pp. 16-27). Toronto: Garamond Press.

Hagen, L. K. (1994). "Constructs and measurement in parameter models of second language acquisition." In Tarone, E., Gass, S., & Cohen, A. (Eds.), *Research methodology in second-language acquisition* (pp 61-87). Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Hall, L. M. (1996). *Meta states: A domain of logical levels*. Empowerment Technologies. Grand Junction C.O.: Empowerment Technologies.

Hall, R. A. (1964). *Introductory linguistics*. Philadelphia: Chilton Books.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). *Language as social semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning*. Baltimore: University Park Press.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar*. (2nd ed.). London: Arnol.

Hammer, H. (1991). *Fluency and accuracy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters LTD.

Hargreaves, D. (1999). "Schools and the future: The key role of innovation". In *Innovating Schools,* 45-56. Paris: Centre for Educational Research and Innovation.

Harmer, J. (1983). *The practice of English language teaching*. London: Longman.

Harmer, J. (1987). *Teaching and learning grammar*. London and New York: Longman.

Harmer, J. (2004). *How to teach writing*. Netherlands: Pearson Education Ltd.

Harper, C. (2002). "The TESOL ESL teacher standards are here!" In *Teacher Standards ESL Magazine*, 12, 22-24.

Harris, R. (Ed.). (1992). *Proceso cognoscitivo en bilinguals*. Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Harris, Z. (1951). *Methods In structural linguistics*. Chicago, Illinois: Chicago University Press.

Hart, J. J., & Gordon, B. (1992). "Neural subsystems for object knowledge". In *Nature,* 359, 60-64.

Hart, L. A. (1983). *Human brain and human learning*. White Plains, New York: Longman Publishing.

Harvey, K. (1995). "A descriptive framework for compensation". In *The Translator*, 1 (1), 65-86.

Hatch, E. M. (1978). *Second language acquisition: A book of readings.* Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.

Hatim, B., & Mason, I. (1990). *Discourse and the translator*. London: Longman.

Hatim, B. (1996). *Communication across Cultures: Translation theory and contrastive text linguistics*. Exeter: University of Exeter Press.

Hatim, B., & Mason, I. (1996). *The translator as communicator*. London: Routledge.

Hawkes, T. (1991). *Translation studies*. London: Routledge.

Henvey, S., Higgins, S., & Haywood, L. (1995). *Thinking Spanish translation: A course in translation method*. London & New York: Routledge.

Hermans, T. (1999). *Translation in systems: Descriptive and systemic approaches explained.* Manchester: St Jerome.

Hickmann, Fletcher, P., & Garman, M. (Eds.). (1986). *Language acquisition*. (2nd ed.) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hickmann, M. (1986). "Psychosocial aspects of language acquisition". In Fletcher, P., & Garman, M. (Eds.), *Language acquisition* (pp. 9-29). (2nd ed.). London: Cambridge University Press.

Holland, P. C. (1983). "Occasion setting in conditional discriminations". In Commons, M., Herrnstein, R., & Wagner, A. R. (Eds.), *Quantitative analyses of behaviour. 4. Discrimination processes* (pp. 343-382). New York: Ballinger.

Holmes, J. S. (1970). *The nature of translation.* Bratislava: Publishing House of the Slovak Academy of Sciences.

Holmes, J. S. (1988). *Translated! Papers on literary translation and translation studies*. Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Honey, P., & Mumford, A. (1992). *The manual of learning styles*. Maidenhead: Peter Honey.

Hönig, H. G., & Kußmaul, P. (1982). *Strategie der übersetzung. Ein lehr- und arbeitsbuch*. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

House, J. (1981). *A model for translation quality assessment* . (2nd ed.). Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

Howatt, A. P. R. (1984/1985). *A history of English language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hurtado Albir, A. (1988). "La traducción en la enseñanza comunicativa". In *Cable*, 1, 42-45.

Hurtado Albir, A. (1990). *La notion de fidelité en traduction*. París: Didier-Erudition.

Hurtado Albir, A. (Ed.). (1996). *La enseñanza de la traducción*. Castellón: Publicaciones de la Universidad Jaume I.

Hurtado Albir, A. (2001). *Traducción y traductología*. Madrid: Cátedra.

Hurtado, C. N. (1993). *Comunicação & educação popular: Educar para transformar transformar para educar*. São Paulo: Vozes.

Hutchison, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learner-centered approach*. England: Cambridge University Press.

Jakobson, R. (1956). *Fundamentals of language*. The Hague: Mouton.

Jakobson, R. (1959). "On linguistics aspects of translation". In Brower, R. (Ed.), *On translation* (pp. 232-239). New York: Oxford University Press.

Jakobson, R. (1963). *Essais de linguistique générale*. Paris: Les Editions de Minuit.
--- Pujol, J. M., & Cabanes, J. (Trans.) (1975). *Ensayos de lingüística general*. Barcelona: Seix Barral.

Jakobson, R. (1971). "On linguistic aspects of translation". In Jakobson, R., *Selected writings. 2. Word and language* (pp 260-266). The Hague: Mouton.

Jacobson, R., & Faltis, C. (Eds.). (1990). *Language distribution issues in bilingual schooling*. Clevedon, U.K.: Multilingual Matters.

James, C. (1981). *Contrastive analysis*. Essex: Longman.

James, C. (1998). *Errors in language learning and use: Exploring error analysis*. London: Longman.

Jones, B., Palinscar, A. S., Ogle, D., & Car, E. (1987). *Estrategias para enseñar a aprender*. Buenos Aires: Aique.

Jordana, R., & Macarulla, M. D. (1977). *Orientación didáctica. Inglés*. Spain: Universidad de Granada.

Joysmith, C. (1996). *"*Bordering culture: traduciendo a las chicanas*"*. In *Voices of México*, 37, 103-108.

Kade, O. (1968). *Zufall und gesetzmäßigkeit der übersetzung*. Leipzig: VEB Verlag Enzyklopädie.

Karmiloff-Smith, A. (1979). *A functional approach to child language: A study of determiners and reference*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Kemmis, S., & McTaggart, R. (Eds.). (1990). *The action research planner*. (3rd ed.). Victoria: Deakin University.

Kinsella, K. (1996). "Designing group work that supports and enhances diverse classroom work styles". In *TESOL Journal*, 6 (1), 24-31.

Kiraly, D. C. (1995). *Pathways to translation. Pedagogy and process*. Kent and London: Kent University Press.

Kiraly, D. C. (2000). *A socioconstructivist approach to translator training. Empowering the Translator*. Manchestet, U.K.: St. Jerome Publishing.

