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PROPUESTA DE INTERVENCIÓN EDUCATIVA:

Integración de estrategias para desarrollar habilidades comunicativas en estudiantes de educación secundaria

TRABAJO RECEPCIONAL

QUE PARA OBTENER EL DIPLOMA DE:

**ESPECIALIZACIÓN EN ENSEÑANZA Y APRENDIZAJE DE INGLÉS COMO LENGUA
EXTRANJERA, MODALIDAD EN LÍNEA**

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Especialización en
Enseñanza y aprendizaje de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera
Specialization in English Language and Teaching as a Foreign Language



UNIVERSIDAD PEDAGÓGICA NACIONAL

**Specialization in teaching and learning of English as a Foreign
Language**

FINAL PROJECT:

**Integration of strategies to develop communication skills
in students of secondary level**

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Introduction

During this final project we will go over all the topics seen during the three modules of the specialization, here is when we will compile all the concepts studied and we will put into practice the improved strategies learnt during these three modules.

By the end of this specialization we will have developed new strategies and improved the current skills, the hereby project proposes a didactic intervention aimed to present a well planned activities based on the principles studied during the specialization.

This project is composed by three chapters, which describe with great detail the process of language acquisition of to students by a well structured lesson plan and a recording of the class where all the learning acquired during the specialization was put into practice.

In the first Chapter we will present an enhanced philosophy, here we can see how this philosophy has evolved to become a philosophy well supported enriched by the influence of all the authors who have contributed about the English learning process. During this chapter we will describe the profile of the students, the main goal and the expected outcome.

Also during the first chapter we will go over some theory underlying the teaching practice and identity.

The second chapter presents a well elaborated lesson plan with all the elements necessary to carry out an English class. We will present a recording of the class with duration of 10 minutes max.

During this chapter we will include photographs of the class conducted and recorded as well as the assessment tools.

The third chapter presents the outcome of the performing of the lesson plan, we are presenting the results of the assessments and how the class was developed. It contains the main aspects learned by students, we present the main problems faced and the possible solutions, also we are presenting the results and what we have learnt during the specialization and the main challenges we faced. We will go over the different assessments we can use to evaluate the skills of our students.

Finally we include a conclusion, references and appendixes, the detailed lesson plan carried out is in appendix I and appendix II.

CHAPTER 1

PHILOSOPHY AND THEORY

1.1 Teaching context, identity, and philosophy.

My Philosophy

During the performance of us Teachers we act many roles according to the needs of the lessons that we include in our lesson plans, and derived from this, we have to adopt a philosophy which describe our personality as teachers, in order to work under a philosophy we have to analyze our personality, preferences as teachers, our style of teaching and our values and our education. After this we have to work on improving our strategies, creativity and training, we never stop learning while we are alive. Considering our learners as the centre of our attention, I have based all my performance focusing on the student's acquisition of the language as my main priority and acting as a consequence.

All our activities prepared for class must be focused on terms of the level of english of the student not on ours. We must think on the student at the time of preparing a lesson plan.

My Teaching Identity

Through the specialization, all the theories and thinking of the main authors have contributed in building my identity as a teacher, I developed a wider criteria and made me better understand my role which has been formed as result of a process of formation through the time, is built with all my experiences beliefs, values and my place in the society.

Identity is important for positive attitudes about study. It increases commitment and reduces attrition. Identity increases satisfaction. It's why we aspire to commence study and helps us finish our study. This is because social identity is what allows norms and attitudes to influence our behaviour. Besides, Identity is important for academic integrity because it allows us to learn the attitudes and behaviours that promote integrity. A shared academic identity increases motivation to learn. It improves communication within a group and improves encoding of information and deeper processing of that information. Identity should be at the centre of everything we do.

Sometimes the identity takes the form of our teaching, not the purpose of our teaching. Instead, we should focus on the people involved in the learning. Now, this might not actually be that new of an

idea. There's already a body of research about the importance of belonging in the classroom, and people have been building identity in their classes for some time.

I always try to find a balance between professional life and personal life:

Some of my identity Features:

Beliefs:

- I believe in god
- I believe that one should not stop learning because life never stops teaching
- I believe in students willing to learn.

My values as a professor and as a person:

- Responsibility
- Honesty
- Value of helping others with happiness
- Teamwork
- Love for my family
- Love for pedagogic work

1.2 Theory underlying my teaching practice and identity.

1.2.1 Language

Definition:

A system of conventional spoken, manual (signed), or written symbols by means of which human beings, as members of a social group and participants in its culture, express themselves. The functions of language include communication, the expression of identity, play, imaginative expression, and emotional release.

(BRITANNICA , 2023)

Language: Language has two basic elements:

- 1.- symbols such as words and,**
- 2.- a set of rules combining these symbols**

Phonology: is the study and identification of the meaningful sounds of a language through pronunciation, intonation, and stress. Phonological rules help you understand a sentence even if all the vowels have been replaced with another letter.

Phonetics in contrast is the study of all speech sounds and the ways in which they are produced.

Phoneme: is the smallest unit of sound that affects the meaning of speech, each spoken language consists of roughly thirty to fifty phonemes, English has twenty-six letters. Phonemes are not letters, they refer to the sound of a spoken utterance.

Morphology: Morpheme is the smallest unit of language that has meaning, ex. Words to book, like, black and art. Morphemes are often added to words to show their grammatical role in a sentence, prefixes and suffixes.

Entonation: It's the way a speaker changes the level of their voice to show meaning.

cohesion: The grammatical links between sentences.

Coherence: we need to use our knowledge of the world to see the sense connection between two sentences.

(Anglo Americano Grupo educativo , 2020)

Phonemic Chart Click on a symbol to hear its pronunciation

	monophthongs				diphthongs		
VOWELS	i:	ɪ	ʊ	u:	ɪə	eɪ	
	sheep	ship	good	shoot	here	wait	
	e	ə	ɜ:	ɔ:	ʊə	ɔɪ	əʊ
bed	teacher	bird	door	cure	boy	show	
æ	ʌ	ɑ:	ɒ	eə	aɪ	aʊ	
cat	up	far	on	hair	my	cow	
CONSONANTS	p	f	t	θ	tʃ	s	ʃ
	pea	fly	tea	think	cheese	see	shall
	b	v	d	ð	dʒ	z	ʒ
	boat	video	dog	this	June	zoo	television
	g	h	m	n	ŋ	r	l
	go	hat	man	now	singer	red	love
	w	j					
	wet	yes					

Features of Language

- Polysemic
- Conventional.
- Cultural transmission.
- Displacement.
- Arbitrariness.
- Productivity (or open-endedness or creativity).

Type of mistakes:

A slip: A student is prone to make mistakes when he/ she is tired, stressed or if he/she is in a hurry. Slips are the result of tiredness, worry or other temporary emotions or circumstances. We make them because we are not concentrating on what we are saying or doing.

