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Contents

From the Editor

Estimados lectores,

En este número de invierno se presentan cinco artículos que esperamos sean de su interés.

En la sección de *Research Articles* el primer artículo reporta un estudio hecho sobre normalistas Mexicanos en Texas que serán parte de un programa de formación de profesores de educación bilingüe . En este estudio se analizan sus actitudes hacia el español, la pluriculturalidad del alumnado, el bilingüismo y la educación bilingüe.

El segundo artículo es un estudio sobre cómo enseñar en clase de inglés el uso apropiado y de manera creativa del lenguaje.El enfoque de este artículo es sobre la enseñanza del inglés usándo un método comunicativo pero con especial orientación en el uso correcto del lenguaje.

Como tercer artículo de investigación les presentamos el artículo *"Students' Emotional and Cognitive Responses to Teachers: How can we better understand them?"* , cómo tener en cuenta las respuestas emocionales y cognitivas de los alumnos, cuando cada alumno es un mundo.

En la sección de *Professional Practice* tenemos una propuesta para usar las canciones en clase de ESL/EFL. Se nos presentan los objetivos, propósitos y modo de aplicación de este material, cómo elegir una canción, que se ha de tomar en cuenta y cómo sacarle el máximo partido a este instrumento de enseñanza.

Y como último artículo de Professional Practice , se profundiza en el tema de promover la autonomía del alumno, y que el curriculum no esté exclusivamente orientado hacia el profesor como enseñante, sino hacia el alumno como aprendiz.

Esperamos que este ejemplar les sea de mucha utilidad y como siempre esperamos y agradecemos sus sugerencias y comentarios.

La editora

Research Issues

Is Spanish Proficiency Simply Enough? An Examination of *Normalistas* Attitudes towards Spanish, Bilingualism, and Bilingual Education Pedagogy

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ABSTRACT

This study surveyed a sample of *normalistas* (Mexican certified teachers) who were being considered as applicants to a university preservice bilingual education teacher preparation program. The purpose of the study was to critically examine whether their attitudes towards Spanish use, bilingualism, and bilingual pedagogy were aligned with the needs of linguistically and culturally distinct minority children.[1]

As expected the descriptive findings indicated that the *normalistas* use of Spanish, attitude towards Spanish and bilingualism were positive. When we compared these results with the findings of the pre-interviews, we noted a close match between the self-reported and the observed findings. We also note a high degree of academic language use and proficiency and positive attitude towards Spanish, bilingualism and bilingual education. However, as indicated by the multivariate results, having one does not guarantee the other. Interestingly, for example although bilingualism was valued, the notion that bilingual education may conflict with the attainment of American values and may cause bilingual children to have an accent in English strikes discord. These findings are especially important to consider when *normalistas* are being sought as prospective bilingual education teachers.

[1]Clark and Flores acknowledge the support of their University of Texas at San Antonio Faculty Research Grants.

Is Spanish Proficiency Simply Enough? An Examination of *Normalistas* Attitudes towards Spanish, Bilingualism, and Bilingual Education Pedagogy

Introduction

As we move onward in the 21st century, we continue to see the disparity in the numbers of bilingual teachers as compared to the increasing numbers of language minority children (Reyna, 1993; Johnson, 1993). Additionally, recent positive reform efforts within bilingual education, specifically dual language programs, have confounded this picture. So the stakes have increased, not only is there a growing demand for bilingual teachers, but also the necessity for professional levels of language proficiency across domains in both languages

this is a refereed article
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(Snow, 1990).

Bilingual teacher educators would concede that bilingual teachers need to demonstrate a certain level of proficiency across domains in both languages to be effective bilingual teachers (See Guerrero, 1997, 1998 & 1999). Other researchers have reminded us of the shift towards the majority language in bilingual classrooms and the native language regulated to giving directions, clarifying issues, and maintaining classroom discipline (See Escamilla, 1994; McCollum, 1993; Pease-Álvarez & Winsler, 1994). For language minority children, this represents a subtractive environment that does not result in academic achievement (Collier, 1992; Lindholm, 1995).

In the case of bilingual education teachers in which the minority language is Spanish, this line of research has encouraged positive changes in bilingual teacher preparation programs. Across the country, in order to assure quality control in the level of Spanish proficiency, preservice bilingual education teachers are required to demonstrate proficiency on a state mandated test. However, as noted by Guerrero (1997), many of these proficiency tests merely create an illusion of competency. Some researchers have indicated that the current standards are minimal and that the stakes should be raised in order to assure that bilingual teachers can deliver cognitively and academically demanding text in the bilingual programs. Other researchers have noted that in order to establish a quality dual language program, bilingual teachers must be able to deliver scientific and technical content areas in Spanish that promotes the construction of the bilingual students' cognitive academic language proficiency (See Guerrero, 1997, 1998 & 1999).

Unfortunately, in many cases, university students pursuing bilingual teacher preparation have themselves been denied the opportunity to build their cognitive academic Spanish language proficiency in the K-12 school system (See Hernández-Chavez, 1996). In addition, often the university level courses in Spanish do not meet their needs as bilinguals with varying degrees of proficiency across language domains. Too often the foreign language departments' professors often assume that everyone in their classroom is a beginner with no knowledge of the target language. Bilingual education students are often reminded of their inadequacy in the target language, a language that once was and may continue to be their native language (Title VII Report Notes, 1992-1997).

Some universities recognizing the need for assuring the quality of bilingual teacher preparation to meet the growing demands of dual language programs have increased the number of content courses taught in Spanish and the number of formal language courses taken by preservice bilingual teachers. Nevertheless, these changes are minimal; Guerrero (1997) cautioned that most universities continue to prepare bilingual education teachers without any course work in Spanish.

Therefore, these efforts alone will not meet the pressing demands for highly qualified bilingual teachers. Thus, a compelling issue within many communities has been to look for alternatives in meeting this demand. Such efforts to increase the pool of bilingual teachers have included "home-grown" bilingual teachers or alternative certification programs (See Díaz-Rico, Lynne, & Smith, 1994; Genzuk & Baca, 1998; Torres-Karna, & Krustchinksy, 1998). Although these efforts are valiant, neither the disparity issue and/or the assurance of cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) in the native language have been resolved. Another recent effort has been to recruit foreign-trained teachers from Spanish-speaking countries (Varisco de García & García, 1996). The rationale for inclusion of these teachers trained elsewhere is that there is a definite need to increase the number of competent bilingual educators. Since few studies focus on incorporating foreign-trained teachers into the existing pool and the feasibility of such actions, we must critically investigate their potentiality as prospective bilingual education teachers.

Rationale for Study

In an effort to assure that a highly qualified bilingual teacher pool is replenished, some universities are currently tapping into a new potential source of bilingual teachers within their own community. Specifically, Project Alianza[1], a comprehensive, collaborative project across five universities, is retooling foreign-trained Mexican teachers (normalistas) who are currently legally residing immigrants (Cantu, 1999; Supik, 1999; Clark & Flores, 2001, Petrovic, J. E., Orozco, G., González, E., & Díaz de Cossio, 1999). Some of the obvious assumptions are that these normalistas have not only the experience of classroom teaching, but also the cognitive academic language proficiency in Spanish.

However, as indicated by the title of this article, it cannot be assumed that Spanish proficiency necessarily indicates that normalistas have the sociocultural knowledge to meet the needs of language minority children in the United States. To make this assumption would suggest that a Spanish-speaking foreign-trained teacher will reflect the sociolinguistic milieu of the bilingual classroom as it exists in this country (Maroney & Smith, 2000). Calderón and Díaz (1994) noted that these realities are different for teachers working with Latino children and that they must be prepared to deal with the issues of cultural and linguistic differences.

In order to address these, it is imperative that we investigate normalistas' attitudes towards Spanish, bilingualism, and bilingual education pedagogy. Furthermore, it is important to examine if a relationship existed between their Spanish use and Spanish attitudes, bilingualism, and bilingual education pedagogy. Based on these premises, a study of the sociocultural contexts in which language use is embedded can play a central role in advancing our basic understanding of prospective bilingual education teacher language competencies. This exploratory study will assist in conceptualizing and informing bilingual teacher preparation programs designed for the transformation of normalistas (Mexican trained teachers) residing legally in the US. Thus, the following three main research questions were explored in this study:

(1) What is normalistas' proficiency and use of Spanish?
(2) What are normalistas' attitudes towards Spanish, bilingualism, and bilingual education pedagogy?
(3) What is the relationship between Spanish use and attitudes towards Spanish, bilingualism, and bilingual education pedagogy?

Review of Related Literature

The review of literature provided a theoretical framework to establish the importance of Spanish proficiency and use, attitudes of teachers towards Spanish, bilingualism and bilingual education pedagogy. This review of related literature assisted in defining the constructs to be measured in the study.

Spanish Proficiency and Use

Language is the fundamental vehicle for realizing the full potential of humans. Because language and literacy are what enable one generation to pass its cultural heritage and traditions on the next generation, it is of vital importance that teachers value and develop the first language of children (Romo, 1999).

Scholars interested in language and linguistics have illuminated ethnic, gender, and class distinctions embodied in language varieties spoken by different groups within the US. Researchers have studied the embedded nature of language within education and social stratification issues. Sociolinguists' explorations of dimensions of language in communities have led to better understanding of neighborhoods, families, social status and relationships (Gumperz & Hymes, 1986; Heath, 1995, 1986; Phillips, 1983; Kramarae, 1981).

> "There are credible implications that many bilingual education teachers do not command the academic Spanish language at a native or near-native level of proficiency. Furthermore, when they are expected and presumed to be

capable, their lack of proficiency may - in conjunction with other factors - negatively impact student outcomes (as cited by Guerrero, 1999, p. 32)."

The everyday requirements of language and literacy and culture and identity are also closely tied to the social contexts of ethnic group and class interactions, to gender roles in families and the community, and to details of a transnational political economy.

Of great import is to provide language minority children with teachers who share a common first language and who are of their same cultural background, thereby, alleviating many cultural and linguistic challenges that arise in our schools and classrooms (Saracho & Spodek, 1995; Reed, 1998). That the Spanish proficiency of teachers is related to students' achievement in Spanish as well as in English was a finding of Merino, Politzer and Ramirez's (1979) work. Quintanar-Sarellana (1997) suggests that Spanish speaking teachers can be viewed as linguistic brokers for language minority students and are valuable assets to schools. She also states that "Spanish proficiency is a variable that enhances teachers' understanding of the language and culture of Hispanic students. Thus, the expectation of proficiency in the students' language merits closer scrutiny and consideration." (p. 51).

For language minority students, the most direct way to communicate and to provide instruction is through the primary language (Cummins, 1981). One of the most effective means for communicating and interacting with children is through the language the student already knows, especially, when the primary language is used to teach academic content (Krashen & Biber, 1988). According to Hernandez (1995), to deny a student the use of their primary language at the critical thinking level is to deny them access to their normal cognitive development. Quintanar-Sarellana (1997) found that teachers with high Spanish proficiency perceived linguistic minority students and bilingual education programs in a more positive light.

In a recent study by Maroney and Smith (2000) with foreign trained teachers, respondents discussed a major incongruity in students' schooling experiences being the students' and parents' limited English proficiency and the limited Spanish used in schools. The respondents saw parents being excluded as partners in their children's education because of the language incongruity that exists between the home and school: "Also, the push to learn and speak English at school can sometimes introduce additional personal and cultural conflicts for students who live in Spanish-speaking homes; the language they learn at home is one and at school is another one" (p. 4).

Hernandez (1995) commented that teachers may question their effectiveness in providing instruction to language minority students because their lack of language proficiency affects the quality of presentation of content instruction. "[But] if the child has a bilingual teacher that speaks his/her own language, he/she is going to help that child" (Maroney & Smith, 2000, p. 8). As evident in Jiménez & Gersten (1999) recent study, it was not only the language used in the classroom by the Latino teachers, it was the "unconditional linguistic acceptance" by the teacher that created a climate that mediated the acquisition of literacy.

Attitude to Spanish and Use

Teachers' attitudes and beliefs about minority students' language and culture play a critical role in determining students' performance in the classroom (Telese, 1997; Savignon, 1976). Saracho and Spodek (1995) noted that a teacher's attitudes, values, and competencies with respect to one language and culture has not been critically studied. They posited: "However, little attention has been given to the teacher as a person - how s/he feels about the students that s/he teaches, and what s/he believes about teaching language minority students in an English-dominant U.S. society" (p. 57). Smith's (1999) study suggested that children are aware of a teacher's attitude towards the native language based on the their degree of Spanish language use.

> The decision to use one language or another is often unconscious and spontaneous. It would appear, however, that the children at this age are able to assess their linguistic ecology in an attempt to decipher the role and power that individual languages enjoy. The adults' intentionality notwithstanding, the interpretation that students make of language speakers and events - i.e. their linguistic ecology - depends in great part on what they see and hear. Logically, that assessment, in turn, would influence their own language preferences (p. 279).