Kirby, J. R. (1988). "Style, strategy, and skill in reading". In Schmeck, R. R. (Ed.), *Learning strategies and learning styles* (pp. 229-274). New York: Plenum Press.

Kleine-Horst, L. (2001). *Empiristic theory of visual gestalt perception: Hierarchy and interactions of visual functions*. Köln: Enane-Verlag.

Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

Konorski, J. (1967). *Integrative activity of the brain: An interdisciplinary approach*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Kramsch, C. (1993). *Context and culture in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Krashen, S. D. (1982/1987). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. New York: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. D., & Terrell, T. D. (1983). *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. London: Prentice Hall Europe.

Krashen, S. D. (1988). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall International.

Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across cultures: Applied linguistics for language teachers*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Lado, R. (1964). *Language teaching: A scientific approach*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Langacker, R. W. (1993). "Reference-point constructions". In *Cognitive Linguistics,* 4 (1), 1-38.

Larose, R. (1989/1992). *Théories contemporaines de la traduction*. (2nd ed.). Québec: Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Larsen-Freeman, D. & Long, M. (1992/1997). *An introduction to second language acquisition research.* London: Longman.

Larson, M. L. (1984). *Meaning-based translation. A guide to cross-language equivalent.* New York: University Press of America.

Lattimore, R. A. (1966). *The stride of time*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

Lawless, K. A., & Brown, S. W. (1997). "Multimedia learning environments: Issues of learner control and navigation." In *Instructional Science*, 25 (2), 117-131.
Also available at:
http://www.springerlink.com/app/home/contribution.asp?wasp=79ea1e9ac6be4c589cb66de37c7d69c4&referrer=parent&backto=issue,4,6;journal,42,43;linkingpublicationresults,1:102905,1

Lee, W. (1968). "Thoughts on contrastive linguistics in the context of language teaching". In Alatis, J. E. (Ed.), *Contrastive linguistics and its pedagogical implications,* 21 (monograph). Washington, D. C.: Georgetown University Press.

Lefevere, A. (1992). *Translation, rewriting, and the manipulation of literary fame*. London: Routledge.
--- Álvarez, R., & Vidal M. C. A. (Trans.). (1997). *Traducción, reescritura y la manipulación del canon literario*. Salamanca: Colegio de España, 1997.

Leontiev, A. A. (1981). *Psychology and the language learning process*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Lerman, S. (1996). "Intersubjectivity in mathematics learning: A challenge to the radical constructivist paradigm?". In *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education*, 27 (2), 133-150.

Levy, M., Echevarría, C., Trelles, E., & Menéndez, E. (2002). *Longman English zone ESO 3*. Madrid: Longman.

Levy, M., Echevarría, C., Trelles, E., & Menéndez, E. (2002). *Longman English zone ESO 4*. Madrid: Longman.

Lewandowski, T. (1990). *Linguistisches wörterbuch*. Heidelberg: Auflage.
--- García-Denche, M. L. (Trans.). (1995). *Diccionario de lingüística*. Ediciones Càtedra: Madrid.

Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (1995). *How languages are learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Little, D. (1991). *Learner autonomy I: Definitions, issues and problems*. Dublin: Authentik.

Littlewood, W. (1981/87). *Communicative language teaching: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Littlewood, W. (1995). *Foreign and second language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Locastro, V. (1987). "Aizuchi: A Japanese conversational routine". In Smith, L. E. (Ed.), *Discourse across cultures* (pp. 101-113). New York: Prentice Hall.

Locke, E. A. (1968). "Toward a theory of task motivation and Incentives". In *Organizational Behavior & Human Performance*, 3, 157-189.

Long, M. (1991). "Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology". In Bot, K. de, Ginsberg, R., & Kramsch, C. (Eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspectives* (pp. 39-52). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

López Guix, J. G., & Wilkinson, M. J. (1997). *Manual de traducción inglés-castellano*. Barcelona: Gedisa.

Lörscher, W. (1991). *Translation performance, translation process, and translation strategies*. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

Lott, D. (1983). "Analysing and counteracting interference errors". In *ELT Journal*, 37 (3), 256- 261.

Lou, Y. P., Abrami, P. C., Spence, J. C., Poulsen, C., Chambers, B. & d'Apollonia, S. (1996). "Within-class grouping: A meta-analysis." In *Review of Educational Research*, 66 (4), 423-458.

Lozanov, G. (1978). *Suggestology and outlines of suggestopedy*. New York: Gordon and Breach.

Lubman, D., &. Sutherland, I. (1999). "Good classroom acoustics are a good investment for America". *Annals of the 138th Meeting of the Acoustical Society of America*, 106 (4), 2-4.

Lucas, T., & Katz, A. (1994). "Reframing the debate: The roles of native languages in English-only programs for language minority students". In *TESOL Quarterly*, 28, 537-561.

Lyons, J. (1968). *Introduction to theoretical linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lyons, J. (1980). *Sémantique linguistique*. Paris: Larousse.
--- Cerdà, R. (Trans.) (1989). *Semántica*. Barcelona: Teide.

Lyons, J. (1981). *Language and linguistics: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lyons, J. (1990/1995). "The past and future directions of federal bilingual-education policy". In García, O., & Baker, C. (Eds.), *Policy and practice in bilingual education: Extending the foundations* (pp. 1-15). Clevedon, U.K.: Multilingual Matters.

Macaro, E. (1997). *Target language, collaborative learning, & autonomy. Modern languages in practice*. Clevedon, U.K.: Multilingual Matters LTD.

Macaro, E. (2001). *Learning strategies in foreign and second language classrooms*. London: Continuum.

Macaro, E. & Mutton, T. (2002). "Developing language teachers through a co-researcher model". In *Language Learning Journal,* 23, 15-18.

Macaro, E. (2003). *Teaching and learning a second language. A Guide to recent research and its applications*. London: Continuum.

Mackey, W. F. (1976). *Bilinguisme et contact des langues*. Paris: Klincksieck.

Malaguzzi, L. (1993). "Your image of the child: Where teaching begins". In *Child Care Information Exchange*, 96, 52-61.

Malakoff, M., & Hakuta, K. (1991). "Translation skills and metalinguistic awareness in bilinguals". In Bialystok, E. (Ed.), *Language processing in bilingual children* (pp. 141-166). Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press.

Mallol, C. (2006). "English can be fun and accessible to everyone". In *A.P.A.C. of News*, 56, 32-35.

Mallol, C. (2006). (Forthcoming) "Innovación educativa en la enseñanza secundaria a través de un entorno Web y un enfoque basado en la Programación Neuro Lingüística y las intel·ligencias múltiples". In Cánovas, M., González Davies, M., & Keim, L. *Acortar distancias: Las TIC en la clase de traducción y de lenguas extranjeras*. Libro electrónico Octaedro.