Interference: The student makes mistakes when mother tongue interferes on the learning of a language

Developmental Error: A mistake that occurs as a consequence of studying a level above the learner's level. Errors occur when learners try to say something that is beyond their current level of knowledge or language processing (working on the language unconsciously to try to understand and learn it).

Developmental error is the result of organising and experimenting the language they have learnt. But this process is not yet complete.

(THE TKT COURSE MODULES 1.2 AND 3, 2011)

Order of acquisition of a language:

1.- One-word stage: The earliest stage of grammatical development hardly seems like grammar at all, since only single words are involved. This stage is most noticeable between 12 and 18 months.

Ej: mamma, dada, cookie, doggie

2.- Two-word stage: at around eighteen months, vocabulary growth reaches the rate of a new word every two hours that the child will maintain through adolescence. Children also begin to string two or more words together. Ex: mommy shoe, drink milk, ball floor.

3.- Telegraphic stage: By age 2, spoken vocabulary probably exceeds 20 words, and at this age, many children produce sentences that are three or four words in length and combine these words in different ways to produce a variety of grammatical constructions.

3.-function-word stage: Children develop grammatical morphemes, like the third person singular, s or ed for past tenses in a remarkably similar sequence.

Children may master these morphemes at different ages, but the order of acquisition is very similar.

(Mary Spratt, 2011)

1.2.2 Main four types of learning in education

Before that scientists have for years tried to understand the best ways students learn through research.

One of the popular theories, to this day, is the VARK model. This model identifies four types of

learners: **visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and reading/writing**. Most people are a combination of these four styles, but more times than not, they have a predominant style of learning. Each of these styles has a complementary way of teaching. Now, let's see the characteristics each of these styles entails and how best to make use of them.

Visual learning style

Visual learners are individuals who prefer to take in their information visually—be that with maps, graphs, diagrams, charts, and others. However, they don't necessarily respond well to photos or videos, rather needing their information using different visual aids such as patterns and shapes.

The best way to present to visual learners is by showing them the relationship between different ideas visually. For instance, when explaining a scientific process, it can be done by using a flow chart.

Auditory learning style

Auditory learners are individuals who learn better when they take in information in auditory form when it is heard or spoken. They are prone to sorting their ideas after speaking, rather than thinking ideas through before. Since, to them, saying things out loud helps them understand the concept.

Auditory learners learn best when information is presented to them via strategies that involve talking, such as lectures and group discussions. They can benefit from repeating back the lessons, having recordings of the lectures, group activities that require classmates explaining ideas, etc.

Kinesthetic learning style

Kinesthetic learners are individuals who prefer to learn by doing. They enjoy a hands-on experience. They are usually more in touch with reality and more connected to it, which is why they require using tactile experience to understand something better.

The best way to present new information to a kinesthetic learner is through personal experience, practice, examples, or simulations. For instance, they can remember an experiment by recreating it themselves.

Reading/Writing

Reading/writing learners consume information best when it's in words, whether that's by writing it down or reading it. To them, text is more powerful than any kind of visual or auditory representation of an idea. These individuals usually perform very well on written assignments.

There are different ways to get a reading/writing learner to engage and understand a certain lesson. For instance, it would be best to have them describe charts and diagrams by written statements take written quizzes on the topics, or give them written assignments.

(ACADEMIC ADVICE, 2021)

Form, meaning and use

a)Form

In Larsen-Freeman's perspective refers to the actual "shape" of the language and the rules that generate these forms. Pronunciation and spelling, grammar and word formation will fall under that aspect of language.

b)Meaning

Will help us account for the meaning of words, phrases, and even larger levels of language. Vocabulary, semantic fields, reference, etc., will be dealt with in this aspect.

c)Use helps us focus on the context and intention of the expression. Language functions, language use and sociolinguistic aspects come into play here.

(Anglo Americano Grupo educativo , 2020)

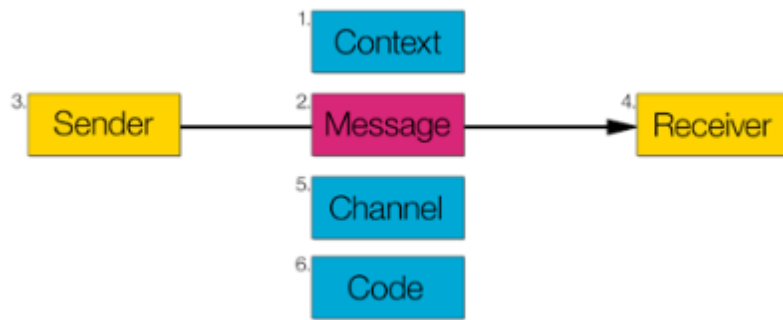
Register

In linguistics, the register is defined as the way a speaker uses language differently in different circumstances. Think about the words you choose, your tone of voice, even your body language. You probably behave very differently chatting with a friend than you would at a formal dinner party or during a job interview. These variations in formality, also called stylistic variation, are known as registers in linguistics. They are determined by such factors as social occasion, context, purpose, and audience.

(Thought, 2019)

1.2.3 Jakobson's Model of Communication

Language programs that focus on the use of language in communication are based on models of communication. The one developed by Jakobson (3) (do you remember it from the previous lesson?) shows the different aspects that come into play when we are communicating. Here is the model again:



Retrieved from

(WIKIPEDIA ENCICLOPEDIA LIBRE, 2023)

1.2.4 Behaviorism

Can be broadly defined as a school of psychology that bases learning on the interaction between a stimulus and a response. A **stimulus** can be any type of input that causes the learner to change his/her activity or behavior, for example thoughts, emotions, and sensory activity. A **response** is what the learner does as a result of a given stimulus. Under this framework, learners must not only be exposed to a stimulus at least once, respond to the stimulus, but must also receive some type of feedback. Another way to express this idea that learning requires multiple **stimulus-response opportunities** is to say that learning is a **reiterative process** between stimulus-response, which means it happens repeatedly and over time.

1.2.5 The Interaction Hypothesis

Michael Long argued that interaction is more than an opportunity for learners to practice the language but that through interaction, learners develop their second language. He believed that *negotiation for meaning*, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS (native speaker) or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and in productive ways.”(2) According to Long, there are several ways for NSs (native speakers) to provide NNSs (non-native speakers) with **modified input** and provide them with feedback; these resources –negotiation of meaning, feedback, clarification requests, **confirmation checks**, repetitions, **reformulations** and **recasts**- are known as interactional modifications and will be presented later on in this chapter. The **Interaction Hypothesis** helps us understand how **interactional modifications** and feedback help the development of our students’ English language.

Motivation

Before looking at what the literature has to say about motivation, it may be useful to first consider how the term motivation has been defined. Gardner (3) defined motivation as “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language” . Here then, motivation is the sum of efforts made by the students and a desire experienced by the learner. Others however argue that effort is not the cause for the motivation; rather, effort comes as a result of motivation. In other words, if you are motivated, you will make a bigger effort to succeed. Another problem with this definition relates to the goal, which is defined as learning the language; however, agreeing on what it means to learn a language is a difficult and slippery thing. The goals for one student may not be the same for another student. Another possible definition explained in much simpler terms suggests that “motivation is responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it, so we can find different types of motivation: **instrumental motivation, integrative motivation intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation.**

Gardner, (1985, p.10).