According to Hernandez (1995), crucial for school success is the teachers' ability to use the students' primary language, thereby, exhibiting a positive attitude not only to the language but also to the community culture

Attitude to Bilingualism and Bilingual Education

There is a lack of research that has been done with teacher's attitudes toward bilingualism and bilingual education. In the evaluation of the competencies of preservice and inservice bilingual education teachers, Clark and Milk (1983) found that their responses were generally positive. The analysis was useful in discerning differences between these two groups, with preservice bilingual teachers being more optimistic towards their competency as a bilingual educator and the role of bilingual education. Shin and Krashen's (1996) study demonstrated that teachers supported the principles of bilingual education. These teachers strongly believed in the development of bilingualism and instruction in the native language. Further, they also noted that the theoretical rationale for the usage of two languages in instruction led to cognitive benefits. Quintanar-Sarellana (1997) in her study found that Hispanic teachers with high Spanish proficiency had positive perceptions regarding bilingual programs. In a recent study conducted by Maroney and Smith (2000), foreign-trained teachers' thoughts regarding bilingual education were positive in nature. They believed that bilingual education: a) is an important tool for developing literacy in two languages; b) provides a structured environment for children to learn English in; c) fosters biliteracy and biculturalism; and d) validates English and the native language. They also felt that bilingual education in United States is "necessary, important, and indispensable" (p. 17). The foreign-trained educators in the Maroney and Smith study regard bilingual education as consistent with the aims of bilingualism and biliteracy that Baker (1997) cited as being present in strong forms of bilingual education programs. Baker describes "strong" types of programs as fostering bilingualism and biliteracy, thereby, encouraging pluralism, enrichment and the maintenance of both languages. In strong bilingual education programs, we note the delicate balance of language proficiency and use in relation to bilingualism and bilingual education. This balance triggers positive educational outcomes.

Therefore, it is toward this goal that we should strive in the preparation of bilingual education teachers. Clark (work in progress) suggests that preservice teachers must be assisted in their transformation/metamorphosis process. This review of literature clearly delineates the need to investigate Spanish use and proficiency, and attitudes towards Spanish, bilingualism, and bilingual pedagogy of prospective bilingual education teachers. If the goal of recent recruiting programs is to transform normalistas as bilingual education teachers, we must critically examine their views as well. As bilingual education teacher educators, we must not leave these issues to chance.

Methodology

A static survey design was employed to address the three research questions. A bimethodological approach was utilized to conduct the data collection and analysis. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the quantitative data. The qualitative data was organized by emergent themes and triangulated (Miles & Huberman, 1994) with the

findings of the quantitative data.

Description of Participants

The participants were applicants to Project Alianza at a local university. This project provides a program for normalistas (i.e., teachers certified in Mexico) to obtain a Texas bilingual education and elementary teaching certification. Participants were conveniently selected from the pool of applicants and were assured that their responses or participation did not impact their selection to Project Alianza.

Procedure. A graduate student, a recent immigrant who had been an educational psychologist in Mexico, scheduled appointments for a group administration of survey instruments. Out of sixty normalistas contacted, 47 (78%) agreed to participate in this study. All directions and instruments were in Spanish. Participants' identity and records were kept confidential. Participants were told that there were no right or wrong responses and that they should respond honestly.

Instruments

A careful review of the literature revealed no availability of specific instruments to measure the defined constructs. Four Likert-scale instruments were employed in this study. The Use of Spanish (US), Attitude to Bilingualism (AB), and Attitude to Spanish (AS) are instruments developed by Baker (1997). Clark and Milk (1983) developed the Bilingual Teacher-Training Project Questionnaire. All four instruments were translated by a professional bilingual translator, educated in Mexico, and checked for accuracy by the researchers and bilingual colleagues.

The following three instruments were judged as practical for measuring the constructs of Spanish use, attitude towards Spanish, and attitudes towards bilingualism.

Use of Spanish (US). Baker (1997) developed this 21-item instrument that determines an individual's use of Spanish in social settings. The researchers modified the US to a 4-point scale with 4 = Important and 1 = Unimportant.

Attitude to Spanish (AS). Baker (1997) constructed this 20-item instrument to reveal an individual's attitude towards Spanish. The researchers attached a 5-point scale to the response choices with 5 = SA and 1 = SD.

Attitude to Bilingualism (AB). Baker (1997) designed this 24-item instrument to measure an individual's attitude towards the English and Spanish languages. A 5-point scale was affixed to the response choices with 5 = SA and 1 = SD by the researchers.

Bilingual Teacher-Training Project Questionnaire. (BTTPQ) is a 5-point (5 = SA and 1 = SD) Likert-scale instrument. Clark and Milk (1983) employed this instrument in the evaluation the competencies of preservice and inservice bilingual education teachers in a Title VII bilingual teacher training project. Over the years, this instrument has been revised and used as a means to determine the competencies of Title VII preservice bilingual teachers. Therefore, this instrument was selected as an appropriate measure for determining the normalistas attitude towards bilingual education teacher pedagogy.

Unstructured Interviews. In addition to the scale data, the researchers examined transcripts from the pre-interviews conducted by the Project Alianza selection committee. These data were used to triangulate with the findings from the quantitative analysis.

Data Analysis

We employed SPSS v8 (1998) to assist with the data analysis. Items that were reverse order were recoded to reflect the same directionality (e.g., 5 = 1, 1 = 5). Descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) were computed for each of the survey items. Archival data was gathered from an open-ended protocol used as pre-interview for the Project Alianza. Themes were generated from the pre-interview responses. These themes were cross-referenced with the descriptive results and were used to deepen our understanding of the findings. We recognize the limitations of our static-design study because of the sample size and

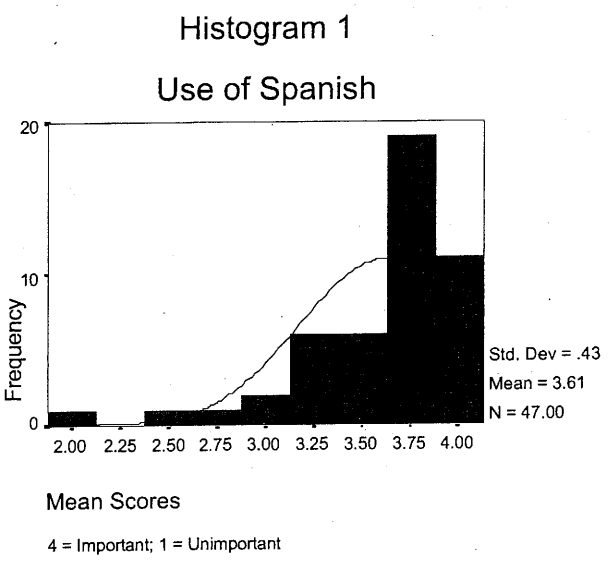
the use of volunteers, we nevertheless, feel that the findings merit consideration. In order to clearly delineate the findings each research questions' results are presented and discussed in the subsequent paragraph.

Results and Discussion

What is normalistas' proficiency and use of Spanish?

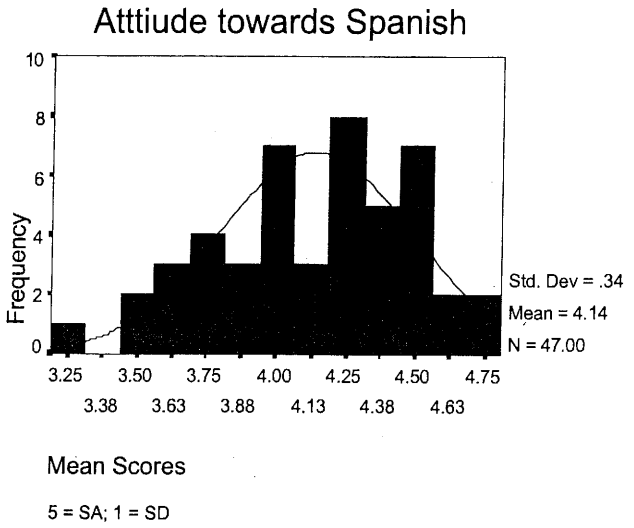
Spanish Proficiency and Use. The daily use and preference of Spanish as the means of communication was very evident in the pre-interviews and the survey items. During the pre-interviews, when asked to respond to a question in English, the majority of the normalistas expressed great discomfort in their ability to speak English. In fact, some would simply respond in Spanish rather than responding in English. When asked to switch to English by the interviewers, some revealed that they could not speak in English despite the fact that the majority of the normalistas had been legally residing in the US for an average of 5 years. The pre-interview committee rated all of the normalistas very highly on their oral Spanish proficiency. However, one of the instructors remarked that in individual cases, normalistas' Spanish writing skills may be lacking. Therefore, although the normalistas are very comfortable and proficient in their native language, their Spanish writing proficiency cannot be taken for granted in all instances. As bilingual teachers, they will be expected not only to model oral proficiency, but Spanish writing as well.

Interestingly, a difference was noted for normalistas who have been employed in US schools as paraprofessionals - these individuals were more likely to feel comfortable switching to English when prompted in English and in some cases code-switched throughout the interview. Nevertheless, the survey data still revealed a high use and preference for the total group on a four point scale (4 = Important) for Spanish in their daily lives (M = 3.61; SD = .43; See Histogram 1



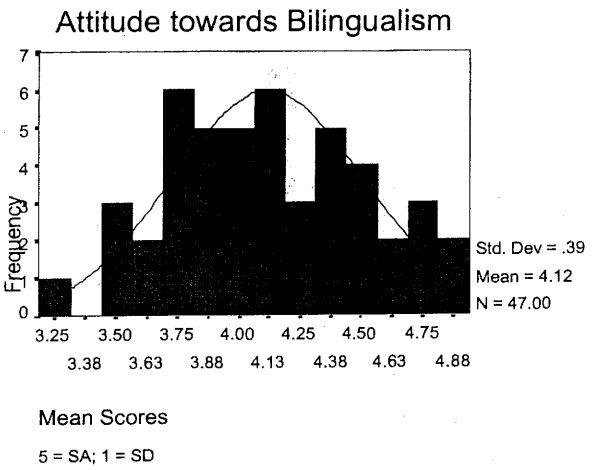
that Spanish was a major language spoken in this hemisphere as well as in Europe (M = 4.14; SD = .34; See Histogram 2).

Histogram 2



Attitude towards Bilingualism. In general, there is a positive attitude towards bilingualism, the role of the school in assuring that children become bilingual and biliterate, and that being bilingual creates job and financial opportunities (M = 4.12, SD = .37; See Histogram 3). While a number of the items indicated a high level of positive agreement towards bilingualism, several items were in the neutral range: (a) Knowing Spanish and English makes people intelligent (M = 2.89, SD = 1.28); (b) Speaking two languages is not difficult (M = 3.77, SD = 1.12; (c) I feel sorry for people who cannot speak both English and Spanish (M = 3.0; SD = 1.21; and (d) People know more if they speak English and Spanish (M = 3.46, SD = 1.23). Thus, while they consider bilingualism important, the normalistas were neutral as to whether bilingualism makes an individual more knowledgeable or more intelligent.

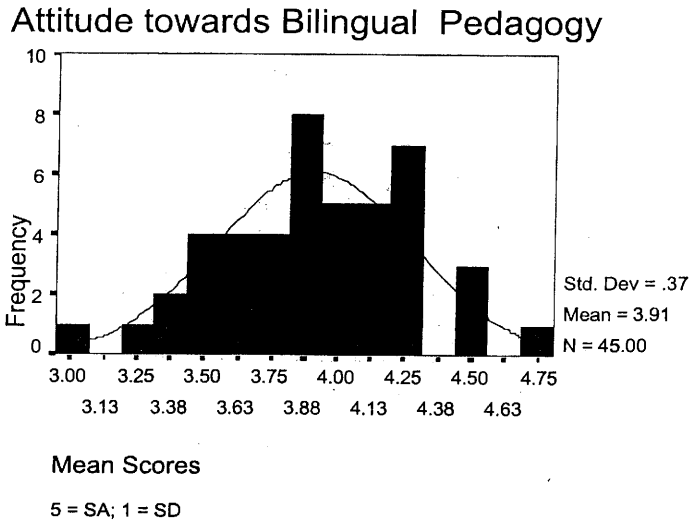
Histogram 3



Attitude towards Bilingual Education Pedagogy. Again, overall we see a positive attitude towards bilingual pedagogy (M 3.91, SD = .37). In general, the normalistas agreed that teachers should be well prepared, be able to teach math and science in Spanish, and be able to employ a high degree of Spanish usage in the bilingual classroom. The normalistas also noted the role and importance of cultural history, parents, and bilingualism.

However, they were neutral as to who had the responsibility in the implementation of the bilingual program indicating that the principal held the responsibility (M = 2.7; SD = 1.13); that perhaps cultural activities took too much time from other learning activities (M = 2.34, SD = 1.3); that bilingual education would prevent bilingual students from learning American values (M = 3.34, SD = 1.14; that the loss of the native language was necessary to learn American values (M = 3.4, SD = 1.38, and that learning in the native language in a bilingual classroom would result in the child learning English with an accent (M = 3.68; SD = .99).