Mallol, C. (2006). (Forthcoming) "User-friendly English language learning". In *Snapshots*.

Malmberg, B. (1985). *Introducción a la lingüística*. Madrid: Editorial Càtedra.

Malmkjaer, K. (Ed.). (1995). *The linguistics encyclopedia*. London and New York: Routledge.

Malmkjaer, K. (Ed.). (1998). *Translation and language teaching*. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.

Marchesi, A., Coll, C., & Palacios, J. (1992). *Desarrollo psicológico y educación III*. Madrid: Alianza psicología.

Marcos Martín, F. (1965). *The grammatical structures of English and Spanish*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Marcos Marín, F., & Sánchez Lobato, J. (1988). *Lingüística aplicada*. Madrid: Síntesis.

Marcos Martín, F. (1991). *Lingüística aplicada*. Spain: Síntesis.

Margolis, E. (1998). "How to acquire a concept". In *Mind & Language*, 3 (13), 347-369.

Marks, L., & Domínguez Capote, J. C. (2004). *English links 3*. Cyprus: Burlington.

Marks, L., & Domínguez Capote, J. C. (2005). *English links 4*. Cyprus: Burlington.

Marton, W. (1981). "Contrastive analysis in the classroom". In Fisiak, J. (Ed.), *Contrastive. Linguistics and the language teacher* (pp. 147-156). Oxford: Pergamon.

Martuccelli, D. (2002). "¿El problema es social o cultural?". In *Cuadernos de Pedagogía*, 315, 12-15.

Mascaró Altimiras, J. (1991). *Morfologia*. (3rd ed.). Barcelona: Enciclopèdia Catalana.

Mason, I. (1994). "Discourse, ideology and translation". In Beaugrande, R. de, Shunnaq, A. and Heliel, M. H. (Eds.), *Language, discourse and translation in the West and Middle East* (pp. 23-34). Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Matthews, J. (1983). *Relations between languages*. United Kingdom: Aslib, & Co.

McCombs, B. L., & Whisler, J. S. (1997). *The learner-centered classroom and school*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

McLaughlin, B. (1978). *Second language acquisition in childhood*. Hillsdale N.J.: Erlbaum Associates.

McLaughlin, B. (1981). "Differences and similarities between first- and second-language learning". In *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences,* 379, 23-32.

McLaughlin, G. H. (1969). "SOMG grading – a new readability formula". In *Journal of Reading*, 22, 639-46.

McNiff, J. (1988). *Action research: Principles and practice*. London: Routledge Press.

Medin, D. L., & Reynolds, T. J. (1985). "Cue-context interactions in discrimination". In Balsam, P.D., & Tomie, A. *Context and learning* (pp. 323-354). London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Piblishers.

Melby, A. K. (1995). *A discussion of the nature of language with implications for human and machine translation*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Melby, A. K., & Warner, C. T. (1995). *The possibility of language*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Merlevede, P., Bridoux, D., & Vandamme, R. (1999). *7 Steps to Emotional Intelligence.* Carmarthen: Crown House Publishing.

Miller, G. A. (1956). "The magical number seven plus or minus two: Some limits on our capacity for processing information". In *Psychological Review*, 63, 81-97.

Mitchell, J. (1988). "Stress: The history and future of critical incident stress debriefings". In *Journal of Emergency Medical Services*, 1, 7-52.

Moreno Cabrera, J. C. (1991). *Curso universitario de Lingüística general I: Teoría de gramática y sintaxis general*. Madrid: Síntesis.

Morillas, E., & Arias, J. P. (1997). *El papel del traductor*. Salamanca: Colegio de España.

Mott, B. (1993). *A course in semantics and translation for Spanish learners of English*. Barcelona: PPU.

Mounin, G. (1963). *Les problèmes théoriques de la traduction*. Paris: Gallimard.

Muñoz Liceras, J. (1992). *La adquisición de las lenguas extranjeras*. Madrid: Visor.

Muñoz Martín, R. (1995). *Lingüística para traducir*. Barcelona: Teide.

Muñoz, C., Pérez, C., Celaya, M. L., Navés, M. L., Torras, M. R., Tragant, E., & Victori, M. (2003). "On the effects of age on school foreign language learning". In *Revista Forum sobre Plurilingüisme i Educació*. ICE de la UB 1.
Also available at:
http://www.ub.es/ice/portaling/eduling

Nabokov, V. (1966). "The servile path". In Brower, R. (Ed.), *On translation* (pp. 97-110). Cambridge, U.S.A.: Oxford University Press.

Newmark, P. (1981/1982). *Approaches to translation*. New York: Prentice Hall.

Newmark, P. (1988). *A textbook of translation*. New York: Prentice Hall.

Newmark, P. (1991). *About translation*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matter.

Newmark, P. (1998). *More paragraphs on translation*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Nida, E. A. (1957). *Learning a foreign language*. New York: Friendship Press.

Nida, E. A. (1964). *Towards a science of translating*. London: E.J. Brill.

Nida, E. A., & Taber, Ch. (1969/1982). *The theory and practice of translation*. Leiden: E.J. Brill.

Nida, E. A. (1975). *Language structure and translation*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Nida, E. A. (1996). *The sociolinguistics of interlingual communication*. Bruxelles: Les Éditions du Hazard.

Niranjana, T. (1992). *Siting translation: History, post-structuralism and the colonial context*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Nord, C. (1993). "La traducción literaria entre intuición e investigación". In Raders, M., & Sevilla, J. (Eds.), *III Encuentros Complutenses entorno a la traducción* (pp. 99-109). Madrid: Universidad Complutense de Madrid.

Nord, C. (1997). *Translating as a purposeful activity*. Manchester, U.K.: St Jerome Publishing.

Nord, C. (1998). "La unidad de traducción en el enfoque funcionalista". In *Quaderns. Revista de traducció,* 1, 65-77.

Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (1993). *Introducing discourse analysis*. London: Penguin Books.

Nunan. D. (1991). *Language teaching methodology. A textbook for teachers*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc.

Nunan. D. (1994). *Syllabus design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Nunan, D. (2002). "Aspects of task-based syllabus design". In *A.P.A.C. of News*, 45, 58-63.

Nuttall, C. (1982). *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language*. London: Heinemann.

Obler, L. K. (1982). "The parsimonious bilingual". In Obler, L. K., & Menn, L. (Eds.), *Exceptional language and linguistics* (pp. 339-346). San Diego, C.A.: Academic Press.

O'Connor, J. & Seymour, J. (1990). *Introducing Neuro-Linguistic Programming: Psychological skills for understanding and influencing people*. London, U.K.: Thorsons.

Odlin, T. (1989). *Language transfer*. Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press.