1.2.6 Vygotsky and the Genetic Method

Vygotsky developed his theories around the same time as Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget was developing theories about cognitive development, but they differ on almost every point. Some of Vygotsky's work is still being translated from Russian.

What is Vygotsky's Theory?

Vygotsky's social development theory asserts that a child's cognitive development and learning ability can be guided and mediated by their social interactions. His theory (also called Vygotsky's Sociocultural theory) states that learning is a crucially social process as opposed to an independent journey of discovery. He expands on this by stating that a child's learning benefitted greatly from being guided by a more knowledgeable member of the community - such as a parent or teacher.

Vygotsky's sociocultural theory also suggested that children internalise and learn from the beliefs and attitudes that they witness around them. He believed that culture played an important role in shaping cognitive development and therefore that this development varied across cultures. Vygotsky also stressed the importance of language as the root of all learning.

Vygotsky's Concept of More Knowledgeable Other (MKO)

Vygotsky's theory places importance on guiding children's learning through their interaction with a more knowledgeable other (MKO). The more knowledgeable other could be anyone with a greater understanding of the task or concept that the child is trying to complete or learn. Most often, this would be a parent, caregiver or teacher, but it could also be a peer or mentor.

This theory is not limited to academic or educational learning, it can also be applied to recreational learning such as playing games or using technology. In these circumstances, a peer or older child is more likely to be the more knowledgeable other.

The MKO could also be an electronic tutor, in cases where a program is set up to guide learning using voice prompts or videos. Vygotsky's theory places importance on guiding children's learning through their interaction with a more knowledgeable other (MKO). The more knowledgeable other could be anyone with a greater understanding of the task or concept that the child is trying to complete or learn. Most often, this would be a parent, caregiver or teacher, but it could also be a peer or mentor.

Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

The concept of the zone of proximal development, also known as the zone of potential development, is used to explain a child's potential for cognitive development and ability when they are guided through a task, rather than asked to do it in isolation.

If a child is presented with a task that is slightly above their ability level, the zone of proximal development (ZPD) refers to their ability to do it with the assistance of a more knowledgeable person. This theory explains why some skills present themselves in a more social context when the child is unable to display them by themselves.

The zone of proximal development can be described as the distance between the actual developmental level when assessed independently and the level of potential development when assessed in collaboration with peers or mentors or under the guidance of a teacher.

Zone of Proximal Development Stages

The ZPD can be broken down into three distinct stages in terms of a learner's skillset. In order to improve the ability of the learner the more knowledgeable person must understand what stage they are in.

Tasks a learner can accomplish without assistance

This refers to tasks that the learner can perform independently. If the learner has reached this stage, the teacher or mentor will need to increase the level of difficulty of the task in order to facilitate further learning

.

Tasks a learner can accomplish with assistance

This is referred to as their zone of proximal development. In this stage, the learner needs the guidance of a more knowledgeable other to help them complete the task.

Tasks a learner cannot accomplish with assistance

This refers to tasks that the learner cannot do, even with the guidance of a more knowledgeable person. If the learner's ability falls within this range, the level of difficulty may need to be decreased to accommodate their skillset.

Vygotsky and Instructional Scaffolding

Instructional scaffolding is a method of guided learning that helps a student learn by pairing them with an educator. The educator should have greater experience with the task or process than the student, but they should also have an understanding of the level that the student is at and how they can address this level.

Techniques for instructional scaffolding might include using visual aids (such as diagrams), providing examples, working one-on-one with the student and providing feedback. The aim of scaffolding is to create an environment in which the student feels comfortable asking questions until they can perform the skill without any help.

The benefits of scaffolding include:

- Motivating the learner by helping them through aspects of a task that they have trouble with
- Minimising frustration for the learner
- Providing a faster learning experience

(NSW,

2023)

1.2.7 Piaget's Cognitive Development Theory

Piaget argued that children's cognitive development occurs in stages (Papalia & Feldman, 2011).

Specifically, he posited that as children's thinking develops from one stage to the next, their behavior also changes, reflecting these cognitive developments.

The stages in his theory follow a specific order, and each subsequent stage only occurs after the one before it.

These stages are:

1. The Sensorimotor Stage

The sensorimotor stage is the first phase of children's cognitive development. During this stage, children primarily learn about their environment through their senses and motor activities.

The sensorimotor stage comprises six substages, where children's behavior moves from being reflex driven to more abstract. Each substage is described briefly.

1. Use of reflexes (0–2 months)

During this stage, children typically use their reflexes. They cannot consolidate information from their sensory organs into a single, unified concept.

2. Primary circular reactions (1–4 months)

Children start to consolidate information from different sensory organs. They start to engage in behavior that satisfies the way their body feels or their needs. For example, they repeat pleasurable behaviors, and they adapt their behavior to feed from different objects. They turn to respond to sounds and sights in their environment.

3. Secondary circular reactions (4–8 months)

Children's behaviors become more intentional, and the types of behaviors that they repeat expand to include those that result in interesting responses external to their body. For example, they might push buttons on a toy. Children also start to take more interest in their environment. They repeat behaviors that generate interesting responses.

4. Coordination of secondary schemes (8–12 months)

At this point, children's behaviors become more goal oriented, and they can combine different behaviors to achieve goals.

5. Tertiary circular reactions (12–18 months)

Instead of performing the same actions, children try new behaviors and actions to achieve different results. These behaviors are not spontaneous or by accident, but are purposeful. Unlike primary and secondary reactions, children can combine more complicated behaviors and even perform a behavior similarly but not the same to get the desired result.

6. Mental combinations (18–24 months)

Children start to rely on mental abstractions to solve problems, use gestures and words to communicate, and can pretend. Instead of relying on numerous attempts to solve problems/puzzles, children can deliberate and carefully choose their actions.

2. The Preoperational Stage

At the end of the sensorimotor stage, children start to use mental abstractions.

At the age of two, children enter the preoperational stage, where their ability to use mental representations, rather than the physical appearance of objects or people, improves greatly.

Examples of abstract representations include engaging in pretend play and talking about events that happened in the past or people who are not currently in the room.

Other interesting cognitive advances occur during this phase. For example, children understand causality. Children also understand identities, where items and people remain the same even if they look different. For example, at some point during this stage, a caregiver dressing up as Santa Claus might not be as convincing.

In this stage, children also learn more about categorization. They can classify items based on similarities or differences. They also start to understand numbers and quantity (e.g., concepts such as ‘more’ or ‘bigger’).

Although abstract thought advances quickly in the preoperational stage, other cognitive processes develop more slowly.

For example:

- Children tend to consider their own viewpoint and perspective.
- Children fail to understand that two things can be the same, even if they appear different (more about this in the next section on Conservation).
- Children struggle to take someone else’s point of view.