Histogram 4



In sum, all the normalistas readily identified the important role of the teacher within the bilingual classroom. In addition, a number of the normalistas had preconceived notions regarding bilingual education pedagogy and the role of bilingual education in the education of language minority children. Furthermore, we note the conflict normalistas perceived as to the acquisition of American values within the bilingual education classroom. Interestingly, the pre-interview data confirmed that several of the normalistas were against bilingual education because of these same preconceived notions and because they regard the level of proficiency of bilingual education teachers to be inadequate. Therefore, they felt that they could do a better job with their children in Spanish and thus, the role of the school was to educate their children in English. A couple of them remarked how some of their children did experience difficulty, but they did not see a connection between the lack of native language instruction in school and the academic difficulty their children were experiencing.

What is the relationship between Spanish use and attitudes towards Spanish, bilingualism, and bilingual education pedagogy?

In order to examine if there was a relationship between Spanish Use and the other three variables, the researchers used a general linear model (SPSS, Version 8 for Windows, 1998). The Spanish Use independent variable was dummy coded into two groups dependent on their degree of use and proficiency in Spanish only. The Box M indicated homogeneity of the dependent variables and the use of the general linear model reduces multicollinearity (Stevens, 1996). The findings indicated no significant relationships, as well as no main or between subject effects. Therefore, simply assuming that normalistas will have positive attitudes towards Spanish, bilingualism, and bilingual education pedagogy because they possess a high degree of Spanish proficiency is not a given.

Conclusions

As expected the descriptive findings indicated that the normalistas use of Spanish, attitude towards Spanish and bilingualism were positive. When we compared these results with the findings of the pre-interviews, we noted a close match between the self-reported and the observed findings. We also note a high degree of academic language use and proficiency and positive attitude towards Spanish, bilingualism and bilingual education. However, as indicated by the multivariate results, having one does not guarantee the other. For example although bilingualism was valued by the normalistas, the perception that bilingual education may conflict with the attainment of American values and may cause bilingual children to have an accent in English strikes discord. This is especially important to consider when normalistas are being sought as prospective bilingual education teachers.

Central concerns regarding language and literacy range from policy decisions about the language of classroom instruction to the nature of language and literacy interactions among students and teachers, among students, and among different groups within the community. Within this sociolinguistic context, teachers need to know more about the roles language and literacy play in the cognitive and social potential of students. Teachers need to be aware of the role of culture, language and literacy in shaping gender and racial and ethnic relations. Schools should adopt educational policies in regards to the native language that reduce the negative impact of prejudice and intolerance in order to maximize the opportunities available to all students. Thus, teachers must be aware of the ways culture, language, gender and ethnicity influence the social construction of identity (Clark & Flores, 2001) and how these processes affect teachers' expectations of students (Clark & Flores, 2000).

Important to remember is that in the US, language minority students have unique sociocultural-linguistic experiences that are different than those experienced by the normalistas. Therefore, these findings have implications for teacher educators and prospective employers. Prospective employers need to be cautious in their selection of normalistas as prospective bilingual education teachers. Although we do not recommend that normalistas be hired prior to any bilingual education teacher preparation, school district personnel must be careful to address the aforementioned issues. Studies about foreign-trained teachers will assist teacher educators in making sound decisions in designing a program of study in bilingual education for them. The type of minimal coursework that these students may need include: (a) foundations in bilingual education, (b) cultural history of language minorities in the US, (c) research addressing the cognitive benefits of bilingualism and biliteracy, (d) sociocultural-linguistic issues, such as language loss and language dialects within language minority communities, (e) critical teaching practices, for example addressing language use and attitudes towards LMS' language variety.

We must also acknowledge that some normalistas may be dogmatic in their belief systems and that these beliefs may be difficult to change. Therefore, these individuals may not be positive assets as prospective bilingual education teacher candidates or for the community. Our research indicates that simply having Spanish language proficiency is not enough. Normalistas must undergo training to prepare to deal with language minority students in the US and therefore, we must not assume that they will be cognizant and sensitive to the needs of language minority students.

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Research Issues

SOME UN-COMMUNICATIVE ISSUES FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

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INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

For many years now it has been common for language teachers to teach communicatively. This is a term which has many meanings, but for the present article it refers to classroom activity where learners are using language with a focus on appropriacy and with a fair degree of control over what they choose to say or to attend to. One of the main justifications for communicative activity in classrooms is that it resembles the way in which competent language users engage with language in the 'real world'. Consequently it makes sense for teachers to encourage their learners to use language creatively, and in ways which are appropriate to the context at hand, since these are important goals for language learning.

But while communicative language teaching has a number of justifications in reference to the goals of language learning, it may not provide such a strong basis for the process of language learning, in particular the process of initial language learning. In order to learn new grammatical forms, learners need first to consciously 'notice' them in the language which surrounds them (Schmidt, 1990) - to make sense of them in some way, for example by noticing how the past tense signals past time in a written text. They also need to learn how to put these newly learned forms to use in their own language production - in their own 'output'. Both these processes can be difficult to accomplish when learners are using language communicatively. One reason for this is that communicative discourse (i.e. communicative language use) tends to focus learners' attention onto meaning in a way which makes it difficult to notice forms as forms. A second reason is that many communicative activities require learners to use language in a relatively unprepared way, meaning that they may not have the time to collect their thoughts so that they can access new and possibly quite complex grammatical forms in their language output. A third reason is that even when a learner has sufficient time to collect her thoughts in this way, she may find herself inhibited from taking too may risks with new language for fear of sounding 'foolish' or even incoherent.

I go on to suggest that in order to support initial language learning, we might need to think about a different kind of engagement with language; one which is motivated not by a commu-

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nicative purpose but specifically by a learning purpose. Such a 'learning discourse' needs to be carefully supported through task design and teacher guidance, so that learners have the time, the inclination and the confidence to start engaging with new language.

2. Aspects of the language learning process: Attention and consciousness

First we need to get a better notion of what is meant by 'initial learning'. In language learning, the initial stages of attending to new linguistic forms require conscious attention. This applies in the first instance to 'intake'. Intake is an essential point of 'first contact' with an aspect of the language system which was previously beyond the learners ability to comprehend. Intake is distinguished from 'input', the latter being the language to which the learner is exposed, whether this be in writing or in speaking, whether intentionally or whether by chance. Scholars often point out that 'input' does not necessarily lead to 'intake'. For instance, the teacher might present an aspect of the passive, but this will not be 'noticed' by the learners either because they are simply not at a stage where they can make sense of it, or perhaps because the examples the teacher uses are culturally unfamiliar. In either event the passive is there in the input but learners fail to notice it, and so fail to convert it into intake.

A similar picture applies also in the case of output. Once an aspect of language form has been initially noticed, the learner will need to try it out productively, using it as part of her own output. Again this is a process which is very demanding on cognitive resources: Using a new linguistic form is difficult and cumbersome when the form itself is barely understood, and (like intake) it consequently requires considerable attention. As a result learners are known to avoid using certain grammatical forms because they require a lot of effort, and because they might anyway not be seen as communicatively necessary (see Skehan, 1998).

Yet as teachers we will want to encourage learners to override such inhibitions, by making it as easy as possible to call upon new forms, so that over a period of time simply accessing new language becomes an altogether easier operation. Through practice, cognitive psychologists tell us, new knowledge gets more established or 'automated', so that we can access it more or less automatically and without the need to pay it undue heed - something which is very necessary in view of all the other demands which discourse participants need to keep control over; demands such as being seen to be relevant, being a good listener and so on (see Schmidt, 1992).

3. Communicative difficulties for leaning: transactional discourse

3.1 The complexity of discourse

If our aim is to help learners to intake new forms through noticing them, and to start to deploy them in their own output, then the emphasis needs to be on accessibility - helping learners to gain access to forms which are (for them) still novel, challenging and complex. But this is easier said than done, because once the task gets underway, all kinds of factors (not all of them predictable) impinge. As a result, even though the learner may have every intention of using the task to try out novel forms, she may find that she never gets the chance to do so because she feels forever constrained by what her partner is saying. In other words, her sense of what it is communicatively appropriate to say constrains and inhibits her from ever taking the kind of risks with her own language which would help her learning.

3.2 Transactional discourse: language 'from word to world'

Given such difficulties how do learners ever manage to focus on form at all? For many years now one particular kind of discourse has been promoted as being appropriate for language learning purposes. It is the basis of communicative language use, features prominently in many proposals for communicative language teaching, and underlies both the 'interaction hypothesis' (Long, 1996) and its near pedagogic relative, task-based language teaching (Long and Crookes, 1992), and I will refer to it as 'transactional' discourse.

The most important characteristic of this kind of language use is that it is communicative. Communicative language use is all about using the forms of the language as a 'resource' for the creation of meaning (Widdowson, 1983), and in so doing to act on context so as to change it in some way. For example, when we offer help or make a request, we do so as to elicit an acceptance or an agreement, and in so doing we are using language to get something done (and hence to make a change). To adapt a term coined by the philosopher John Searle (1969), the direction of flow here between language (the world) and context (the world) is 'from word to world', because language is used as a means of acting on the world. Of course this is the kind of communicative orientation which ultimately we will want our learners to act on with some agility. But while is serves us well in designating the goal of language learning, it works less well (as I shall argue shortly) in helping learners to achieve that goal.

Another characteristic of transactional discourse is that it is based on the need for participants to 'share' or to 'negotiate' meanings which are not already part of shared knowledge. Transactional discourses have always been immensely popular in language teaching (most notably through various types of information-gap task), as well as in language learning research (e.g. Brown and Yule 1983; Anderson and Lynch 1988, Yule 1997).

Thirdly, transactional discourse means transacting information in a particular way, using what is sometimes called the 'principle of least effort' (Zipf, 1949; Bolinger, 1972:29). This means that the discourse participant will engage with language selectively, on the basis of a kind of 'need to know' maxim, so that they will not pay more attention to language or say more than is strictly and communicatively necessary given current circumstances. Conversely, the least effort language user will engage more elaborately with language only when there is a clear need, for instance because there are crucial meanings which simply cannot be implied or inferred any other way. In short, the more relevant information I already share with my interlocutor, the less need to engage further with language, and vice versa.

3.3 How transactional discourse can constrain language learning

One can readily understand the popularity of this kind of activity in language teaching, particularly in comparison to the sort of pedagogic activity which preceded it - the stilted, overly controlled language of the structural syllabus. Nonetheless it is limited by its very nature. The basic assumption underlying the promotion of transactional discourse is that language learning somehow emerges out of processes of language use, and that a communicative motivation to convey meaning is adequate for a learning purpose. But as has often been observed, successfully communicating one's meaning can often be achieved without

using language very elaborately at all. As Swain has noted in a much cited article, "simply getting one's meaning across can and does occur with grammatically deviant forms" (1985:248). She goes on to call for a methodology where learners are in some way "pushed towards the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently and appropriately" (ibid.).

Thus we often read in contemporary SLA literature of the need for engineering 'pushed output' (Swain, ibid.) - output, that is, which the learner pushes to the point where she is accessing what for her is complex, risk-taking language.

Another important feature of transactional discourse has to do with attentional capacity. According to the principle of least effort, transactional discourse users ought to reserve much of their conscious attention for clarifying and negotiating necessary meanings which are not already shared. The problem here is that very often, negotiating meaning is such a demanding activity that it leaves little space to attend to new language for intake, or to produce novel grammatical forms in output - and this problem is compounded by the fact that it is new language which typically requires the greatest amount of attentional capacity.

For example, when we begin to elaborate our language to clarify or to seek clarification of a communicative difficulty, we are likely to be addressing problems which are unanticipated, and which only come to light when our interlocutor says (for instance) "sorry, could you say that again?" or simply "huh?". Because this interaction is unanticipated, the learner is going to devote most of her attention simply to dealing with and clarifying the problem to hand, with little if any spare capacity left over to focus on new forms for learning.

Let's imagine that the learner is in the following position: she has said something which involves her in wrongly formulating the irregular past tense form 'went'. Her teacher replies by reformulating and correcting the error, in the following way:

1. Learner: I go there Wednesday
   Teacher: You mean you went there, right? Last Wednesday?

In the SLA literature this kind of reformulating - where the error is implicitly corrected while the focus remains on the topic under discussion - is known as a 'recast' (see Mitchell and Myles, 1998: 134-138). Recasts are said to be one of the key ways in which learners can focus on form during task-based interactions (Long and Robinson, 1998).

In part, as already noted, the learner may have her work cut out here simply dealing with the possible misunderstanding, leaving precious little spare attentional capacity to focus on the form and discover that 'went' is the correct version. But there is a related difficulty which runs, perhaps, even deeper. Faced with the teacher's utterance, the communicatively appropriate way to 'hear' this is, first and foremost, to heed it as a request for clarification. But acting on this essentially communicative orientation to language, there is little incentive to notice the past tense as the past tense. Surely what our fictional learner is most likely to do is to interpret and respond to the teacher's utterance communicatively, with an emphasis on the meaning and not on the form per se: 'last Wednesday? Yeah, last Wednesday, that's right!' In other words, a communicative orientation inhibits the learner from attending to language form as form, even though such a language focus might be necessary if new language is to be noticed.