O'Malley, J.M., & Chamot, A. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ortega y Gasset, J. (1945/1983). "Miseria y esplendor de la traducción". In *Obras completas*, (Vol. V), (431-452). Madrid: Alianza.

Overton, W. E., Yaure, R., & Ward, S. L. (1986). "Deductive reasoning in young and elderly adults". Published paper presented to the Conference on Human Development in Nashville, 43-58.

Owen, D. (2003). "Where's the treason in translation?" In *Humanising Language Teaching*, 1.
Available at:
http://www.hltmag.co.uk/jan03/mart1.htm

Owens, R. (Ed.). (1996). *The translator's handbook*. Londres: Aslib.

Oxford, R., Hollaway, M., and Horton-Murrillo, D. (1992). "Language learning style and strategies in the multicultural, terciary L2 classroom". In *System*, 20 (3), 439-456.

Palmer, H. E., & Palmer, D. (1925/1959/1962). *English through actions*. London: Longman Green.

Palmer, H. E. (1974). *The principles of language study*. London: Oxford University Press.

Parekh, B. (2000). *Rethinking multiculturalism. Cultural diversity and political theory*. London: Macmillan Press LTD.

Paz, O. (1971). *Traducción: Literatura y literalidad*. Barcelona: Tusquets.

Pérez Tapias, J. A. (2002). "Educación democrática y ciudadanía intercultural. Cambios educativos en época de globalización". In Annals of the *III Congreso Nacional de Educación de Córdoba* (Argentina), 48-53.

Petersen, A. C., Leffert, N., & Hurrelmann, K. (1993). "Adolescence and schooling in Germany and the United States: A comparison of peer socialization to adulthood". In *Teachers College Record*, 94, 611-628.
Piaget, J. (1928). *The judgement and reasoning in children*. London: Routledge.

Piaget, J., & Inhelder, B. (1966). *La psychologie de l'enfant*. Paris: PUF.
--- Hemández Alfonso, L. (Trans.). (1969). *La psicología del niño*. Madrid: Morata.

Piaget, J. (1969). *The mechanisms of perception*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Piaget, J. (1980). "The psychogenesis of knowledge and its epistemological significance". In Piattelli-Palmarini, M. (Ed.), *Language and learning* (pp. 23-34). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Pierce, B. (1995). "Social identity, investment, and language learning". In *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 9-31.

Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. (2002). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications*. (2nd ed.). London: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Polanyi, M. (1966/1997). "The tacit dimension". In Prusak, L. (Ed.), *Knowledge in organizations* (pp. 135-146). Boston: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Popper, K. R. (1972). *Objective knowledge: An evolutionary approach*. Oxford: The Clarendon Press.

Pottier, B. (1985). *Linguistique générale. Théorie et description*. Paris: Klincksieck.

Prabhu, N. S. (1987). *Second language pedagogy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Preston, D. (1989). *Sociolinguistics and second language acquisition*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Prodromou, L. (2001a). "From mother tongue to other tongue". In *Bridges*, 5, 8-12. Also available at:
http://web.archive.org/web/20021119093709/www.thrace-net.gr/bridges/bridges5/From+Mother+Tongue+to+Other+Tonge.html

Pym, A. (1963). "Approach, method and technique". In *ELT Journal*, 17, 63-67.

Pym, A. (1995). "Doubts about deconstruction as a general theory of translation". In *TradTerm*, 2, 11-18.

Pym, A., & Caminade, M. (1995). "Les formations en traduction et interprétation: Essai de recensement mondial". In *Société Française des Traducteurs*, 72, 166-193.

Quirk, R. & Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A university grammar of English*. London: Longman.

Radford, A. (1992). *Transformational grammar: A first course*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Raimes, A. (1983). *Techniques in teaching writing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Rajaud, V. & Brunetti, M. (1992). *Traduir. Initiation à la pratique de la traduction*. Paris: Dunod.

Reid, J. M. (1995). "Learning styles: Issues and answers". In Reid, J. M. *Learning styles in the ESL/EFL classroom* (pp. 3-34). United States of America: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Reiss, K., & Vermeer, H. (1984). *Grundlegung einer allgemeinen translations theorie*. Niemeyer: Tubingen.
---(trans.) García Reina S. & Martín de León, C. (1996). *Fundamentos para una teoría funcional de la traducción*. Madrid: Akal.

Reixac, B. (1992). *Instruccions per a l'ensenyança de minyons*. Vic: Eumo.

Revell, J., & Norman, S. (1997). *In your hands: NLP in ELT*. London: Saffire Press.

Revell, J., & Norman, S. (1999). *Handing over – NLP based activities for language learning*. London: Saffire Press.

Ribé, R. & Vidal, N. (1995). *La enseñanza de la lengua extranjera en la educación secundaria*. Madrid: Alambra Longman.

Richards, J., & Rodgers, T. (1986/2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Riechmann, S., & Grasha, A. F. (1974). "A rational approach to developing and assessing the construct validity of a student learning style scales instrument". In *Journal of Psychology*, 87, 213-223.

Rinvolucri, M. (2001). "Mother tongue in the foreign language classroom". In *Modern English Teacher*, 10, 41-44.

Rist, R. (1970/2000). "Student social class and teacher expectations: The self-fulfilling prophecy in ghetto education". In *Harvard Educational Review,* 70 (3), 257-301.

Rivers, W. M., & Temperly, M. S. (1978). *A practical guide to the teaching of English as a foreign language*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Robinson, D. (1991). *The translator's turn*. Baltimore and London: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Robinson, D. (1997). *Becoming a translator: An accelerated course*. London and New York: Routledge.
Roca-Pons, J. (1986). *Introducción a la gramática*. Barcelona: Teide.

Rodriguez, R. A., Ortega, R. L., & Macarthur, F. (Eds.). (1992). *New directions in foreign language teaching theory and practice*. Salamanca: Universidad.

Roger, E., & Olsen, W. B. (1992). "Cooperative learning and social studies". In Kessler, C. (Ed.). *Cooperative language learning* (pp. 5-8). Hemel Hampstead: Prentice Hall.

Rogers, A. (2003). *What is the difference? A new critique of adult learning and teaching.* Leicester: NIACE.

Rogoff, B. (1990). *Apprenticeship in thinking: Cognitive development in social context.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Rosenzweig, M. R., & Leiman, A. I. (1992). *Psicología fisiológica.* (2nd ed.). Madrid: Mcgraw-Hill.