3. The Concrete Operational Stage

The next phase is the concrete operational stage, which begins around the age of seven. During this stage, children are more capable of solving problems because they can consider numerous outcomes and perspectives. All of their cognitive abilities are better developed in this stage.

- Categorization abilities improve so that children can arrange items along a dimension, understand that categories have subcategories, and relate two objects to each other through a third object.
- Their numerical abilities improve a lot, and they can perform more complicated mathematical operations.
- Their spatial abilities are better. They are better at estimating time and distance. They can read maps and describe how to navigate from one location to another.

Conservation

During this stage, children understand the concept of conservation better and, as a result, are better at solving conservation problems. Conservation refers to the idea that things can be the same, even if they look different.

An example would be a cup of water poured into two glasses. One glass is tall and thin, while the other is short and wide. Recognizing that both glasses contain the same amount of water shows an understanding of conservation.

Children in the preoperational stage struggle with problems of conservation. For example, they struggle with tasks where the following is conserved even it appears different:

- Number of items (e.g., two sets of 10 items arranged differently)
- The volume of liquid (e.g., the same volume of liquid in two differently shaped glasses)

Children struggle with conservation because they can only focus on one dimension at a time; this is known as centering. For example, with the volume of liquid, they can only consider the shape of the glass, but not the shape of the glass and the volume of water.

They also do not yet understand reversibility. Irreversibility refers to a child's inability to reverse the steps of an action in their mind, returning an object to its previous state. For example, pouring the water out of the glass back into the original cup would demonstrate the volume of the water, but children in the preoperational stage cannot understand this.

In contrast, children in the concrete operational stage can solve conservation problems. This is because children now have the following cognitive abilities:

- They understand reversibility (i.e., items can be returned to original states).
- They can decenter (i.e., concentrate on multiple dimensions of items, rather than just one).
- They better understand identity (i.e., an item remains the same even if it looks different).

4. The Formal Operational Stage

At the age of 11, children enter the formal operational stage.

Abstract thought characterizes this stage. Children can think about abstract concepts and are not limited to a current time, person, or situation.

They can think about hypothetical situations and various possibilities, like situations that don't exist yet, may never exist, or might be unrealistic and fantastical.

During this stage, children are capable of hypothetical-deductive reasoning, which allows them to test hypotheses and draw conclusions from the results. Unlike younger children who haphazardly approach problems, children in the formal operational stage can apply their reasoning skills to apply more complicated problems in a systematic, logical manner.

(POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY.COM, 2021)

1.2.8 The Direct Method

The beginnings of the **Direct Method** were during the late 19th century. **Aural** (heard) and **oral** (spoken) aspects of learning a language are more important than reading and writing for this method. Look specifically at the underlying principles.

Principles of the Direct Method

The pioneers of the Direct Method were phoneticians. Here is a list of some important principles.

1. Language is not contained in books. Instead, language is connected to words which are produced orally and perceived by the listeners.
2. Language is about communication and not about being able to understand literary pieces of written language.
3. Language learning can be better achieved by finding native speakers as informants.
4. Languages of the world are different and should not be taught by comparing the structures to European languages.
5. All languages have an oral form; not all languages have a written form. This observation explains the importance of **oral input** in the process of language learning.
6. Children learn oral languages first; only later in life will they acquire a written form.
7. Native speakers learn language not by reading a grammar book but by hearing and using the language.
8. Learners will have more success learning the language if they are interested in the society using the language.

1.2.9 Communicative Language Teaching

We use language to accomplish communication with some functions within a social context; for our students it is not enough just to have knowledge of target language forms, meanings and functions; they also need to be able to apply this information in negotiating significance. During the last twenty years, different approaches have been developed in order to focus on the fundamentally communicative properties of language; also, classrooms have been increasingly characterized by authenticity, attempts at “real-world” communication and meaningful tasks. Mexican EFL teachers are currently accustomed to employing the term “communicative” to determine the main feature of their classes, since one of the main objectives in Mexican textbooks

and programs is that students become communicatively competent. This is a term which involves the appropriate usage of language within a specific social context; in order to make this possible, our students need to acquire meanings and linguistic forms to know how to perform a function. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as a style intended to redefine what students have to learn in terms of *communicative* competence rather than *linguistic* competence; the crucial goal is the ability to use the language appropriately rather than the grammatical knowledge.

(8) Cook, V. (2001). *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

1.2.10 Roles

A role can be defined as the “function a person or thing plays in a particular situation.” (9) In other words, it is what a person or thing is appointed or expected to do. We have parts and play them in society. Circumstance may dictate some of the roles we take on, but there are also roles that we choose for ourselves to fulfill. In any case, others will expect certain types of behavior from us. Also a role can be defined as the set of actions that we are expected or anticipated to perform with respect to a certain setting or task. Classroom language learning is a group activity, and its nature varies in response to a number of factors. This in turn will influence the roles individuals adopt or are assigned in the class.

Role of the teacher

All of us have many roles to play: spouse, sibling, parent, child, friend, colleague, consumer, etc. While it is understandable to think of roles merely in terms of external actions we do, we must also consider the internal side of our roles: what goes on in our heads, and what are the experiences and beliefs that lead us to embrace each role under certain circumstances? Roles must also be considered in conjunction with the people around you — a “network of roles” that is based on power, responsibilities, skills, experience, and personal relationships. Since most teaching occurs within the institutional setting of a school, let’s first look at how school helps determine our roles as teachers, the main roles a teacher may take are: needs analyst, curriculum developer, material developer, counselor, mentor, team member, researcher, and professional.

Role of students

The role of the student is by no means homogeneous. Expectations for the behavior of students vary in a number of regular ways. In the first place the role of the student changes as a function of age; but as students progress through successive stages of schooling, they meet with different expectations.

By the time the student reaches secondary school his parents have largely moved out of the scene; the students' school-related activities are a matter between the student and the school.

Engaged learning is the process in which students actively participate in their learning. Students are involved, beginning on the first day, in the decision making of the course of their study. The teacher serves as a "coach or facilitator," guiding students to the desired goal.

"Engaged learning allows students to participate in "real-life" activities through collaboration, exploration, and discovery with peers. Engaged learning projects do not focus on one subject, but the integration of many or all subjects. Assessment in engaged learning can be very diverse. Assessment should be real, continuing, and encouraging.

Bottom-up, In broad terms, bottom-up processing is the piecing together of smaller elements of language. These elements include the graphemes (the letters), the grapheme-phonetic (letter-to-sound) relationships, the phonemes, the syllabic structures, the morphemes (prefixes, roots, suffixes), the words, and the sentences. In this sense, bottom-up approaches see texts as a hierarchical organization where "the reader first processes the smallest linguistic unit, gradually compiling the smaller units to decipher and comprehend the higher units (e.g., sentence syntax)".