For all these reasons, we have cause to question the suitability of this kind of communicative language use for second language learning.

4. Learning Discourse

4.1 Language for learning or language for using?

At heart the greatest difficulty with transactional discourse is that it is derived from a conception of how competent language users go about their business. It assumes, for instance, that given certain unpredictable difficulties which require negotiation to sort out, the language learner/user has at her disposal a largely sorted and automated mental resource of learned language which can readily come to her aid. No need, in this kind of situation, to worry too much about grammatical complexity or the novelty of certain forms, because these are difficulties already taken care of, leaving her free to attend to the problematic meanings while the language virtually takes care of itself.

But when it comes to the language learner, isn't this putting the cart before the horse? Are we not confusing two very different discourse contexts here? The discourse of competent use (i.e. transactional discourse), and discourse for achieving such a level of competence. The latter, I think, ought to be a very different kind of discourse from the kind we have been considering so far; one in which discourse conditions support the kind of engagements with language required in order to foster intake and output automatizing. In the following two sections I want to examine how such a discourse might be manifested in classrooms, considering first output tasks and then tasks for intake.

4.2 Supporting Output

There are two kinds of task which in recent years have begun to catch the interest of some SLA researchers. One is planning. A number of studies over the past 15 years or so have investigated how the quality of learner language can be very significantly improved if it is preceded by a planning stage; a stage where learners can plan to use specific forms which are selected because they are new and challenging (e.g. Ellis 1987, Foster and Skehan 1986, Ortega 1999). The rationale for planning is that it can enable the learner to 'collect her thoughts' in advance, so that the general cognitive load on attention is diminished. If the learner is involved in telling a story from a series of picture prompts, for instance (as in the study conducted by Ellis, 1987), it might be that the learner will first familiarize herself with the storyline per se, so that she can them work more on getting her grammatical act together, so to speak, by accessing more complex and more accurate forms.

The second, related kind of classroom activity is task repetition. A number of researchers have experimented with the simply device of allowing learners to repeat the same task a second time. Here, too, there is evidence that this can help the learner create more attentional space in order to 'push' her output more effectively the second time around. For example, when Bygate (1996) gave one of his learners the chance to repeat a picture-based story telling task, he noted that the second time around the learner was able to use more complex forms. Bygate observes that "familiarity with the content of the task might enable speakers to pay more attention to its formulation" (1996:138).

4.3 Supporting intake

In example 1 above, we looked briefly at an example of a 'recast' which might not be noticed by a learner who is communicatively oriented:

1. Learner: I go there Wednesday
   Teacher: You mean you went there, right? Last Wednesday?

But of course, this discourse segment actually contains some very important cues to the meaning of the past tense form 'went' - cues such as the teachers' use of the phrase 'last Wednesday'. Given enough time and attentional space, the learner could exploit this language, using it to confirm the correct time reference - completed past time - and then going on to see the link between this familiar language, and the new encoding of this meaning in the irregular form 'went'. But of course, in a communicative discourse these self-same cues are likely to deter the learner from probing any further into the language: once having confirmed the past meaning there is no need, communicatively speaking, to go further into the target grammar, and anyway the learner is likely to be too involved in unraveling and clarifying the potential misunderstanding to have much time to attend to the past tense.

This simple principle - that we can provide learners with cues in the context or in the surrounding language which help to orient learners to make sense of new language - has received little attention either in SLA research or in language pedagogy, but it is of great important for intake, and for understanding how to present new language to our classroom learners. When we present new language to learners, we do so in some sort of a context - we might, for instance, present the past tense in the form of a dialogue which includes the kind of lexical cueing ('last Wednesday') illustrated above. Perhaps we need to do more, though, to ensure that our learners are exploiting such cues, and that they are oriented in such a way that they are very aware that such dialogues are not intended to serve any communicative purpose, or to be processed merely for communicatively necessary information.

4.4 Learning discourse

Now of course, we cannot legislate for a focus on form, we cannot make it happen. It would be naïve to say that providing a lexical cue such as 'last Wednesday' is going to make the learner attend to the related past tense form. Nor can we say that planning or task repetition are tasks which compel learners to use more complex language. Many factors intervene between intention and effect, as experienced teachers know all too well. In order for such activities to have real payoffs for language learning, a number of other factors need to be in place, besides simply having the right kind of task.

I would argue that such activities work best where the learners themselves are aware of the pedagogical purpose of such texts or task types, where they have already had experience of such procedures, and where they feel sufficiently secure to draw on such prior experiences the better to manage their learning activity. This may sound rather trite, but it is best to keep in mind how unnerving tasks can be when it is explicit that the learner is being asked to take risks with her language. In a recent study of task repetition (Irving, 1999), for instance, one learner comments on how very self-conscious she became once everyone knew that she was trying to use her 'best' language. Although in theory the opportunity for a second go allowed

her to pay more attention to her language the second time around - and indeed although she was able to take advantage of this by producing much more complex language – she nevertheless felt hugely unnerved by the experience, to the extent that she genuinely believed that her language was much better the first time around! When Irving subsequently asked her why this was so, this is what she said:

'Cos the words are not coming and you think .... I don't know it's different you just had to talk and you say stupid things and you make stupid mistakes which you realize but ..... [last time] we are together and it was eas – yeh this time was like 'arghh! stupid mistake!' and you think 'oh no no no!'

(Irving, 1999: 106)

Partly because of this added pressure, learners need as much support as the task and the teacher can allow for. It is not communicatively appropriate to take such risks with one's language, and to flirt so openly with incomprehensibility! This is why a classroom culture where such practices are normal, and where learners and teachers are able to talk about why they do what they do and why they feel how they feel (rather as Irving did with her student quoted above), is likely to be the best kind of context to foster a genuinely learning discourse.

5. Concluding remarks: achieving balance

I have suggested that we need to distinguish between two kinds of classroom language use: communicative/transactional discourse and learning discourse, with the latter designed to encourage access to new or more complex language in ways which the former often deters.

But by way of conclusion, it needs to be noted that the two are not necessarily as distinct or as opposed as the foregoing discussion may suggest. After all, there is certainly a learning dimension to transactional discourse, because it is only through learning to deal with relatively unpredictable interactions that learners can ultimately achieve the level of fluency and adaptability which they will likely need in the 'real world'. My point, rather, is that we cannot expect this kind of agility simply to emerge, not without careful support and guidance along the way. Ultimately, the two discourses are best seen as being complementary, with learning discourse helping learners gain initial access to forms they will later need to deploy with ease, flexibility and communicative appropriacy.

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Research Issues

Students' Emotional and Cognitive Responses to Teachers: How can we better understand them?

Ana Longhini

(Paper presented at the colloquia "Students Emotional and cognitive Responses to Teachers", organized by Rebecca Oxford. TESOL '98, Seattle, WA)

In her powerful article "Lessons from Students on Creating a Chance to Dream", published in 1994, Sonia Nieto advised that what schools need is transformation rather than change and that transformation will not be possible "without the inclusion of the voices of students, among others, in the dialogue". Nieto regrets that "research that focuses on students' voices is relatively recent and scarce".

As if addressing Nieto's concern, in 1996 comes out "Voices from the Language Classroom", edited by Bailey and Nunan. The book is devoted to qualitative research in second language learning. Several studies in this volume (Clark Cummings, M., Peck, S., Hilleson, M., Snow, M. et al., Sturman, P.) vividly present students' perceptions of aspects relevant to the educational process.

Two years after this publication, I was fortunate enough to participate in a most productive colloquia at the 1998 Annual TESOL Convention in Seattle, WA: "Students' Emotional and Cognitive Responses to Teachers". Rebecca Oxford, the organizer, opened the session citing Levin (1995): "What would happen if we treated the student as someone whose opinion mattered?" and she anticipated a synthesis of the presentations by claiming that "Students' voices need to be heard. Emotional and cognitive responses will not be the same from student to student. Therefore, we need to focus on the responses of individuals [....]".

My colleague panelists for the colloquia addressed issues related to teacher/students relationship: "Style conflicts in the classroom" (Amany Saleh, Arkansas State University, USA); students' beliefs and perceptions of teachers: "Teaching according to students" (Ana Barcelo, University of Vicosa, Brazil); and student styles and learning processes: "Using narratives to listen to students" (John M. Green, Salem State College, Salem, Massachusetts, USA).

Personally, I looked at what communication theories have to say that help us -teachers of foreign languages- better understand some of the factors that may affect students' voices, may bring students closer to teachers, and consequently to learning, or draw them apart, hindering success. This paper poses some questions that call for reflection on these topics and the need -for the foreign langauge teacher- to further research them.

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One such theory, that applies to student / teacher relationship and how it relates to learning, is the Emotional Response Theory. Reviewing the literature I found that the Theory of Emotional Response may in fact illuminate the treatment of topics that have to do with student/teacher relationship, raising, at the same time, further questions. I think teachers should, for example, try to find out about personality trait and learning style harmony or clash between herself/himself and hers/his students. And also search for students' beliefs about language learning and the role of the language teacher. I will illustrate my points with examples taken from a corpus consisting of 20 narratives of American high school students. The narratives were elicited prompting the students to discuss a "bad experience with a teacher".

Beebe and Butland (1994) measured students' emotional response to teacher behaviors taking as a basis for their study the theory of implicit communication. Simply put, "implicit communication" refers to meanings that are not overtly expressed, but rather indirectly revealed. These researchers found that teacher use of affinity-seeking behaviors correlated positively with cognitive and affective learning as well as with student liking of the teacher. Simply put, "affinity-seeking" behavior refers to what one does when trying to get others' sympathy. Beebe and Butland held that students' emotional response help explain why teacher affinity-seeking behaviors enhance learning.

Beebe and Butland's (1994) state that their findings were supported by previous research that had already explained the meaning of teacher behavior from a student's perspective, also using students' emotional response.

Affinity-seeking behavior had been defined by Bell and Daly (1984) as "the active social-communicative process by which individuals attempt to get others to like and feel positive toward them", and it is defined by Butland and Beebe (1992) as "efforts to implicitly communicate liking".

These authors take Mehrabian's explanation of implicit communication which considers that head nods, use of personal space, facial expression, and body posture as well as paralinguistic features such as tone, rate, pitch and volume are all used to communicate meanings and feelings. These behaviors communicate implicit messages because they are often unintentional or implied expressions of underlying emotions, they explain. (Mehrabian,1981 in Beebe and Butland, 1994)

Butland and Beebe (1992) and Beebe and Butland (1994) state that whether or not emotions are expressed explicitly through words and overt behaviors, they often manifest themselves in the form of implicit messages to which others consciously or subconsciously respond. Emotions manifest themselves in a positive or negative attitude toward the subject, they explain. And they maintain that approaching or avoiding behaviors -that is getting close to the object or subject, or drawing apart from it- are based on these attitudes, because one's emotions are affected by the implicit messages one receives. And putting it more simply they say, "one pursues things that one likes, one likes things that one feels positive emotions for".

Now, one such "thing" that a student "feels positive emotions for" could be a teacher who uses affinity-seeking strategies, that is, who tries to show that she/he cares by smiling, joking, telling anecdotes and patting shoulders, for example. As I see it, this raises a question: what can be the effect of unspoken messages on the part of a teacher attempting to be liked, when the recipient is a student with a style different from the teacher's or holding different views

concerning the teacher's roles and responsibilities?

The narratives I examined show instances of a clash between student expectancies about the teacher's role and the actual teacher behavior. [1]

Kevin wrote:
"... she was easily overrun by students opinions and feelings. I feel that she was more concerned with playing councelor (sic) than history teacher."

And Mindy also seemed to know what she expected from a teacher:

"... This teacher who tried to take back the class was not cut out to be a teacher. This person was more cut out to be a counselor...."

McCroskey and Wheeless (1976) cited in Beebe and Butland (1994) identified seven strategies that people use which result in increased liking or affinity: 1) controlling physical appearance, 2) increasing positive self-disclosure, 3) stressing areas of positive similarity, 4) providing positive reinforcement, 5) expressing cooperation, 6) complying with others' wishes, and 7) fulfilling other's needs. And Bell and Daly (1984) expanded this classification with a list of 25 affinity-seeking behaviors that, in their view, improve interpersonal closeness.

However, I would like to make the point that the impact of these affinity-seeking strategies must depend on how harmonious the personality traits of the people involved are. In our narratives, we can see, for example, students responses to what can be signs of self-disclosure -considered by researchers as an "affinity-seeking strategy"- on the part of the teacher.

This is what Tim wrote:
"... She made every morning more difficult and more boring. She talked and talked and talked about her sicknesses and things that were giving her pain. We were like, 'I'm sorry, but we really don't care ...'"

And Alice expressed:
"... and I can't stand when she stops in the middle of a problem and gossips. Drives me crazy!"