Rubio Carracedo, J. (2000). "Ciudadanía compleja y democracia". In Rubio Carracedo, J., Rosales, J. M., & Toscano Mendez, M., *Ciudadanía, nacionalismo y derechos humanos* (pp. 21-46). Madrid: Trotta.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1977). "Understanding and summarizing brief stories". In Basic Berge, D. L. & Samuels, J., (Eds.), *Processes in reading and comprehension* (pp 243-63). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1997). "Towards an interactive model of reading." In Dornic, S. (Ed.), *Attention and performance* IV (pp.575-603). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

S.S.A.A. (1981). "Joint statement of the australian national invitational conference on action research held at Deakin University". In Trip, D. H. *Socially critical action research theory into practice* Volume XXIX, 3, 158-166. Columbus: Ohio State University. Educational Research and Development Council (ERDC).

S.S.A.A. (1988). *Examinations in English for international purposes*. London: Author. Institute of Linguistics.

S.S.A.A. (2000). Royal Decree 3474/2000. Establecimiento de las enseñanzas mínimas del bachillerato. Madrid: Boletín Oficial del Estado (BOE).

S.S.A.A. (2002a). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. (CEF). *Learning, teaching, assessment.* Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

S.S.A.A. (2002b). Organic Law 10/2002. Ley de calidad de la educación. Madrid: Boletín Oficial del estado (BOE).

S.S.A.A. (2003). Order 4997/2003. Evaluación, promoción y titulación en la Educación Secundária Obligatória. Madrid: Boletín Oficial del estado (BOE).

S.S.AA. (2004). "The European Language Portfolio: a guide for teachers and teacher trainers". In *Research and Development series*. Council of Europe. Kastaniotis Editions S.A. European Center for Modern Languages (ECML).

S.S.A.A. (2005). Consell Superior d'Avaluació del Sistema Educatiu. *La situació de la llengua anglesa al batxillerat a Catalunya 2000-2004*. Barcelona: Generalitat de Catalunya, Departament d'Educació.

Sabourin, M., Craik, F. M. I., & Robert, M. (Eds.). (1998). "Advances in psychological science. Vol.1: Cognitive and biological aspects". In *Actes du XXVI Congrès International de Psychologie*. Hove, Essex: Psychology Press.

Sagor, R. (2000). *Guiding school improvement with action research*. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD.

Said, E. (1994). *Culture and imperialism*. London: Vintage.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). "Emotional intelligence". In *Imagination, cognition, and personality*, 9, 185-211.

Salovey, P., Bedell, B. T., Detweiler, J. B., & Mayer, J. D. (1999). "Coping intelligently: Emotional intelligence and the coping process". In Snyder, C.R. (Ed.), *Coping: The psychology of what works* (pp. 141-164). New York: Oxford University Press.

Sapir, E. (1921). *Language*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, & Co.

Satorres, B., & Closa, A. (2003). "Translation in the classroom. Why not?" In *A.P.A.C. of News,* 43, 22-30.

Saussure, F. de, (1916/1972). *Cours de linguistique générale.* Paris: Payot.
--- Alonso, A. (Trans.). (1991). *Curso de Lingüística General.* Barcelona: Ariel.

Scarcella, R., & Oxford, R. (1992). *The tapestry of language learning: The individual in the communicative classroom*. Boston: Heinle, & Heinle.

Schaffner, C., & Kelly-Holmes, H. (1995). *Cultural functions of translation*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Schäffner, C. (Ed.). (1998). *Translation and quality*. Current Issues in Language and Society Series. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Schäffner, C. (Ed.). (1999). *Translation and norms*. Current Issues in Language and Society Series. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Schmeck, R. R., (Ed.). (1988). *Learning strategies and learning styles*. New York: Plenum Press.

Schmitt, N., & Schmitt, D. (1995). "Vocabulary notebooks: Theoretical underpinnings and practical suggestions". In *ELT Journal,* 49 (2), 133-143.

Schumann, J. (1978). *The pidginization process: A model for second language acquisition*. Rowley, MA: Newbury house.

Schumann, J. H. (1997). *The neurobiology affect in language*. Boston: Blackwell.

Schunk, D. H. (1991). *Learning theories. An educational perspective*. New York: McMillan.

Schunk, D. L. (1999). "Social-self interaction and achievement behaviour". In *Educational Psychologist*, 34 (4), 219-227.

Scott, W. A., & Ytreberg, L. H. (1990). *Teaching English to children*. London: Longman.

Scott-Tennent, C., González Davies, M., & Rodríguez Torras, F. (2000). "Translation strategies and translation solutions: Design of a teaching prototype and empirical study of its results". In Allison, B., Ensinger, D. & Presas, M. (Eds.), *Selected papers from the 4th International Congress on Translation* (pp. 107–116). Barcelona: Universitat Autónoma.

Scrivener, J. (1994). *Learning teaching*. Oxford: Heinneman.

Searle, J. (1969). *Speech acts*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
--- Valdés, L. M. (1990). *Actos de habla: Ensayo de filosofía del lenguaje*. Madrid: Cátedra.

Séguinot, C. (1991). "A Study of student translation strategies." In Tirkkonen-Condit S. (Ed.), *Empirical research in translation and intercultural studies* (pp. 79-88). Tübingen: Gunter Narr.

Seliger, H. W. (1983). "The language learner as linguist: Of metaphors and realities." In *Applied Linguistics,* 4, 179-91.

Seliger, H. (1988). "Psycholinguistic issues in second language acquisition". In Beebe, L. M. (Ed.), *Issues in second language acquisition: Multiple perspectives* (pp. 17-40). London: Newbury.

Selinker, L. (1972). "Interlanguage". In *IRAL,* 10 (3), 209-231.

Shallice, T. (1988). *From neuropsychology to mental structure*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Silveri, M., & Gainotti, G. (1988). "Interaction between vision and language in category-specific impairment". In *Cognitive Neuropsychology,* 5, 677–709.

Simeoni, D. (1998). "The pivotal status of the translator's habitus". In *Target,* 10 (1), 1-39.
Siraj-Blatchford, I. (1994). *The early years: Laying the foundation for racial equality*. Stoke-on-Trent: Trentham Books.

Skehan, P. (1989). *Individual differences in second language learning*. London: Edward Arnold.

Skinner, B. F. (1953). *Science and human behavior*. New York: The Free Press.

Skinner, B. F. (1985). "Cognitive science and behaviourism". In British Journal of Psychology, 76, 291-301.

Smith, L., & Renzulli, J. (1984). "Learning style preference: A practical approach for classroom teachers". In *Theory into Practice*, 23 (1), 45-50.

Snell-Hornby, M. (1988). *Translation studies. An integrated approach*. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: Benjamins.

Snell-Hornby, M., Jetmarova, Z., & Kaindl, K. (Eds.). (1995). *Translation as intercultural communication*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Solé, I. (1992). *Estratègies de lectura*. Barcelona: Graó.