(4) Dechant, E. (1991). *Understanding and teaching reading: An interactive model*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum

1.2.11 Schema

Schema is knowledge about the topic that individuals have already acquired through various experiences. These experiences and knowledge are activated when reading and can help the reader connect previous experiences to the content of the text. In the literature, a distinction is made between three types of schema knowledge:

1. content schema
2. linguistic schema
3. formal schema

Content schema

Refers to previous general knowledge we have about a particular topic. We use the knowledge we have about past experiences to make connections to new information in the text. Using content schema can connect old and new information, which can help us understand the message of a text more clearly. The background knowledge that readers bring to the task can include information, ideas,

beliefs and values that a reader has. This type of schema is conceptually-driven and resolves ambiguities between alternative possible interpretations.

Linguistic schema

Refers to the linguistic information we have stored in our mind in order to decode words and their meanings (9). Examples about linguistic schema are the following: a) verbs are converted into past by using -ed, b) the progressive is formed by using “be” plus the ending -ing, c) the prefix un- is used to make the opposite of some words like “unhappy,” and so on. This type of linguistic schema is also considered data-driven, or bottom-up. Readers can understand the meaning by using linguistic information.

Formal schema

Formal schema or rhetorical patterns refer to the knowledge we have about the different organizations of text (8)Meyer 1975). For instance, letters, essays, newspaper articles, and postcards all have different organization. Let’s consider an example. When you give your students a newspaper article and they look at it, provided they have been exposed to newspaper articles in Spanish before, they will know that it is organized in paragraphs, that it has a headline and that it can also have subheadings (if it is long). If students can use their knowledge of newspaper articles to the reading task in English, they should know that the headline gives the topic of the piece of news and that each paragraph has information introduced by the subheadings.

Meyer (1975). Organization of Pros and Its Effects on Memory (Nort-Holland studies in theoretical poetics)

1.2.12 Reading strategies

We read in different ways depending on the specific situation. The technique you choose will depend on the purpose for reading. Effective and efficient readers learn to use many approaches and strategies when reading texts. The following section will cover some specific strategies you can teach your students to help them develop their reading skills.

Identify a purpose for reading: If students clearly identify what they are looking for or why they are doing the reading, they will have a better chance of remembering the information than if they read with no purpose at all. For example, when reading a rent contract, I am more likely to remember the

information if I need to know the rules on pets than if I read with no purpose at all. This is just like when we speak or write. We rarely just speak randomly or write for no purpose at all. We want to transmit an idea or make a request. It isn't any different for reading.

Use graphemic rules, which is a phonics approach, and consonant and vowel patterns to aid in bottom-up decoding: This is probably an aspect that is usually not taught explicitly in Mexican middle schools in the English classroom. Brown (17) proposes to consider patterns such as the following. Note that V stands for vowel and C stands for consonant.

Use efficient silent reading techniques for improving fluency: This point is something needed more in the advanced levels, rather than the beginning levels because beginners are still struggling with the vocabulary and grammatical structures. Intermediate to advanced students, however, can increase their reading rate and comprehension efficiency by following these silent reading rules:

- Don't “pronounce” each word to yourself.
- Try to visually perceive more than one word at a time, preferably in phrases.
- Unless a word is crucial to global comprehension, skip it and try to determine the meaning through context

Skimming (for main ideas): Skimming is a type of technique that requires fast reading. The reader reads quickly through a text just to get the main idea/ideas. For example, a reader might skim a dialogue in order to see if the opinions of the people involved in the dialogue are positive or negative

Scanning (for specific information): Scanning, similarly to skimming, consists of moving quickly through a text, but the difference is that you are looking for specific information. This is a very valuable skill, as it is common when reading short passages, scripts, newspaper articles, book chapters, etc. When you scan, you are looking quickly to find key words or information. In most cases, we tell our students what to look for, so they focus on finding a particular answer. After scanning a text you should have a general idea whether it includes things you are looking for. When scanning, the reader should look for the use of visual cues such as titles, captions, images. When trying to determine the organization of the text (for example, how many issues will be covered), students need to scan for numbers, the words first, second, or next; for words that are bold faced, italics, or in a different font size, style, or color.

Scanning: reading for specific information

Reading for gist: extract the general idea of a text

Lead in: Activities generally involve looking at the pictures around a text or at the title and trying to predict what a text will be about

Learning words

Words have multiple aspects, and learning these aspects takes time and repeated exposures to the word. In other words, acquiring new vocabulary is an incremental process. The process of learning the aspects of a single word continues after we have encountered it for the first time. To discuss how to teach vocabulary through reading, it is important to think about what our students need to know in order to learn new vocabulary. Therefore, begin by reflecting on the following question, What does it mean to know a word? Take a few minutes to think of what you need to know in order to use a word in a sentence. Think about meaning, morphology, grammar, and so on.

Cross-cultural awareness refers to being aware of other cultures when we meet them. If you are planning on setting up a program with learners from another country, it is important to think about some cross-cultural differences in writing styles. Every culture, as well as every language, has its own way of expressing thought and manner for organizing its expression. These distinct arrangements will sometimes be of a more mechanical nature, such as the tone or punctuation that introduces and concludes examples, lists, personal comments, and so on. **Trujillo Sanz (7)** has researched extensively into the contrastive rhetoric of English and Spanish. The word netiquette comes from combining the words Internet and etiquette, and it refers to the accepted norms in effective computer-to-computer communication. The norms for your program should be negotiated between yourself and the cooperating teacher. However, some important considerations need to be made. Ask your learners to be polite, to include a greeting, to avoid using capital letters because this is understood as shouting, to correct punctuation and grammar, and to be respectful if their peers make mistakes. This is, in the end, a learning opportunity for learners!

1.2.13 Writing strategies

Weigle (2002) says that learning to write involves a specialized version of language that is already known by students, that “this specialized language differs in important ways from spoken language, both in form and in use, but builds upon linguistic resources that students already possess.” (1) In addition, “writing as compared to speaking, can be seen as a more standardized system which must

be acquired through special instruction. Mastery of this standard system is an important prerequisite of cultural and educational participation and the maintenance of one's rights and duties."

In both Spanish and English, many teachers show their students how the process of revision and editing can improve and teachers should become familiar with the terminology and conventions of process writing when they start learning to write (in any language).

(1) Weigle, C.S. (2002). *Assessing Writing*. Cambridge University Press, p. 4.

Approaches when Teaching Writing

Hyland (3), an expert on L2 writing, defines writing as "the process whereas a person selects, develops, arranges, and expresses ideas in units of discourse." (4) Hyland also suggests considering the following six approaches when teaching writing. (5)

Language structures: This refers to the coherent arrangement of words, clauses, and sentences, which are structured according to a system of rules. Learning to write in a foreign or second language mainly involves linguistic knowledge and vocabulary choices, syntactic or grammatical patterns, and cohesive devices that comprise the essential building blocks of texts. More specifically, the author identifies four stages in the development of writing. (6)

a) **Familiarization:** Students are taught certain grammar and vocabulary items, usually through a text.

b) **Controlled writing:** Students practice writing following patterns, and they substitute some ideas. One of the most empowering teaching techniques is known as the discourse frame, where the student observes the key transition phrases that provide the structure unique to a certain genre, and then writes their own text by changing only the characters or objects. Children's fairy tales, for instance, open with Once upon a time there was a, the protagonist makes two failed attempts which are followed by a successful third attempt, and closes with and they lived happily ever after.

c) **Guided writing:** Students imitate model texts.

d) **Free writing:** Students use the patterns they have already learned to write new messages.