McCroskey, Richmond and Stewart (in Beebe and Butland, 1994) contend that affinity-seeking strategies help explain how interpersonal communication develops, especially during the early stages of relationship development. This finding appears as most interesting for our sake, since, given the time a student spends with a single teacher, student /teacher relationship could be considered to rarely go beyond early stages.
These authors found that the affinity-seeking strategies that teachers use more often are: physical attractiveness, sensitivity, elicitation of other's disclosure, trustworthiness, nonverbal immediacy, conversational rule keeping, dynamism and listening.

Citing Mehrabian (1981), Beebe and Butland (1994) agree that an individual's emotional response is partly based upon the way he or she perceives implicit information about feelings and attitudes from others. They tried to measure and explain student motivation by assessing student's emotional response to teacher affinity-seeking strategies. They argued that "directly measuring student emotional response to teachers may provide a more fruitful ap-

[1] See Barcelo, A. (2000) for a discussion on *teachers' and students' language learning beliefs*

proach to help explain why certain teacher behaviors enhance student learning".

Beebe and Butland (1994) and Beebe and Ivy (1994) found that researchers in the field seem to agree in describing all emotional states in terms of three independent dimensions:1) pleasure/displeasure 2) arousal/non-arousal, and 3) dominance/submissiveness. Each dimension is of continuous nature, and has within its range positive and negative values as well as a neutral point. Combinations of various values on each dimension characterize different emotions, they affirm. This means that an individual can experience feelings caused by, for example, a bit of pleasure, some excitement and some sense of control. Or disgust, no excitement and a strong sense of control, for another example. And in all possible cases the emotions felt will be different.

Language use has assigned pair of adjectives to the different emotional states. But emotional states are not only expressed in words, they are also disclosed by paralinguistic signs such as gestures, postures and actions. Following Merhabian (1981) Beebe and Ivy (1994) explain that the pleasure/displeasure dimension is defined by adjective pairs like happy/unhappy, pleased/annoyed, or satisfied/unsatisfied. They hold that the presence or absence of a desire to approach an object or a person indicates the level of pleasure associated with that person or object. In the second place, the arousal/non-arousal dimension is defined by adjective pairs like stimulated/relaxed, excited/calm, or frenzied/sluggish. Mental alertness, for example, indicates the degree to which someone is stimulated or excited. And behavioral indications for this dimension would be physical actions. Lastly, the dominance/submissiveness dimension is defined by adjective pairs like controlling/controlled, influential/influenced, or in-control/cared for. These authors affirm that psychological indications of this dimension are feelings of power and control. In this case, behavioral indications would be a relaxed posture, body lean, reclining angle while seated or asymmetrical positions of the limbs.

Biggers (1990), supported by previous research, suggested that the combination of pleasure, arousal and dominance predicts "a higher order construct called liking". And if someone likes something it is very probable that he will try to approach what he/she likes.The "dominance" dimension, however, seems to require a different conceptualization when the setting is the classrom and the participants student and teacher.[2] Our data show evidence that some students would feel more at ease and would like school better when it is the teacher who is in-control.

This is how Fred, Steph and Becky expressed what they felt:

Fred: " ... This teacher was nice and I liked her and all, but the teacher just couldn't teach. The teacher let the students control the classroom....".

Steph: "... I am accustomed to more "controlled" classroom environments in which the teacher teaches without interruption.".

Becky: "...To correct the problems I had in these classes, my teacher could have shown more authority over the class..... in a classroom the teacher is the boss and the class should be run that way."

[1] See Oxford et al. (1998) for a discussion on *classroom control*

As for the effect of emotional response on gains, when they applied statistics to their data, Beebe and Butland (1994) found that "students who felt pleasure and arousal also self-reported more learning" but "dominance did not achieve significance and, therefore was not included in the regression model." When they tried to correlate cognitive learning and learning loss with arousal, pleasure and dominance, "dominance failed to achieve significance and was excluded".

Beebe and Butland (1994) claim that teacher affinity-seeking strategies may function by eliciting emotional responses either conducive or detrimental to liking, and, by extension to learning. Adding to this, Richmond (in Beebe and Butland, 1994) suggests that the underlying construct that explains why affinity-seeking strategies enhance learning is motivation. Student motivation to learn - he says - may be significantly influenced by students' emotional response to the teacher, subject matter, and teaching strategies.

Summarizing, communication theories help us understand the relations between liking, motivation and learning. Language teachers and researchers should take advantage of these contributions and further examine these relations in our field. We should look at whether appreciation of the EFL teacher and his/her pedagogical practice enhances or inhibits motivation and, consequently, learning. In trying to do this we will have to look for coincidence or difference in teacher-student personality traits and learning styles, as well as get students to disclose their beliefs about language learning and language teachers' roles.

Student learning is the thriving force of all our efforts. That is the reason why we should look at aspects in the student/teacher relationship that influence or even determine students' opinions. Looking at what it is that affects students' views and feelings can be of benefit for teachers, teacher educators and trainee teachers alike.

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Professional Practice

HOW TO USE SONGS IN THE EFL/ESL CLASS

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INTRODUCTION

Teaching a language is not only explaining and practicing its components: sounds, grammatical structures and vocabulary. Teaching a second or foreign language (L2) means to guide the students to use the language for oral or written communication. In other words it means to train the students to listen and read with comprehension and to express their ideas, opinions, feelings, emotions, etc. both orally and in written form. In addition, teaching an L2 is not only a matter of cognitive development; it is also a process of affective enhancement.

In order to fulfill cognitive, psychomotor, and affective objectives in teaching an L2, teachers should constantly be searching for ways to provide variety in their classes. Variety will also help to prevent monotony. One of the ways to do this is by means of music. Obviously, this idea is not new, since music has been used through the history of foreign language methodology. What I think could be new for many teachers is the way some writers and the author have used songs in the EFL class.

IMPORTANCE OF SONGS

It is well known that "music is one of the basic expressions of the human spirit" (Suarez, 1975) consequently songs can be used to fulfill affective objectives.

According to some researchers, music can influence the rhythm of breathing and so relax the body. We all know that learning a language is not an easy task and because of this the students become anxious and they are afraid of expressing themselves, especially by means of the oral channel. Songs can help the students lower their stress and anxiety.

Music stimulates and produces various sensations, feelings and emotions in human beings. Hence the rhythm, the melody and the words of a song are good conditions for creative work for both the teacher and the students. For example, the students can imagine and express their feelings, emotions and images based on the melody of the song or they can write a poem or a piece of prose after listening to the music and the words of the songs.

Songs are the authentic voice of people who love and hate, rejoice and sorrow, work and play, protest and respect, dream and live in a real world. In other words, songs represent national characteristics, customs, beliefs, feelings, tastes, etc. Through songs we can guide our stu-

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dents to identify the cultural features stated above. That is, teachers can help students to understand, enjoy and share the world of English speakers. After all the hard work of a long hour, a week, or a month, it is necessary to change the teaching style and look for a variety of activities in order to motivate the students. Singing is one of these activities that provides relaxation, amusement, and interest.

Songs are natural individual and choral language activities in real life. Therefore, teachers can use English songs first to involve the whole class and promote maximum participation and then to stimulate and develop the individual capacity of those students who like to sing.

In authentic situations, people listen to songs, like them because of the melody and/or the words, understand the songs, memorize and sing them. In the EFL class, teachers can develop the student's memory by means of the melody, the rhythm and the words of the song.

Motivation is an important condition for learning. But we can not continue believing that motivation only takes place at the beginning of a class or a course. Motivation is essential throughout the whole class and the complete EFL course. Songs motivate students to continue studying the English language.

PURPOSES

Two main purposes can be stated for the use of songs in the EFL class as follows:

1. To provide an atmosphere of relaxation, peacefulness and enjoyment.
2. To practice the components and skills of the second or foreign language.

0BJECTIVES

Songs can be used to fulfill the following specific objectives:

1. To motivate the students to learn the new language.
2. To lower the students' anxiety and stress produced when one studies another language.
3. To improve listening comprehension by doing a variety of listening tasks.
4. To practice oral skills by means of questions and answers, mini-dialogues, role-plays, discussions, etc.
5. To improve reading comprehension by using various reading strategies.
6. To practice writing skills by doing different kinds of written exercises both at the sentence and paragraph levels.
7. To practice the four skills in an integrated way.

8. To improve the students' pronunciation and intonation.

9. To increase the students' knowledge of vocabulary.

10. To practice or review a number of grammatical structures according to the song.

11. To introduce, present, practice, produce or review certain language functions.

12. To identify some cultural facts of English speakers.

SELECTING SONGS

All songs are not suitable for teaching purposes. Teachers are reminded that even in the native language it is difficult to understand and sing a song. Before you present a song in the EFL class, it is important to have in mind the following criteria for selecting songs:

* Always select a song according to your purposes and teaching objectives. For example, if you are interested in grammar or vocabulary, choose those songs that exemplify a grammatical structure or certain selected vocabulary.

* As much as possible, look for songs that are popular for the students, so that they will enjoy them.

* Select those songs which are neither too fast nor too difficult to sing. Otherwise, the students will get frustrated and will begin to hate the English class.

* If you are interested in practicing pronunciation, select those songs whose words are fairly well articulated.

* For listening and reading comprehension purposes, choose those songs that concentrate on meaning. For example: story or narrative songs, action songs, show songs, film songs, and overall idea songs (Dubin, 1974).

* In some songs, such as pop songs, it is quite common to find odd grammatical constructions, then you should analyze the kind of language used in the lyrics (Smith, 1976).

* Be careful with the quality of the recording and the clarity of the singer's voice whenever you decide to use a song in the EFL class.

* Identify the cultural aspects included in the song, so that you can present them to your students.

* Ask your students to suggest some titles of songs that they like or borrow some songs from them in order to analyze them before you decide to use them.

* If you are going to work with children, choose those songs that are short, well articulated and have a lot of repetition.

TIME FOR A SONG

Songs have to be used in a moderate way in the EFL class. They are only to provide variety to the English class. When you plan your course, you will identify those lessons that can be supplemented with a song according to their objectives and contents.

In addition, teachers should have a set of available songs to be used when necessary.

Any time is good for singing. However, there are certain time spaces of a lesson when you can use a song. For example, you can begin your lesson with a short song in order to review the previous teaching point. You can present the new theme by means of the words of a song that exemplify it or have a connection with it. Your class can be ended with a song to review what you have just taught.

If you realize that your students are tired at any moment of the class, then it is time for a song. When your English class is the last one of the day, you might consider preparing a lesson plan based on a popular but easy song.

Finally, teachers can use songs when 'everybody feels like singing.' If this happens, teachers should not hesitate to change their lesson plans and develop the class through a song. It is understood that teachers should have some songs and their words at their disposal in order to be able to change their lesson plan.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

I certainly believe that every human activity will be successful if it is carefully planned, spontaneously realized and systematically evaluated. If you want to use songs successfully, have in mind the following suggestions:

ß Prepare your singing English class in advance. Do not regard a song as an 'easy option'. Teachers, especially beginners, should not improvise with a song. A song needs to be taught carefully and systematically.

ß Prepare and use visual aids to double the value of songs. Pictures help understanding and can make the singing session even more fun.

ß Design some exercises and activities to fulfill your teaching objectives, type them on worksheets and make photocopies of them.

ß Ask the students to listen to the song carefully, two or three times first, then ask them to learn the tune and finally to learn the words.

- ß Encourage your students to respond by tapping, clapping or by responding in any way they might enjoy the song.

- ß Participate in the singing session and encourage all the students to do so as well, In this way, the students will have a sense of community and you will be considered a member of the group.

- ß Never force a student to sing immediately if s/he does not want to. Give her/him some time to relax, tune in and join the group.

- ß Ask your students to sing and do the actions. For example: cutting, drawing, making things with paper, etc., according to the words of the song. Both singing and doing something help to create an agreeable atmosphere in the classroom.

- ß Due to the fact that songs are suitable for practicing pronunciation, be alert to correct any mispronounced word.

- ß Keep the song brief, never tedious. Do not work on the song so long that you kill the students' interest in it.

- ß Leave enough time for singing the song, since the aim of using a song in the EFL class is to sing it and not to spend most of the time on the language itself.

- ß Guide the students to understand the song before they pronounce, memorize and sing it.

PREPARING WORKSHEETS WITH SONGS

As it was previously said, teaching songs needs careful planning in order to be successful. After you select the song, you might decide to design a number of exercises on worksheets in order to fulfill your objectives and to adapt the songs according to your students' proficiency level and age.

Below you will find some techniques to design and practice using worksheets.

Technique 1: Cloze Song

a. Select the song you want to teach.
b. Eliminate certain words according to your objective and the clarity of the singer's voice.
c. Make copies of the cloze song.
d. Ask the students to listen to the song two tor three times. Then ask them to fill in the blanks.

Example of a Cloze Song

I'm Stan MacCann.
I'm a _____ .
Good morning, _____.
Good _____.

_____ Stan MacCann.
I'm ____ businessman.
_____afternoon, Stan.
Good _____.
_____ Stan MacCann
_____a _____
_____evening, Stan.
_____ _____.

Technique 2: Songs with drawings

a. Select the song you want to practice.

b. Choose the vocabulary to be taught.

c. Type the song but leave spaces for the vocabulary chosen.

d. Make a drawing in each blank according to the word deleted.

e. Make copies of the worksheets.

f. Ask the students to listen to the song and identify the words corresponding to the drawings.