Springer S. P., & Deutsch. G. (1974/1989). *Left brain, right brain*. New York: W.H. Freeman.
--- Hall, D. (Trans.). (1985). *Cerebro derecho, cerebro izquierdo*. Barcelona: Editorial Gedisa.

Stanovich, K. E. (1980). "Toward an interactive-compensatory model of individual differences in the development of reading fluency". In *Reading Research Quarterly*, 15, 10-29.

Stanoich, K. E. (1990). "Concepts of developmental theories of reading skill: Cognitive resources, automaticity, and modularity". In *Developmental Review*, 10, 72-100.

Stein, D. (1980). *Theoretische grundlagen der übersetzungswissenschaft*. Tübingen: Gunter Narr.

Steiner, G. (1976). *After Babel*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stevick, E. (1976). *Memory, meaning and method*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publishers.

Stevick, E. W. (1980). *A way and ways. Teaching languages*. Rowley Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Stevick, E. W. (1990). *Humanism in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University. Press.

Stockwell, R. P., Bowen, J. D., & Martin J. W. (1965). *The grammatical structures of English and Spanish.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
Strevens, P. (1977). *New orientations in the teaching of English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stubbs, M. (1976). *Language, schools and classrooms*. London: Methuen & Co. Ltd.
--- Flaquer, Ll. (Trans.) (1982). *El llenguatge i l'escola (cap a una anàlisi sociolingüística del llenguatge en l'Educació)*. Barcelona: Rosa Sensat/Eds. 62.

Swan, M. (1985). *Practical English usage*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swarbrick, A. (1994). *Teaching modern languages*. London: Routledge.

Sylwester, R. (1995). *A celebration of neurons*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Tarone, E. (1983). "On the variability of interlanguage systems". In *Applied Linguistics* 4, 143-163.

Taylor, C. P. (1994). "Participant reference in narrative discourse." In Levinsohn, S. H. (Ed.), *Discourse features of ten languages of West-Central Africa* (pp. 91-108). Dallas: Arlington Publications.

Teevan, R. C., & Birney, R. C. (1964). *Theories of motivation in learning. An enduring problem in psychology. An insight book*. London: D.Van Nostrand Company, Inc.

Thorndike, R. L., & Stein, S. (1937). "An evaluation of the attempts to measure social intelligences". In *Psychological Bulletin*, 34, 275-284.

Tirkkonen-Condit, S. (Ed.). (1991). *Empirical research in translation and intercultural studies*. Tübingen: Gunter Narr.

Titford, C., & Hieke, A. E. (1985). *Translation in foreign language teaching and testing*. Tubinga: Gunter Narr.

Titone, R. (1968). *Teaching foreign languages: An historical sketch*. Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Toury, G. (1982). *Norms of literacy translation into Hebrew*. Tel Aviv: The Porter Institute for Poetics and Semiotics.

Toury, G. (1995). *Descriptive translation studies and beyond*. Amsterdam-Philadelphia: Benjamins.

Toury, G. (1998). "A handful of paragraphs on 'Translation' and 'Norms". In Schäffner, C. (Ed.), *Translation and norms* (pp. 10-32). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Towell, R., & Hawkins, R. (1994). *Approaches to second language acquisition*. Clevedon, U.K.: Multilingual Matters.

Trager, G. (1949). *The field of linguistics*. Norman, O.K.: Battenberg Press.

Tristán, Rosa M. (2005, 30 May). "El cerebro de los músicos oie distinto". In *El Mundo*, 30-37.

Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching. Practice and theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Usó Ballester, M. D. (Ed.). (1992). *Ensenyament i aprenentatge de llengües*. Castelló de la Plana: Publicacions de la Universitat Jaume I.

Valdes, J. M. (Ed.). (1986). *Culture bound: Beyond the cultural gap in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Vale, D., & Feunteun, A. (1995). *Teaching children English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

VanEls, T., & DeBot, K. (1987). *Investigating the effect of intonation on ... applied linguistics*. New York: Newbury House.

Venuti, L. (Ed.). (1992). *Rethinking translation: Discourse, subjectivity, ideology*. London and New York: Routledge.

Venuti, L. (1995). *The translator's invisibility. A history of translation.* London and New York: Routledge.

Venuti, L. (1996). "Translation, heterogeneity, linguistics". In *TTR*, 9 (1), 91-116.

Venuti, L. (1998). *The scandals of translation. Towards an ethics of difference*. London and New York: Routledge.

Vermeer, H. (1989/2000). "Skopos and commission in translational action". In Venuti, L. (Ed.), *The translation studies reader* (pp. 221-232). London and New York: Roudledge.

Vidal Claramonte, M. C. A. (1995). *Traducción, manipulación, deconstrucción*. Salamanca: Ediciones del Colegio de España.

Vila, I. (1989). *Adquisició i desenvolupament del llenguatge infantil*. Barcelona: Ed. Graó.

Vilá, M. (1994). *Atenció a la diversitat*. Girona: Universitat de Girona.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1930/1994). "The socialist alteration of man". In Van der Veer, R., & Valsiner, J. (Eds.), *The Vygotsky reader* (pp. 175-184). Oxford, U.K.: Blackwell.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1934/1962). *Thought and language*. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1935/1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, M.A.: Harvard University Press.
Waddell, M. L., Esch, R. M., & Walker, R. R. (1993). *The art of styling sentences: 20 patterns for succes*s. (3rd ed.). New York: Barron's Educational Series.

Wallace, A. (1970). *Culture and personality*. New York: Random House.
--- Kestelbolm, E. (Trans.). (1963). *Cultura y personalidad*. Buenos Aires: Editorial Paidós.

Warrington, E. K., & McCarthy, R. A. (1983). "Category specific access dysphasia". In *Brain*, 106, 859-878.

Warrington, E. K., & Shallice, T. (1984). "Category specific semantic impairments". In *Brain*, 107, 829-854.

Warrington, E. K., & McCarthy, R. A. (1987). "Categories of knowledge: Further fractionations and an attempted integration". In *Brain*, 110, 1273-1296.

Watcyn-Jones, P., & Howard-Williams, D. (2001). *Grammar 1: Games and activities* (Penguin English Photocopiables). Harlow, Essex: Pearson Education Ltd.

Weaver, W. (1949). "Translation". In Locke, W. N. and Booth, A. D. (Eds.), *Machine translation of languages: fourteen essays (*pp. 15-23)*. Cambridge: Technology Press of M.I.T.

Webster, M. (1961). Webster's third new international dictionary. Springfield, M.A.: G. & C. Merriam Company.

Wechsler, D. (1940). "Nonintellective factors in general intelligences". In *Psychologial Bulletin*, 37, 444-445.