Creative expression: Writing is learned, not taught. Writing can be transformed into a process of self-discovery and a way of sharing personal meaning. Students can express personal experiences and opinions without pressure to follow the rigid practice of a more form-oriented approach. Emphasizing this concept might be a helpful starting point for EFL middle school students in Mexico.

Virtually every act of writing takes creative effort — not only the traditional artistic forms of poetry and novel, but even reports and statements.

Writing processes: A priority of teachers is to develop their students' metacognitive awareness of their processes, that is, their ability to reflect on the strategies they use to write. This model of writing processes is widely accepted by many writing teachers in American colleges and universities.

Rubrics

first, we will consider rubrics, instruments developed to assess or provide feedback on student progress for a specific task. Working with writing, as with any other of the skill areas, requires some kind of assessment. As discussed in Chapter 5.3, students need feedback to realize how well they are advancing in their language learning. External feedback helps the learner become aware of weak or strong areas of language acquisition. Particularly with writing, there are a variety of rubrics to help the teacher provide feedback and assess achievement. Rubrics can either provide a general overview or can focus on specific aspects of the skill.

1) Jacobs, H. et al. (1981). *Testing ESL Composition: A Practical Approach*. in Weigle, S.C. *Assessing Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

1.2.14 Listening Process

The stages of student listening can be seen as the following, usually linear, process:

Recognition of the Target Language; the first stage of listening comprehension is reached when learners can distinguish their target language from other languages. Activities associated with this phase include listening to songs, rhymes, and extended conversations. The goal in this stage is that students become accustomed to the sound of their new language.

Recognition of Isolated Words; Until this point, students only hear a “blur” when listening to the target language. When they start to recognize some isolated words, it could be because they might be cognates, famous or common names, or vocabulary words they have already known.

Recognition of Phrase Boundaries; students can now begin to recognize individual words, phrases, and sentence boundaries. The spoken language begins to sound more distinct, less like a blur of sounds. However, students do not yet understand much of what is being said.

Listening for the Gist (core idea); during this stage, students start to have some feel for the global meaning of a listening passage. While they are still unable to understand many details, they may be

able to identify the topic or understand the main point.

True listening; at this moment, students begin to follow the meaning of a passage, although they will continue to encounter many words and phrases they do not comprehend. Some teachers and students normally associate “real” listening comprehension with this stage, but students may still have more difficulty remembering the content of what they listen to than they would when listening in their L1.(6)

1.2.15 Speaking

What we know about speaking nowadays owes much to research in **discourse analysis**, **conversational analysis**, and **corpus analysis**(3). Some of the things we have learned about speaking are listed below (4):

Speaking is made up of idea units. Speaking is different from writing, where we work with sentences and paragraphs as our basic building blocks. We could say that the basic unit of speaking is the thought group (5). The boundaries of the thought group are much unlike those of the sentence in written communication. A single sentence may be made up of a series of thought groups. For example, the following passage contains four sentences (three of them in coordination by the conjunctions but and so) but up to eight thought groups: Yesterday / after school, / Carlos asked me to walk with him to the post office, / which is around the corner. / He had a letter he had been meaning to mail, / but he'd kept forgetting to, / but now he was decided to not let it pass again, / so we went.

Speaking may be planned or unplanned. Most everyday talk is unplanned and informal. Certain situations call for some preparation though, like presenting content to a class or a business report to a group of colleagues. In those types of situations it is usually not only acceptable but expected that speakers rely on some kind of visual aid (slide show, notes on paper, etc.) to regulate their speech.

Speaking employs more generic or vague vocabulary than written language. If you think about it, language that is used more frequently by people also becomes more readily available to them (cognitively speaking), but precisely because it is used so often by so many people, nuances of meaning are lost in the way. The use of more nuanced, stylistically subtle language requires for people to think longer and therefore lends itself more to written communication situations, not to spoken ones, where time efficiency is a major constraint.

Speaking employs fixed phrases, fillers, and hesitation markers. A lot of spoken language is idiomatic, filled with ready-made phrases (Long time no see! I can't agree more! I'm not so sure I agree. See you later. Etc.), fillers (I mean... You know... In other words...If you know what I mean...Let's see...), and hesitations (er...hm...), including false starts (My topic today, er...Before I introduce my topic...)

Speaking contains slips and errors. Because most talk is 'planned' and delivered 'on the go' within a very small time frame (fractions of seconds), it is bound to contain errors, even when we speak in our native language. Most of the time we do not realize that we make these errors, nor do our listeners usually spot them (because they are so busy making sense of what we say).

Speaking involves reciprocity. Speaking is a two-way road. We speak to people and expect some kind of response, or at least some indication that we are being attended to. Listeners signal their focus and attention by different means, including linguistic devices (for example, back-channeling) or paralinguistic ones (for example, gaze).

Speaking shows stylistic variation. People adjust their speech in response to the context of situation (meaning by this, their perception of audience, the roles enacted, and the purpose of communication). Two very broad types of style can be identified: casual and formal (further discussed below). These can be better understood as forming a continuum, rather than constituting separate, mutually exclusive, stylistic compartments.

(4) Brown, H. D. (2007). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. White Plains, NY: Pearson, p. 288.

1.2.16 Task-based Approach

TBLT is an approach which offers students the possibility to actively engage in the processing of language in order to achieve a goal or complete a task. It seeks to develop students' interlanguage, that is to say, the kind of language produced by nonnative speakers in their development of learning a L2, providing a task and then using language to solve it.

Furthermore, TBLT's main characteristics position learners away from the forms of language alone to move toward real-world contexts. They specifically contribute to communicative goals. Their elements are carefully designed. Their objectives are specific so that you can at some subsequent point determine the success of one task over another. But most importantly, tasks are meant to engage learners in genuine problem-solving activity, at some level.(19)

Task-based learning concentrates on what can work in the classroom, however it seems to have some drawbacks. For example, it does not take any attitude toward the classroom as an L2 user situation but follows the usual line of minimizing the use of the first language in the classroom.(20) Within TBLT, teacher roles become more of a helper, while students work at their own pace and within their own level and area of interest to process and continually restructure their interlanguage. It moves away from a prescribed developmental sequence and provides students with freedom and autonomy in their own learning process.

In sum, TBLT offers the opportunity for natural-like learning inside the classroom, emphasizes meaning over form without ignoring form, is intrinsically motivating, compatible with the learner-centered educational philosophy, and can be complimentary to a more traditional approach.(21)

(SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING, 2001)

(BUTTE COLLEGE START HERE, GO ANYWHERE, 2019)

CHAPTER 2

Methodology and practice

2.1 A practical and useful lesson plan

Class context

- Age: 12 to 15 years old
- Grade: 3rd grade of secondary school
- Class modality: Classroom, Face to Face
- Level A1
- Venue: Escuela secundaria técnica #85 Juan Nepomuceno Perez

Interests and personalities:

Students are curious, interested in computer technology and different funny activities.