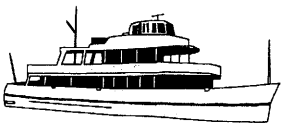
Example of a Song with Drawings

IF I ONLY COULD, I SURELY WOULD

(Music of 'El Condor Pasa')

I'd rather be a _____ than a _____


Yes, I would, if I could, I surely would.
I'd rather be a _____ than a _____



Yes, I would, if I only could, I surely would.
One day I'd rather _____ away

Like a _____ that's here and gone.

A _____ gets tired of 'to and fro'.

He gives the world its saddest _____ , its saddest song.

I'd rather be a _____ than a _____

Yes, I would, if I only could, I surely would.

I'd rather feel the _____ beneath my _____

(Worksheet copied from Jiménez, Rafael. Colegio San José. 1989. Barranquilla)

Technique 3: Scrambled Song

a. Select a song.
b. On the left side of a worksheet copy each stanza but put the verses at random.
c. On the right side draw the corresponding lines for each verse.
d. Make copies of the worksheets for each student.
e. In class play the song and ask the students to listen to it twice or three times in order to rearrange the verses and write them on the lines.

Example of a Scrambled Song

HOW'S YOUR FAMILY	HOW'S YOUR FAMILY
There're very well	_____
How's your mother?	_____
Very well.	_____
She's well.	_____
How is your family?	_____
Very well.	_____
Oh, yes, they're very well.	_____
They're well.	_____
How's your brother?	_____
He's very well.	_____
How are your parents?	_____
He's well	_____
They're well.	_____
How is your father?	_____
How are your children?	_____

Technique 4: Inaccurate Words in the Song

a. Select the song to be taught.
b. Type the words of the song but change some lexical items in each verse instead of the correct ones.
c. Make copies of the worksheets.
d. In class ask your students to listen to the song in order to identify the inaccurate words.
e. Ask your students to cross out the words and write the appropriate ones according to the song.

Example of Inaccurate Words in the Song

ARE YOU READY?

Were you ready? Were you ready?
It's one o'clock.
Were you ready? Were you ready?
It's two o'clock.
Were you ready? Were you ready?
It's dime to go.
Were you ready? Were you ready?
Not, no , not!
Were you ready? Were you ready?
It's three o'clock.
Were you ready? Were you ready?
It's four o'clock.
Were you ready? Were you ready?
It's time to go.
Were you ready? Were you ready?
No, not, no!

TEACHING PROCEDURES

Procedures and techniques depend on an approach to language, to language learning, and to language teaching, and to their corresponding curriculum design. Consequently, every teacher has her/his own way to teach a class, according to the approach and the design that s/he believes and puts into practice every day. However, it is important to be open to the teaching experience of other people in order to enrich our own teaching style. Below, teachers will find various procedures used by some writers in their classes. They are cited in each procedure.

Procedure 1. (Smith, L. 1976)

a. Ask the students to listen to the song twice while looking at the words on the board or on a duplicated copy of the words.
b. Let the students ask any questions about the song.
c. Ask the students some general questions about the contents of the song.
d. Have the students answer specific questions about the song.
e. Have the class sing the song together.
f. Ask some open-ended questions to provide topics for discussion. Each student should express her/his own opinion and be given the opportunity to explain and defend it.

Procedure 2. (Salas, E. 1979)

a. Ask your students to listen to the song twice.
b. Ask some yes/no questions to check comprehension.

c. Present and explain new words or expressions using pictures or contextual clues.
d. Ask the students to listen to the song again.
e. Test general comprehension through questions.
f. Ask students to repeat the words of the song in order to memorize them.
g. Hand out copies of the song and ask them to listen to it while reading on their copies.
h. Ask them to sing in chorus.
i. Ask come personal questions based on the words of the song.

Procedure 3 (Monreal, 1982)

a. Give your students the words of the song but without some familiar and well pronounced words.
b. Ask the students to listen to the song and fill in the blanks.
c. Write the missing words on the board for checking the students' answer.
d. Give them the story but this time in other words. To check comprehension ask them to select certain answers from a multiple-choice format.

Procedure 4 (Everett, W. 1987)

a. Ask your students to listen to the song concentrating on the lyrics.
b. Ask them to give you the words, phrases and sentences they understood.
c. Hand out the lyrics and ask them to translate the song to check their full comprehension.
d. Select a grammatical point and give them an additional exercise, i. e., write a paragraph describing what happens before a concert and invite the people to attend the concert. You can also ask your students to imagine two people talking in a cafeteria and finally making an invitation to a concert given by the author of the song.
e. Ask your students to read the paragraph or role-play the dialogue and answer some comprehension questions based on the paragraph or the dialogue.
f. Then ask your students to answer comprehension questions based on the lyrics of the song.
g. Now you can ask them to imagine that they are in a concert hall. Play the role of an announcer and talk about the author of the song, present her/him to the public and allow her/him to sing the song (play the song). Ask the students to listen carefully.
h. Ask them to sing the song.

Procedure 5 (Berghouse, R. 1975)

The author presents the following suggestions based on a song for children.

a. Sing the first words of the song pointing to your eyes (if the song refers to them)
b. If your children don't understand it, translate it.
c. Ask your children to sing after you as many times you think are necessary.
d. Ask the students of the first row to take the teacher's part and ask the students of the second row to sing the repetitions. Then reverse the order.
e. If possible, change the words of the song to correspond to the name or description of a child in the class.
f. When the children have learned the song completely, they can sing it as a round, first in two parts, then in three, and finally in four parts.

The song used by the author is the following one:

Black-eyed Susan
Black-eye Susan,
Black-eye Susan,
How are you?
How are you?
Very well,
Thank you, very well,
Thank you
How are you?
How are you?

Procedure 6 (Kingsbury & O' Shea, 1977)

a. Play the whole song once to allow the students to familiarize themselves with the melody and the rhythm. Do not worry if the students clap their hands, hum, tap their feet, etc., together with the singer.
b. Ask the students to listen to the song very carefully once again in order to answer two general questions written on the board.
c. Play the song the third time, after this, ask your students to give you the answers to the two questions.
d. Play the chorus or the first stanza and ask the students to hum loudly or to sing with you.
e. Write the chorus or the first stanza on the board. Then explain any new or difficult word. Ask your students to sing afterwards.
f. Continue with the first or the second stanza in the same way.
g. As soon as the students learn each stanza, ask them some comprehension questions or any other similar exercise.
h. After the students have learned the song completely, ask them some personal questions in order to practice the new vocabulary and structures, and to talk about their experience. Encourage them to express their own ideas or opinions about the topic being discussed.
i. Give instructions to do the additional written exercises. Use examples if necessary.
j. When the students have mastered the song, give them either an oral summary of the song or dictate it so that they can copy it in their notebooks.

Procedure 7 (Abbs & York, 1977)

The authors present their procedure according to the following stages:

First Stage: Theme

The teacher presents the theme or a brief summary of the song.

Second Stage: Language

a. The teacher presents the main topic to be learned from the song according to her/his objective. The topic can relate to a communicative function, a grammatical structure, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc.

b. Then s/he explains some new words or expressions.
c. Third Stage: Teaching the song.
   1. The students listen to the song and then repeat each verse after the teacher. This repetition can be done with the whole group, small group, and individually.
   2. The teacher plays the song once again and encourages the students to sing while they look at the words of the song.

Note: The teacher will decide on the number of stanzas to be presented and practiced in each class according to the type of song, purpose, time available, etc.

Fourth Stage: Follow-up Activities

Various activities can be done after the song has been learned. Here are some of them.

a. Language Structure. The teacher can take advantage of some grammatical structures, lexical items of phonological features, different from the main topic of the lesson, which appear in the song. Select these points and explain them.
b. Comprehension Questions. In order to review or to evaluate what the students have learned from the song, the teacher can ask some comprehension questions. They can be based on the facts of the song, on inference or on personal experience.
c. Dramatization of Dialogues. Some songs can be reproduced in the form of dialogues. In this case, the teacher can ask the students to reconstruct the words of the song in dialogue form and represent it in front of the class. According to the students' level, the teacher can ask them to use the same words of the song, to use different words or to add more words and ideas. Encourage them to be imaginative, creative and very active in this type of activity.
d. Discussion. Based on the theme of the song, the teacher can motivate the students to make a discussion in small groups or with the whole class. The teacher has to guide the students to analyze the song, to discover or infer ideas, which are in the deep structure of the words of the song and to express their opinions.

Procedure 8 (Suarez, A. 1977)

a. Select the song according to the students' level of English and the grammatical structure you want to practice.
b. Give a brief introduction about the song including its origin, its message, its author, etc. Do not give the title of the song yet. This introduction can be done in the native language.
c. Play the song and ask your students to listen to it. Do not allow your students to see the words of the song yet. After this, ask them for the title of the song.
d. Play the song again and ask your students to listen to it and follow the written words. This will help them to understand the song, get the correct pronunciation and follow the melody.
e. Ask your students to repeat each verse after you. Be careful with the original modulation and the pauses of the song. Do this exercise at least twice.
f. Replay the song and have the students sing along with their mouths closed in order to get the correct pronunciation and the melody.
g. Now allow your students to sing loudly as many times as they want to.
h. Play the song and let them sing the beginning of the song. Suddenly, stop the cassette recorder and encourage them to keep singing.

The author of this essay has used songs following these procedures:

Procedure 9
a. Play the song once. Ask your students to listen carefully.
b. Ask your students to give you words, phrases or sentences they understood after the first listening.
c. Play the song two or three times more so that the students get more words and sentences. Write them on the board.
d. Ask them for general ideas about the song. Based on these ideas ask them to give the title of the song. Write the titles given on the board.
e. Play the song once again.
f. Hand in the words of the song and ask your students to read them silently.
g. Ask your students to give you general ideas of the song. Check them with those ideas written on the board. Compare the title of the song with those ones given by the students.
h. Explain the most important new words and expressions.
i. Play the song and ask your students to follow it silently, paying attention to the pronunciation.
j. Ask your students to repeat each verse after you.
k. Play the song and ask your students to sing along.
l. Sing the song together with your students but this time without the recording.

Procedure 10
a. Select a short song, which refers to a series of actions or activities.
b. Draw randomly the representation of these activities on a dittoed sheet.
c. Ask your students to look at the drawing and identify each one. Ask them to write the name of the activity in a space below the picture.
d. Play the song so that the students get familiar with it.
e. Ask them to listen to it again to verify the activities in the picture.
f. Tell them to number the pictures according to the sequence given in the song.
g. Play the song again to check the students' answers.
h. Hand out the words of the song and ask them to listen to it.
i. Get them to rehearse the song in order to memorize the words.
j. Have your students sing it as many times as they like.

Procedure 11
a. Ask your students some personal questions based on the words of the song you are going to teach.
b. Give them a list of key words taken from the song and ask them to say what the song

might be about. Write their ideas on the board.
c. Hand out the text of a cloze song (an incomplete song).
d. Ask your students to read the song carefully trying to get certain general ideas in order to confirm their predictions.
e. Have them read it once again and try to fill in the blanks with the missing words. Ask them to do this in pencil.
f. Play the song for the first time and ask them to fill in the blanks.
g. Ask them to rehearse it twice or three times more, until they get all the missing words.
h. Guide the students to understand the unknown words and expressions by looking at the context or giving them your own examples, definitions, synonyms, etc.
i. Play the song again and ask your students to identify certain communicative functions, feelings, etc.
j. Now have them sing the song together with you and the singer.
k. From time to time, lower the volume of the cassette recorder and ask them to follow the song alone.
l. Finally tell them they are going to take part in a contest, similar to the one presented on the Colombian TV program entitled "Compre la Orquesta". Call a pair or a group of three, four or five students to the front of the class and ask them to sing together with the cassette. Suddenly, lower the volume and have them continue singing for a while. Then increase the volume and check if the singer and the students are singing at the same time. If not, they lose the contest. Call another group to participate in the contest. Congratulate the winners of the contest.

Procedure 12

a. In a previous class make a list of songs yours students would like to practice and learn.
b. Select one of these songs for the next class.
c. Type the song but placing the stanzas in a different sequence from the original version. Photocopy the song.
d. Present some pictures to exemplify new vocabulary and idiomatic expressions which are necessary for understanding the song.
e. Hand out the words of the song and ask the students to underline the sentences which include the new vocabulary and expressions presented in the previous step. Check their comprehension.
f. Using various techniques, present and explain one or two grammatical structures which appear the most in the song. Have the students practice each structure both orally and in written form.
g. Ask the students to go back to the words of the song and identify the grammatical structure(s) presented before.
h. Ask some questions to check comprehension of each stanza.
i. Tell your students that the stanzas of the song are scrambled. Ask them to try to organize them in the correct order by numbering each stanza.
j. Play the song to check the order of the stanzas. Ask your students to copy the song on the other side of the sheet of paper. While they copy it, play the song many times to familiarize the students with the melody.
k. Have the whole class sing the song together with the singer first and then ask them to sing it with you.
l. Divide the class into small groups according to the number of stanzas. Assign a stanza to

each group and ask them to prepare to sing it in front of the class.
m. After each group has sung a stanza, ask your students to stay in the same groups to identify the main ideas of their stanza and express their interpretation of the composer's intentions or feelings.
n. Have each group report their ideas to the whole class.
o. Finally ask them to give you opinions about the way you worked with the song in order to incorporate their suggestions for the next song.