Wechsler, D. (1943). "The non-intellective factor in general intelligence". In *Journal for Abnormal Social Psychology*, 38, 100-104.

Wechsler, D. (1958). *The measurement and appraisal of adult intelligence*. Baltimore, M.D.: The Williams, & Wilkins Company.

Weiner, B. (1992). *Human motivation. Metaphors, theories, & research*. London: Sage Publications.

Weinreich, U. (1968). *Languages in contact: Findings and problems*. The Hague: Mouton.

Wetz, B., & Mark, G. (2002). *Exchange ESO 3*. Spain: Oxford University Press.

Wetz, B., & Mark, G. (2002). *Exchange ESO 4*. Spain: Oxford University Press.

White, L. (1981). "The responsability of grammatical theory to acquisitional data". In Hornstein, N., & Lightfoot, D. (Eds.), *Explanations in linguistics* (pp 89-123). London: Longman.

Whitley, S. (1986). *Spanish/English contrasts*. Georgetown: Georgetown University Press.

Widdowson, H. G. (1974). "The deep structure of discourse and the use of translation". In Brumfit C. J., & Johnson K. (Eds.), (1979) *The communicative approach to language teaching* (30-71). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H. G. (1983). *Learning purpose and language use*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wiersma, W. (1986). *Research methods in education. An introduction*. (4th ed.). London: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Wilcox, K. (1988). "Differential socialization in the classroom: Implications for equal opportunity". In Spindler, G. (Ed.), *Doing the ethnography of schooling* (pp. 268-309). Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.

Willett, C. (1998). *Theorizing multiculturalism. A guide to the current debate*. London: Blackwell Publishers LTD.

Williams, L. V. (1983). *Teaching for the two-sided mind; A guide to right brain/left brain education*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
--- Riambau, E. (Trans.). (1986). *Aprender con todo el cerebro. Estrategias y modos de pensamiento*. Barcelona: Martines Roca.

Wilss, W. (1996). *Knowledge and skills in translator behaviour*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Wolff, D. (2002). "Neue formen des sprachenlernens und ihre lernpsychologischen und didaktischen grundlagen". In the *Seminario del Instituto Goethe de Madrid Manuscript*, 6, 28-29.

Wood, J. W. (1998). *Adapting instruction to accommodate students in inclusive settings*. (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Merrill.

Magazines with activities, tasks or projects used in the classroom setting:

I Love English Magazine

It's Magazine

Electronic addresses

O'Neill, R. (1998). "Crucial differences between L1 and L2 Acquisition". In *Language Acquisition and Methodology*. Retrieved March, 2006. http://www.btinternet.com/~ted.power/esl0412.html

Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (2005). "Influence of attitude on Behaviour." In *European Online Review of social psychology*. University of Massachusetts & University of Pennsylvania. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&lr=&q=cache:rXj14zHIcOQJ:home.comcast.net/~aizen/att.handbook.pdf+thinking,+willing,+acting,+cognition,+conation,+feeling

Atkinson, R. J. (2001). "Editorial" [electronic version]. In *Australian Journal of Educational Technology,* 17(1), iii-vi. Retrieved February 1, 2006. http://www.ascilite.org.au/ajet/ajet17/editorial17-1.html

Beaver, D. (1999). "NLP and lazy language learning". In *TEFL Net*. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.tefl.net/esl-articles/nlp-esl.htm

Belisle, L. (2005). "Can certain aromas heal what ails you?". In *News 8 Austin*. Time Warner Cable. Retrieved August 15, 2005.
http://www.news8austin.com/content/top_stories/?SecID=1

Bolívar, A. (2004). "Citizenship and public school in the context of cultural diversity". In *Consejo Mexicano de Investigación Educativa A. C.* Retrieved February 1, 2006. http://www.comie.org.mx/revista/PdfsEnglish/Carpeta20/20investTem1Engl.pdf

Breed, M. (2001). "Consolidation, strength of memory, and forgetting". In *Animal Behavior Online*. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.animalbehavioronline.com/forgetting.html

Cherrington, D. J. (2003). "Organizational effectiveness". In *Brigham Young University Academic Creative Works Programs*. University of Brigham. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://w2.byuh.edu/academics/religion/martinsm/BUS300/Book/Cherrington-7-Motivation.pdf

Clark, T. (2006). "Integrated classroom lighting system: Light's great, less billing". In *Public Interest Energy Research Program Webpage*. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.esource.com/public/pdf/cec/CEC-TB-1.pdf

Diamond, M. C. (2001). "The brain... use it or loose it". In *Tools for Teachers Resources for Brain Theory Research*. Retrieved September, 2005.
http://www.geocities.com/educationplace/theory.htm

Dunn & Dunn. (2004). "Learning styles resource brochure". In *Learning Styles Network*. St. John's University. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.learningstyles.net

Farr, G. (2002). "The special senses/All about the special senses". In *BecomeHealthyNow*. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.becomehealthynow.com/article/bodyspecial/758/

Griffin, J. (1998). "School-museum integrated learning experiences in science: A learning journey". Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Sydney, Australia: University of Technology. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.astc.org/resource/education/bailey.htm

Grossen, B. (1996). "How should we group to achieve excellence with equity?" In *Association for Direct Instruction*. University of Oregon. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~adiep/grp.htm#Effects

Hein, S. (2005). "Introduction to Emotional Intelligence". In *EQ Informational Site on Emotions, Emotional Intelligence and Education*. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://eqi.org/history.htm

Humphries, S. (1998). "Parents have homework, too". In *Exploring Middle School Reform*, *Middleweb*. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.middleweb.com/INCASEPrntHmwk.html

Ireson, J., Hallam, S., & Plewis, I. (2001). "Ability grouping in secondary schools: effects on pupils' self-concepts". In *PubMed,* 71(2), 315-26. Service of the National Library of Medicine and the National Institutes of Health. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=11449939&dopt=Citation

James Guillespie high school. (2005). "Aromotherapy in the classroom". In *Additional Learning Related Activities*. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.jghs.edin.sch.uk/supportforlearnig/studysupport.html

Kimura, Y.G. (2006). "The portrait of Moses". In *Pattern Reasearch Inc. Tools for Explorers*. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.pattern.com/kimura-moses.html

Kizlik, B. (2005). "System for instruction". In *ADPRIMA*. University of Phoenix. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.adprima.com/adprisys.htm

Kotulak, R. (2001). "Learning how to use the brain". In *New Horizons for Learning*. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.newhorizons.org/ofc_21cliusebrain.html.

Leiner, H. C. & Leiner, A. L. (1997). "The treasure at the bottom of the brain". In *New Horizons for Learning*. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.newhorizons.org/neuro/leiner.htm

Marshall, S. P. (2000). "Principles of the new story of learning". In *New Horizons for Learning* online journal, VI, 1. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
www.newhorizons.org

McCluskey, A. (1997). "The whole universe is in each one of us". In *Connected*. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.connected.org/learn/learn.html

Paolo, T. Di. (2004). "How we learn". In *BBC Returning to Learning*. Open University. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.bbc.co.uk/learning/returning/betterlearner/learningstyle/a_whatislearning_03.shtml

Pines, M. (2005). "It's all in the brain: Sensing change in the environment". In *Seeing, Hearing, and Smelling the World*. Howard Hugues Medical Institute. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.hhmi.org/senses/a120.html

Schunk, D. L. (1999). "Social-self interaction and achievement behavior" [electronic version]. In *Educational Psychologist*, 34 (4), 219-227. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.bsu.edu/classes/cassady2/EDPSY765/schunk.html

Smith, M. K. (1999). "Learning theory". In *Infed*, the Encyclopedia of informal education. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
www.infEd.org/biblio/b-learn.htm

Smith, M. K. (2003). "From youth work to youth development. The new government framework for English youth services". In *The informal education homepage*. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.infed.org/archives/jeffs_and_smith/smith_youth_work_to_youth_development.htm

S.S.A.A. (2006). Estilos de aprendizaje. In *Aprender a aprender*. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.galeon.com/aprenderaaprender/hemisferios/pensamiento.html

Stevens, S. H. (1997). "Adjustments in classroom management excerpted from classroom success for the LD and ADHD child". In *LD OnLine Newsletter*. Weta production. Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.ldonline.org/ld_indepth/teaching_techniques/class_manage.html

Strohmeyer, V. (1999). "Where and how do we learn languages?" (electronic version). In *TESOL Matters*, 9 (6). Retrieved February 1, 2006.
http://www.tnfsh.tn.edu.tw/teach/eng/web/tesol/www.tesol.org/pubs/articles/1999/tm9912-04.html

Electronic addresses with activities, tasks or projects used in the classroom setting:

http://www.bogglesworld.com

http://www.eslcafe.com

http://www.esl-lounge.com

http://www.experiencethailand.netfirms.com

http://www.handoutsonline.com

http://www.richmondelt.com

http://www.xtec.net

Lectures

Connor, K. (2000). "Heterogeneous classes." Lecture presented at the *Jornades pedagògiques de llengües estrangeres de les comarques gironines*.

Cook, G. (2000). "Critical distinctions: Validity of a number of dichotomies, which underpin current theories, and practice of English language teaching." Lecture presented at the *A.P.A.C. 2000 Convention*.

De Salvador, N., & Maguire, T. (2001). "Making sense. Practical ways of using NLP and mind maps." Lecture presented at the *A.P.A.C. 2001 Convention.*

Downie, M. (2001). "Working with mixed ability groups." Lecture presented at the *A.P.A.C. 2001 Convention*.

Esteve, O. (2002). "Conscienciació lingüística i traducció dins d'un enfocament comunicatiu: són plantejaments compatibles?" Lecture presented as part of the doctoral studies, Universitat de Vic.

Esteve, O. (2002). "Recerca a l'aula." Lecture presented as part of the doctoral studies, Universitat de Vic.

Feldstein, J., Maldonado, M. A., Montoliu, M. R., & Sierra, I. (2002). "Viatge a la creativitat: aplicació a l'aula." Lecture presented as part of the *Creativity summer course 2002*, Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya.

Godayol, P. (1995). "Translation in language teaching." Lecture presented at the *A.P.A.C. 1995 Convention*.

González Davies, M. (2000b). "Translation activities in the foreign language teaching." Lecture presented at the *A.P.A.C. 2000 Convention.*

González Davies, M. (2002c). "Què és la competència traductora?" Lecture presented as part of the doctoral studies, Universitat de Vic.

Hermans, T. (1999). "Norms of translation: Theory, application and implications." Lecture presented as part of the interuniversities doctoral studies, Universitat de Vic.

Keim, L. (2002). "Lengua, cultura y traducción." Lecture presented as part of the doctoral studies, Universitat de Vic.

Laboria, G. M. L. (2000). "Neuro Linguistic Programming." Lecture presented at the *Jornades pedagògiques de llengües estrangeres de les comarques gironines*.

Leary, J. (2001). "Three for the price of one." Lecture presented at the *A.P.A.C. 2001 Convention*.

Macaro, E. (2006). "L1 Prior knowledge, comprehension and the second language." Lecture presented as part of the secondary PGCE, Cambridge University.

Nixon, M. (2000). "Good classroom acoustics is a good investment." Lecture presented in the *17th ICA conference*, Università di Roma.

Nord, C. (1999). "La traducción como actividad funcional." Lecture presented as part of the interuniversities conferences for doctoral studies, Universitat Pompeu Fabra.

Prodromou, L. (2001b). "ELT concerto: Transforming teachers." Lecture presented at the *A.P.A.C. 2001 Convention.*

Prodromou, L. (2001c). "The importance of being a good reader." Lecture presented at the *A.P.A.C. 2001 Convention*.

Rinvolucri, M. (2003). "NLP". *2003 Pilgrims Summer Course*, University of Kent.

Robinson, D. (2000). "The translator as ethical agent: ideological and metalocutionary implicature." Lecture presented as part of the doctoral studies, Universitat de Vic.

Samson, R. (2000). "Language and translation, code and communication." Lecture presented at the *Jornades pedagògiques de llengües estrangeres de les comarques gironines*.

Samson, R. (2002). "Exploiting activities." Lecture presented at the *Translation in the Foreign Language Class Summer Course*, Universitat de Vic.

Scott-Tennent, C. (2002). "Traducción, lenguas extranjeras y cognición." Lecture presented as part of the doctoral studies, Universitat de Vic.

Snell-Hornby, M. (1999). "Translation and cultural identity." Lecture presented as part of the interuniversities conferences for doctoral studies, Universitat Autónoma de Barcelona.

Tsai, B. (2003). "NLP". *2003 Pilgrims Summer Course*, University of Kent.

Culture I — Culture I or II — Culture II

Reaction II
W K
I_3
decodify code II
Context III
T r C
L A
TT
intention
P A
Communicative function

Textual information
channel
message
noise

Text restructuring
Codify code II
I A
Tp B

Reaction I
W K
I_2
= Translator =
Context II

Communicative function analysis
Text analysis
decodify code I
P A
T R B
Client

Textual information
channel
message
noise

L A
ST
intention
Codify code I
T P A
I A
Communicative function

W K
I_1
Context I

Section I — Section II — Section III