Procedure 13

The author has used the following procedure to work with short songs.
a. Write the songs on the board.
b. Read it aloud while the students listen to you.
c. Ask them some comprehension questions.
d. Have them repeat the words of the song line by line.
e. Erase one word from each verse and ask one student to read the song providing the words deleted.
f. Erase another word from each line and ask another student to read the song as it was previously done.
g. Continue erasing the words until all of them disappear. Ask some students to say the song aloud.
h. Play the song and ask the students to listen to its melody.
i. Ask your students to sing together with the singer.
j. Sing the song without the cassette.

To sum up, songs are useful devices for motivating the students to learn a new language. They provide the class with a pleasant atmosphere which allows the students to lower their anxiety and to feel at ease in the EFL/ESL class. They can also serve to practice the components (i.e, sounds, vocabulary, and grammar) and the skills (i.e, listening, reading, speaking, and writing) of a language. In order to fulfill the previous purposes, I have given some suggestions for selecting songs, identifying the appropriate time for a song, teaching songs successfully, and designing worksheets with songs. Finally, I presented a series of teaching procedures used by a number of writers and myself as an EFL teacher. I hope that EFL/ESL teachers will find this article useful for their everyday classes.

Professional Practice

Revealing learners' beliefs and attitudes towards teachers and testing.

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Introduction

Within English language teaching (ELT), much ado has been made lately of promoting a movement toward a *learner-centred curriculum.* Such terms make a nice label, and sit well in blurbs on the back covers of textbooks and in flowery programme descriptions, but what do they mean in real terms for students and teachers? As its name suggests, 'learner-centred' means that the content of the syllabus is determined by how language is learned most *effectively* by the learner, rather than by what can be taught most *efficiently* by the teacher (see Nunan, 1988 on learner-centredness; see Brown, 1989 relating to effectiveness and efficiency); or what is described as "moving from a traditional textbook-based teaching approach to a more autonomous teaching-learning approach" (Seeman & Tavares, 2000). As such,

> education should develop in individuals the capacity to control their own destiny and that, therefore, the learner should be seen as being at the centre of the educational process. For the teaching institution and the teacher, this means that instructional programmes should be centred around learners' needs and that learners themselves should exercise their own responsibility in the choice of learning objectives, content and methods as well as in determining the means to assess their performance. (Brindley, 1984, cited in Nunan, 1988, p.15).

Certainly this movement came out of larger educational and ideological issues, but within ELT I understand this call for a move to learner-centredness as having grown out of two key developments (nice historical synopses are presented in Markee, 1997; White, 1988; and Yalden, 1987). The first was the move to *communicative* language teaching (another often- and over-used term!). The second involved a realisation that learners need "to develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning" (Little, 1991). In this sense, learner-centred is understood as *autonomous learning* (Little and Dam—in press). Both of these new emphases gained prominence in the 1970s and early 80s and continue to be active areas for theoretical exploration and research into the implications for practical application. The shift from concentrating on the target language itself to a focus on the learning process means that:

> **the generative educational aim is to make the students understand, maximize and control their cognitive powers and cognitive weaknesses. Learner differences which teachers have always been aware of are now a valuable resource to exploit. Self-direction, learner autonomy, and negotiation are the order of the day. (Gray, 1990, p.263)**

A lot of attention in the area of learning autonomy and self-direction has been paid to

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self-instruction, self-access centres and 'learning to learn' models, probably since many conceptualisations of autonomy stressed the independence from formal instruction. This is reflected in a view of autonomy as "the act of learning a language outside the framework of an educational institution and without the intervention of a teacher" (Benson, 1997, p.18). Such a statement, however, represents one of the basic misconceptions of autonomous learning (Esch, 1997), and as Little and Dam point out, "according to this view, classrooms are a matter of administrative convenience, a necessary evil" (in press). Most EFL learning still takes place in a classroom, with a teacher, who is working from a set syllabus—most often the textbook; at least this is certainly the case at my school here in Oaxaca. It's not that we are against ideas of learner autonomy, or even entirely incapable of putting learning training or similar schemes for promoting autonomy into practice. It's just that we are first concerned with marking papers, preparing and correcting tests, and planning lessons for the following day. The reality of our school setting is that teachers need to teach towards the course objectives, so as to be able to administer tests which reflect those aims in order to give the student a grade.

An intriguing question then arises: is there a way to reconcile institutional demands for student assessment with curriculum goals of promoting learner autonomy? Aren't testing and autonomy contradictory concepts? I will attempt to address this a little later on.

For the moment, I would like to return to some views on learner autonomy. Dickinson (1993), for example, describes it as "an attitude to language learning" (p.330), while Benson (1997) puts it in terms of "a capacity (a construct of attitudes and abilities) which allows learners to take more responsibility for their own learning" (p.18). What these have in common, then, is that one of the underlying notions in the discussion of autonomy is that of learner *attitudes*. What is implicit, and perhaps lacking in some so-called 'learner training' courses is the understanding that even if you equip the learner with the ability to become autonomous, the learner will only embrace it if she brings attitudes that allow her to do so (see Cotterall, 1995). So when Benson (1997) asks: "Is it possible to 'teach' learners how to be autonomous without at the same time denying their autonomy?" (p.9), the point he is making is that setting autonomy as a goal involves not only showing the learner *how* to be autonomous; she reached an awareness of *why* she needs to be autonomous. Clemente (2000b), makes a strong argument in connecting learner attitudes to underlying beliefs to the behaviours that arise from these in language learning.

With this framework in mind, I would like to look in concrete terms at how these learner attitudes manifest themselves with a formal institutional setting. I will look first at students' attitudes towards teachers, and try to interpret these within the dynamic of the teacher-student role relationship. Next I will examine comments regarding views on testing and consider what attitudes are behind them, and to what extent they reflect awareness on the part of the students. Finally I conclude by trying to bring these aspects together, to consider whether or not it's possible to reconcile them in a school setting.

Context for interpretation

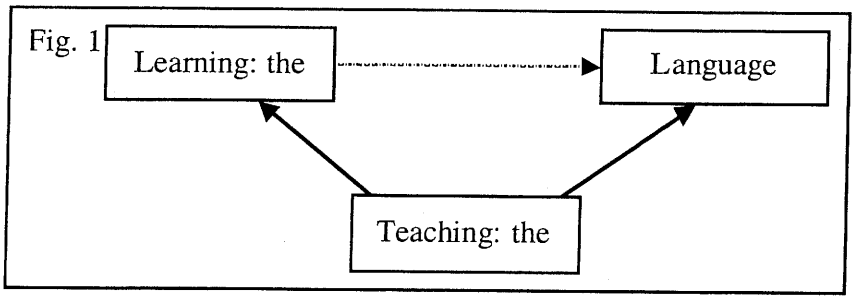
The comments presented below in boxes 1-5 were given by students as part of an evaluation carried out last April to look at proficiency testing and its effects on teaching (washback) in the English programme. A summary of some of the actual data obtained from the 80 students who participated is included as an appendix. All are students of the BA (*licenciatura*) programme in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), which was established at the Language Centre here in Oaxaca in 1992. The degree programme is similar to others across Mexico; it is designed to educate and train professionals in the field of ELT, and includes studying applied linguistics, methodology, literature, and most importantly, English. As part of a larger effort to evaluate and reform the *licenciatura* curriculum, this study

aimed at measuring the students' views and reactions to the English 'exit exam' that had been implemented as an additional requirement for graduation in 1997. The actual test given is a mock version of the First Certificate Exam (FCE) from the University of Cambridge. This is a global language proficiency test, similar to the more familiar TOEFL. The justification for having added this testing requirement is to ensure (by this I mean 'Encourage & Enforce') that graduates have an acceptable minimum level of proficiency in the language. The students' support—or lack of it—for the testing and specifically the FCE, a British test, was measured using a series of simple 'Yes/No' type questions (see appendix). To help in the interpretation of the data, and to add some depth to the evaluation, the student questionnaire concluded with an open-ended question: "Does the test work or not?" What was most surprising and revealing about the responses was how many referred, not to the test, but back to the teachers. To this extent, the test serves as a focal point, and the students' answers ultimately revealed a lot about their feelings and attitudes towards teachers.

The learner-teacher role relationship

Upon enrolling in an English course and entering the classroom, the learner places the teacher as an intermediary between herself and the target language. This is what Wright (1990) describes as the *teaching as intervention* model, as shown in figure 1. To what extent, however, does the teacher determine the content and direction of the actual learning process?

Fig. 1



Again, this question addresses larger curriculum issues that I mentioned in the introduction. Nevertheless, at the classroom-level, many metaphors have been suggested in an attempt to set the framework for describing the teacher's interventionist role (see for example Riley, 2000; Bowen & Marks, 1994; Lynch, 1990). Similarly, many attempts have been made to redefine the teacher's role so as to give her a friendlier stance towards learner independence, such as *facilitator of learning, resource person,* or *learning counsellor* (see Wendon, 1991). Regardless of what metaphor-evoking label is pasted on the teacher, we find that "the teacher-learner role relationship lies at the very heart of the classroom process. Learning a language is a social activity above all, and in a classroom setting, it is subject to a unique set of social conventions" (Wright, 1990, p.83). In other words, the process of learning in the classroom is characterised by the nature of the relationship between student and teacher, and student to student. The way a learner perceives this relationship, then, must certainly influence strongly her attitudes towards her own learning.

The dynamics of the relationship are rarely what is prescribed in the course curriculum. Instead, as Littlejohn (1997) argues, they "emerge 'experientially', that is, they emerge through the learners' experience of the manner in which teaching and learning is organized, rather than through its overt content" (p.182). It stands to reason then, that learners who have had a negative learning experience will project this onto their teachers. Comments to this effect included the following:

Box 1: The "Test Isn't Fair Because the Teachers Can't Teach" group.

- Σ *No deben exigir pasar el FCE [First Certificate Exam] porque en el Centro de Idiomas no hay maestros capacitados.*
- Σ *Hay maestros que no tienen las suficientes bases para preparar a los alumnos... 'because' hay maestros que no entienden la pronunciación y no explican bien.*
- Σ *No hay maestros realmente preparados para impartir el curso de FCE.*
- Σ *Aunque es un examen completo... no está muy bien desarrollado por el maestro.*
- Σ *No hay suficiente capacitación de los maestros para enseñar el FCE. "L "*

The point really isn't whether this blame is justified or not. Probably it is to some extent, if not in such an over-stated way. What's more interesting is to look at what is underlying these generalised negative attitudes. Could we, for example, correlate these statements to students who have poor performance, as measured by grades? Are these, in fact, more autonomous learners, who reject what they perceive as the teacher imposing artificial or not personally relevant learning objectives on them? Unfortunately the anonymity of the questionnaire prevented any kind of protocol analysis type research to try to correlate these comments to a profile of the type of learner who made them.

What seems to be a clearer example, however, are those students who placed criticism on the level of Mexican English teachers in general, either out of cynicism or as a sort of justification for their own mediocre achievement with learning the language:

Box 2: The "Mediocre is Good Enough" group.

- Σ *Solo con el nivel que tiene cada estudiante es suficiente para enseñar a secundarías.*
- Σ *La verdad que los maestros que ahora enseñan inglés no tienen ni siquiera un inglés intermedio.*

Is it going too far to say that these reflect the attitudes of unsuccessful, non-autonomous students? I don't think so, if we accept that "in formal educational contexts, the *basis* of learner autonomy is acceptance of responsibility for one's own learning" (Little, 1996, p.1). Here we can see the 'psychological relation' the students have made with the learning is one of shirking responsibility.

Beliefs about teachers

What seems to be lacking in all the above comments is some basic element of *reflection* towards the learner's attitude. The comments, nonetheless, are certainly motivated by certain *beliefs* the learners hold toward teaching. The beliefs, then, are reflected in the attitudes towards their own experiences with their teachers (following definitions of beliefs and attitudes in Clemente 2000b).

As I see it, this lack of reflection—being negative, but not particularly critical in a constructive sense—stems from a need for greater *awareness* on the part of the student. Following Flavell (1979), Clemente (2000a) explains that awareness constitutes a kind of 'metacognitive knowledge', which falls into several categories. Of particular interest is the category she defines as *person*, which includes beliefs about learners and teachers (p.160).

Contrast the comments in Boxes 1 and 2 with these statements:

Box 3: The "Critical Awareness" group.

- Σ *Los maestros tienen como su meta principal que los estudiantes pasen el examen y con ello "cumplir con su objetivo". Pienso que el examen está bien, pero la manera en que los maestros lo están enfocando es el problema.*
- Σ *Algunos maestros difieren en criterio para evaluar ciertas habilidades... Entonces esto afectará tanto nuestro aprendizaje (porque hay confusión [sic]) como nuestra calificación.*
- Σ *En todo caso si el maestro(a) se afana más en la estructura del exámen que en el contenido y significado del idioma el resultado que los alumnos obtenemos en el exámen, con el paso del tiempo se va devaluando.*
- Σ *La verdad es que la mayoría de los maestros se preocupan más por las técnicas de enseñanza que por el aprendizaje mismo del idioma.*
- Σ *De alguna manera la escuela debe evaluar nuestro conocimiento o dominio del inglés, pero está mal en la manera de como se nos prepara para presentar tal evaluación, más bien deberían motivarnos o mostrarnos el idioma en si y no solo como debemos aprender a contestar un examen.*
- Σ *Son absurdos los niveles de evaluación, es absurda la metodología orientada hacia la presentación del exámen.*

Here it's evident that these students are more 'tuned in' to their own attitudes about what is happening in the classroom. That it to say, they have a greater degree of awareness of the situation. Their perceptions about the teaching they have been exposed to is correspondingly more reflective. They have consciously analysed perceived shortcomings in how their teachers are directing their learning. Moreover, they speak to decisions they have made about the relative worth of the instruction they are receiving. By having tuned their awareness and become cognizant of their own beliefs and attitudes, they can recognise when teaching is serving them and when it is not. This is to say, they are in control of their learning; they are autonomous.

Reconciling autonomy and testing

Having looked at student beliefs and attitudes towards teachers and teaching, I would like to return to a question I posed in the introduction, namely: can we promote learner autonomy while at the same time holding students accountable by means of external tests? Is there some way to reconcile these concepts, or does one necessarily exclude the other?

On the surface, they appear to clash hopelessly. After all, a self-directed learner has accepted the responsibility for her own learning and taken charge of it. To this extent, she has control over the processes of her learning, and is therefore first and foremost accountable to herself. Contrarily, even the most communicative test must by nature take control and accountability out of the hands of the learner. This contradiction within the framework of communicative language teaching (CLT) was recognised by theorists as early as twenty years ago, before "The Communicative Approach " and "Learner-Centred" had entered the ELT lexicon. As Morrow (1979) points out that even back then there was a "considerable imbalance" between materials being developed and calls for changes in methodology based on new ELT and SLA theory, and methods for assessment which "still reflect, on the whole, the idea about language and how it should be tested which fail to take account of these recent developments" (p.143).

This dilemma constantly resurfaces in attempts to put learner-centred curricula into practice in formal educational settings. These impede implementation of various aspects of the goals of the curriculum, (for example how to assess students following a process-type

syllabus) but perhaps most importantly regarding issues of autonomy. Clemente (unpublished) explains that the definition of autonomy is complete if it involves: 1. the learner's role, 2. her interaction with the teacher, and 3. the context in which they interact. The introduction to this paper briefly considered her first point, and the above discussion has focused on the second. The problem of testing is encompassed under her third aspect, that of the context.

By *context* we can understand learning and teaching within the framework of the language curriculum. This is particular to the institution, its values and goals, its politics, standing and role within the community, etc. Again the problem is that the role of testing "has become increasingly unclear in the past few years ... [as] evaluators have come to recognize that the processes that take place in a language program are at least as important as the products of the program" (Bachman, 1989, p.13). Moreover, "most of these processes, indeed those that are of greatest interest, that take place in the minds of learners are extremely difficult to measure" (ibid). If, for example, one of your goals as a teacher is to help your students raise their awareness of the language and increase their metacognitive knowledge, that's certainly an excellent objective, but how do you measure your learners' success on a monthly test?

Obviously, there are many kinds of tests or exams, and in any event a test is merely one means of assessing students. Recent research on methods of assessment present language teachers with a wide array of alternatives (see Brown and Hudson, 1998). Of particular interest for researchers of learner autonomy are methods for *self-assessment.* An early example of how self-assessment has been used in a 'school' setting is the Bournemouth Eurocentre experiment (described in Holec, 1980). Again, the goal is that the learner should not only measure her own performance, gains, and problem areas with the language, but that she herself examines the processes of her learning and chooses her own criteria for assessment.

The main objection to traditional testing in terms of learner autonomy is that the learner has no control over the content or criteria for testing. This is reflected in comments made by learners, such as:

Box 4: The "Tests Don't Evaluate What's Important" group.

- Σ *Un examen no mide tu capacidad intelectual.*
- Σ *El examen es como una barrera al aprendizaje.*
- Σ *No es muy interesante para nosotros, para aprender una segunda lengua no es muy motivante. No nos sentimos motivados, por el contrario, yo me desespero...*
- Σ *No es justo que nos evaluan todo un proceso solo con un examen.*

Especially revealing is the last comment. Again, it addresses the incompatibility of the idea of evaluating a formative process with a summative measurement. We ask the students to focus on and engage in the learning process, and then turn around and hold them accountable for a product, i.e. tangible objectives in the target language as defined by teachers and administrators.

Such beliefs about testing are encompassed by another category of metacognitive knowledge which Flavell calls *task* (again, explained Clemente, 2000a). Following this model, we understand that awareness allows students to reflect critically and meaningfully on their beliefs and attitudes about teachers (person), as well as processes—or lack thereof—of their learning, in this case in relation to the tests they are required to take (task). Awareness of beliefs and attitudes about these elements of the person and task categories enable the stu-

dent to reflect on the third category of metacognitive knowledge, that of *strategy*. The term 'strategy' here refers to the learner's capacity to reflect on the way she carries out her learning processes. In concrete terms, we can say that in the present case the more reflective a student is about her teachers and the tests she must take, the more she is able to think critically about appropriateness of the exam within her own learning goals, and possibly how to incorporate it (however unwillingly she has to take the test) into her learning processes:

Box 5: The "Test as a Self-Diagnosis" group.

Σ	*Es una forma de ver que conocimientos tiene el alumno y cuál es su capacidad para desempeñarse en el área, además puede notar en que necesita practicar más. Además es buena referencía para nosotros.*

Conclusions

In this paper I have attempted to see how the context of a school setting, and its system of accountability which is external the learner, affect student attitudes towards teachers and testing.

While the scope of this investigation has been quite limited, it's important to keep in mind that this discussion takes place within the framework of the evolution and continuing attempts to put communicative language teaching into practice. Many practical and ideological issues still need to be worked out; not the least of which is dealing with the social and psychological ramifications of a move to learner autonomy. Even within discussion of the facilitation of autonomous learning, ironically most literature focuses on how the teacher must re-define her role in the teacher-learner relationship. Learner-centredness may seek to shift the focus from teaching to learning, but doesn't this presuppose that the student will automatically centre on herself? Mexican learners are still very teacher-oriented. Imposing a shift is not giving the student independence; we as teachers need to work to raise student awareness.

Raising awareness is not just asking the student to reflect on learning. It is asking her to reflect on her beliefs and attitudes towards her process of learning. As such, you ask her to engage what are called 'second-order beliefs'. This is to say, that she "focuses not on the world or behaviour or facts, but on [her] ideas about the world" (Clemente, 2000a, p.163). If the student engages in this kind of metacognitive thinking, she frees herself from the restraints of the institutional setting. She uses her awareness to make conscious decisions about her learning. She defines her learning experience—in a traditional classroom, taking tests, dealing with 'the school system'—in her own terms. Tests may well exert control over the content of learning, but, for autonomous students, tests cannot control the process of learning. The student takes control and responsibility of her learning regardless, and in spite of, external systems of accountability. In this way, she doesn't so much *reconcile* external pressures with her own autonomy as she does *overcome* them.

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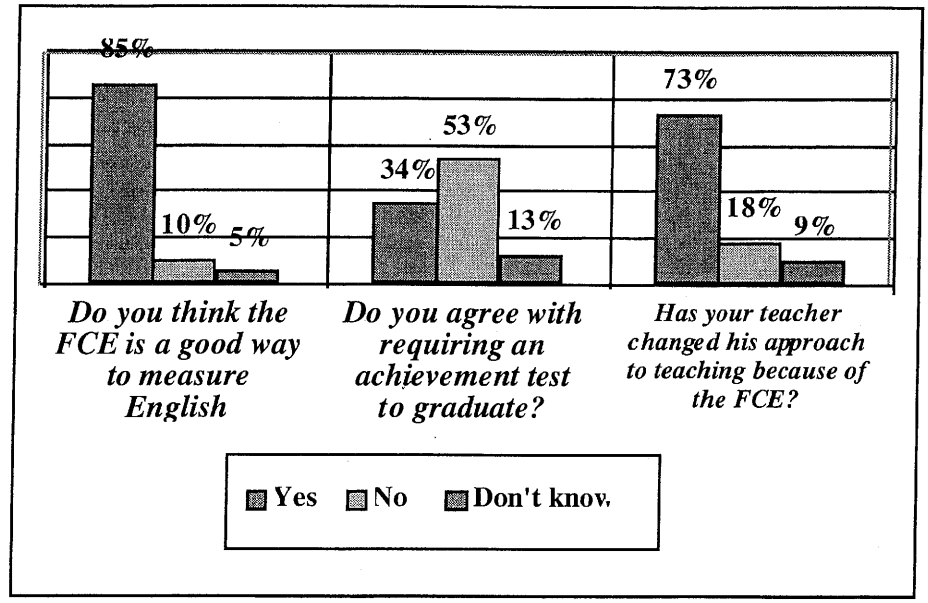
Appendix



research issues

professional practice issues

commentaries

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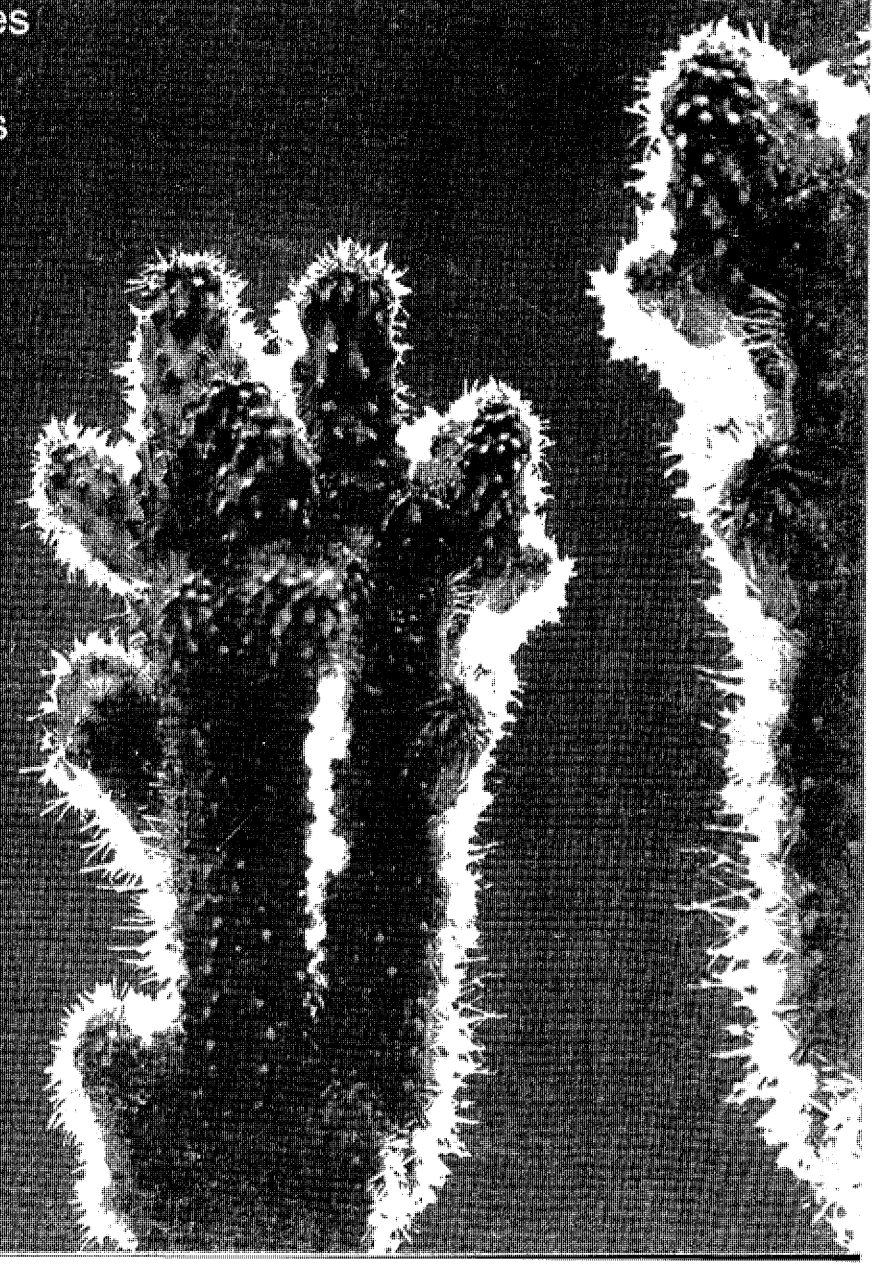

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