Student's areas of strength And Areas of need

Areas of Strength:

Reading skills, memory skills, willing to learn.

Areas of Need

Guidance, support to develop particular skills proper to the level.

Main teaching goals

Personal aims:

- To provide activities proper to the topics in order to help students learn and to acquire the communicative competence.
- To instill good habits of reading and writing in students.
- To boost reading and writing skills of the student and encourage them to develop these skills by themselves.
- To promote students' academic performance.
- To instill students with intrinsic motivation to learn.
- To develop thinking skills, and the use of the framework for thinking.
- To incorporate assessment tools as a part of the students' assessment to see and to measure the learning of the language.

Main aim

To teach present simple by involving students in activities related to the topic and some activities aimed to promote the social interaction and communication, making use of the different strategies in

order to improve communication skills of the student. Taking into consideration interactive activities for understanding vocabulary related to the topic, different types of reading and writing exercises. And finally incorporating assessment tools as a complementary part of the lesson plan.

Expected outcome:

By the end of the lesson, the student will be able to communicate ideas in present simple tense, using auxiliary do/does the learning will be evaluated to proof the success of the learning.

Expected attitude of students

The main purpose is to create interest and motivation in the student in the language learning by mean of interesting activities to make learning easier and fun in order attain the objectives of the lesson.

*****To see the Lesson plan format and detailed activities involved in this lesson plan, kindly see appendixes: I and II.**

2.2 Design of necessary tools to assess/test the progress of students.

Rationale behind each activity behind this Lesson Plan

The most important rationale behind this lesson Plan is that we need the student to be able to communicate ideas in simple present and use auxiliaries do/ does and for this we need to perform activities involved and related to reach the main objective.

So the activities and tasks included in this lesson plan are focused to develop the four basic skills, listening, speaking, reading and writing.

In order to reach our learning goals and help learners get involved in the activities we use a series of strategies focused to develop intercultural communication, in order to prepare student to face a multicultural world full of people with different identities, religion, beliefs, customs, habits etc.

- **The assessment tools used for this case were as follows:**

- 1.- Diagnostic Test (see appendix III)

- 2.-Progress Test (see appendix III)

- 3.-Portfolio of evidence

- 4.-Rubric (see appendix IV)

(Mary Spratt, 2011)

Portfolio of evidence:

The portfolio which was used for the class contains all the activities of the lesson plan and the tasks related to the topic.

This portfolio contains the warm up, vocabulary introduction, listening activity and social interaction, work in pairs, the last section of the portfolio of the class contains the tool assessment, follow up activities and listening and reading comprehension. This portfolio is used as evidence for the english class developed for this module.

Results:

- The class was conducted following the phases of the lesson plan with the aim to obtain the participation of the students, some techniques were carried out to elicit information on the students and thus, make them produce the language, in order to reach our learning goals and help learners get involved in the activities we use a series of strategies focused to carry out interaction by communication, in order to prepare student to face a multicultural world full of people with different identities, religion, beliefs, customs, habits etc.
- The students worked on the paper they were given, they answered the activities and at every moment received feedback from the teacher and solving their questions, in private. The teacher used some materials such as projector, whiteboard and handouts.
- During the class the teacher used scaffolding to support the explanation of the lesson. Most of the students were actively participating all of them looked encouraged to carry out the activities. noone refused to participate in the activities. Some of them were in a lower level which generated and complicated a little an unplanned situation.
- All the task that students did, were kept as an evidence and as a small port folio where we could follow the development of the class.
- Some learners have a lower level so the interaction with them was more personal, and when asking them to work in pairs, the learners who needed some help were working with the students with upper level.

2.3 Attached evidence of the conducted lesson plan (graphics, photos, images).

Presentation of the vocabulary



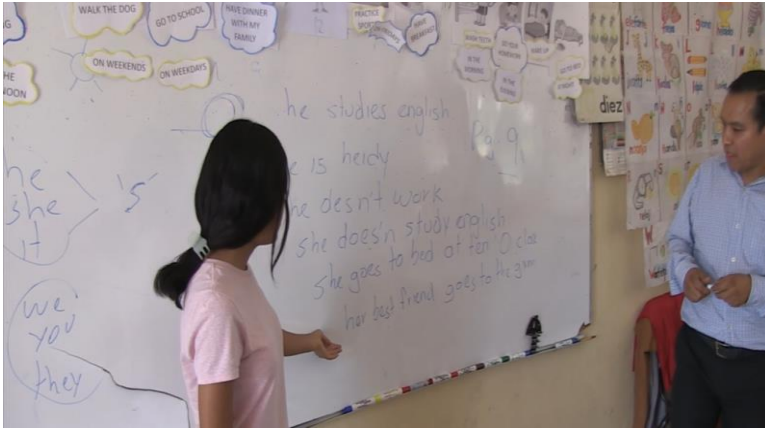
Speaking



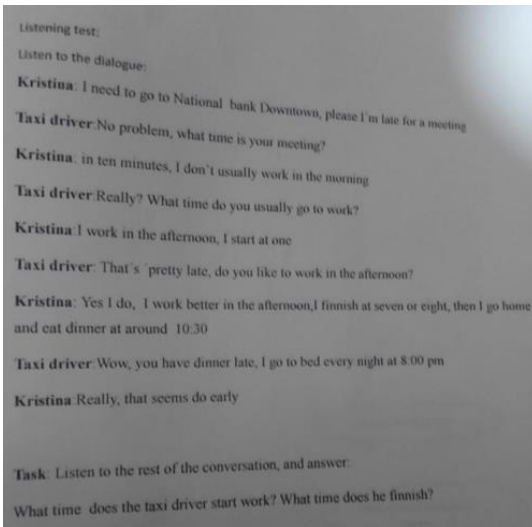
Grammar focus:



Grammar focus:



Listening tools:



Feedback:



2.4 Evidences of designed tools to assess the students.

Follow up activities:

Circle the verb on the correct form:

Mary play / plays Soccer Very well ✓

My father pick / picks me up at the school every day ✓

My parents go / goes on vacation every year ✓

Adrian walk / walks his dog every Sunday ✓

We read / reads novels before bedtime ✓

Flowers grow / grows in the garden ✓

Lucia and Alex go / goes to the cinema every weekend ✓

My brothers and I play / plays in the park ✓

Listening:

Listen to Aaron, Madison, and Kayla talk about their daily schedules:

Complete the chart:

	Aaron	Madison	Kayla
Job	Carpenter	Accountant	Artist
Gets up at	7:00 AM	7:00 am	11:00 AM
Gets home at	4:00 PM	6:00 PM	11:00 AM
Goes to bed at	10:00 PM	12:00 AM	

Portfolio of evidence:

TASK 28: What do you do on a normal day? Use Use, they

LEAD IN: Watch the columns. Timing: 10 mins

Write: Write Write Write

1 Practice sports

6 Wash tooth

2 Take english class

5 Wake up

9 Do your homework

3 Have dinner with your family

7 Get dressed

8 Go to bed

4 Walk the dog

Rubric:

Performance Item	Excellent (5)	Good (4)	Fair Fair(5)	Poor	none
Use of simple present	The S uses correctly the elements of simple present	The S uses parts of the elements of the simple present	The S uses only some of the elements of simple present	The S uses only a few of the elements of the simple present	The student does not use the elements of the simple present
pronunciation	The S shows a correct pronunciation of most of the words and also shows search work of those unknown words	The S shows a correct pronunciation of most of the words but shows a poor search work of those unknown words	The S shows a fair pronunciation of some words but does not show a search work of those unknown words	The S shows a poor pronunciation of most of the words and also shows none research work of those unknown words	The S does not show a correct pronunciation of most of the words and none research work of those unknown words
Prior grammar	The S shows a high	The S Shows a good	The S shows a fair	The S shows a poor	The S shows none

2.5 Performing and recording the activities.

Link of the video:

https://drive.google.com/file/d/1Hoal_vJi7iqRrf7GwMxWti9KTm-hPBTk/view?usp=sharing

CHAPTER 3:

Experience Report

When the strategy is properly used, students can master it's basic mechanics and class summary review during direct language intervention sessions can be a foundation for increasingly complex and challenging practice and review of curriculum based language skills.

Students in a language group can take turns giving their class summaries and listening to class summaries presented by other students. During their teaching turns, students can practice effective oral language skills.

Students as listeners can practice comprehension skills such as asking clarifying questions and paraphrasing the summaries to confirm the information. The teacher can use the summaries as a further practice of language skills appropriate to specific students' needs.

In addition to providing a context to practice curriculum based language skills during class summary review, the strategy is beneficial because it holds students with language disabilities accountable to remember and explain something of what is being presented in each class during the class.

Regular accountability and practice improves students' ability to remember and transfer knowledge across settings. Teachers understand the usefulness of this strategy, so they are more likely to support it. Routine class summary assignments can also become an efficient way to be continually aware of class content and curriculum language needs of the student.

Possible solutions to problems that may arise while carrying out the activities

Possible issues while carrying out the activities:

1. Some students may need re read many times to catch the main idea
2. Learners have a lower levels than others.
3. Some students find kind of difficult to identify grammar rules
4. Some studens are not familiarized with grammar presented
5. Some students have pronunciation problems
6. Some students have difficulty in solving the assessment tests

In order to prevent possible difficulties in the activities we will make sure of the following :

1. Distinguishes correct pronunciation to get meaning across.
2. S understand when it his/ her turn to ask.

3. SS Accept and give opinions.
4. Are motivated enough to perform all the activities properly.
5. The students need more feedback in order to review the topic and more practice.
6. Teacher monitors the learning to identify areas of difficulty and improve the lesson plan according to the needs of the students.

Most important aspects the students have learned

- Develop communicative skills.
- Expanded vocabulary.
- Collaborating in the learning of the student is highly rewarding.
- Express in simple present tense using do/ does.
- Reinforcement of previous knowledge.

Challenges Faced during the specialization

- The Reading and comprehension of the new strategies has been kind of challenging.
- The assimilation of the theories.
- Encourage students to participate actively.
- The use of new technologies and resources in the internet.

Most important aspects I have learned during the specialization

- Integration of new strategies.
- Comprehension of the main authors who contributed to the learning theories.
- Comprehension of the cognitive development of the learner.
- Expanded my vocabulary.

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSIONS

This project shows the scenery that every teacher will face in general terms from the beginning of his activities as teacher.

Teaching is not an easy job, but it is a necessary one, and can be very rewarding when we see our students' progress and know that we have helped to make it happen. It is true that some lessons and students can be difficult and stressful at times, but it is also worth remembering that at its best teaching can also be extremely enjoyable.

A language teaching method is a single set of procedures which teachers are to follow in the classroom. Methods are also usually based on a set of beliefs about the nature of language and learning. For many years, the goal of language pedagogy was to "find the right method"- a methodological magic formula that would work for all learners at all times. Methods contrast with approaches, which are more general, philosophical orientations such as communicative language teaching that can encompass a range of different procedures.

A learner-centered classroom is one in which learners are actively involved in their own learning processes. There are two dimensions to this learner involvement. The first of these is the involvement of learners in making decisions about what to learn, how to learn, and how to be evaluated. The second is in maximizing the class time in which the learners, rather than the teacher, do the work.

In this final project we are presenting some ways of getting learners more involved in their own learning process and to gradually take control of that process. Each step entails greater involvement of learners in their own learning processes.

A related observation is that just as learners have their own learning styles, so teachers have their own teaching styles. They are derived from their professional training and experience as well as their own experiences as learners. While one teacher might correct errors overtly, others might do it through modeling the correct utterance.

Teaching English language has been a demanding activity for ages, all techniques and methods have changed, in fact they need to change to be adapted to the new trends, nowadays the growing technologies have made easy the teaching activity, internet is full of apps and websites that are helpful when it comes to teaching,

Creativity is one of the most important abilities needed in a teacher, because he is always improving the methods and techniques for giving a class.

A big advantage of teaching English is that you are practicing all the time, whether with students or colleagues, and you have the opportunity to improve your abilities.

In the century XXI the teacher has become a facilitator, this means, the student is able to study by his own means and has to create knowledge by himself and teacher in turn will be a guide and review his progress and will show the areas that students need to concentrate on the most. The teacher will encourage students to take the appropriate practice which will help him in his way, and the teacher will also confirm that student is on the right track.

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APPENDIX I Lesson Plan
format

LESSON PLAN

Teacher: SERGIO CHAVERO RAMOS	Group:	Level: A1	Venue: CDMX
	Date: MAY 13 2023 Topic: Simple present and auxiliary	Schedule: Sunday 10:00 to 11:00 hrs.	Book: handout provided to students

UNIT & TOPIC	LINGUISTIC CONTENT	COMPETENCES	SKILL	PROCEDURE	MATERIAL	EVALUATION
PRESENT SIMPLE	<p>Lead in Introduce the topic with an activity</p> <p>Vocabulary: Morning, evening, noon, afternoon night, midnight</p>	Express brief comments, brainstorming. Ss are curious	<p>Identify different perceptions of time</p> <p>Listening comprehension</p>	<p>Warm up</p> <p>1.-T uses a TPR to encourage students to participate.</p> <p>2. Teacher provides a handout with the tasks to work during the class</p> <p>3.-Teacher presents the vocabulary</p> <p>Teacher asks students to pass in front of the whiteboard to participate on the activity</p> <p>Listening, T provides a recording so that SS work on a while listening.</p> <p>3. SS read it.</p>	Course framework	<u>Use of</u> Peer Interaction

				4. Teacher asks students if there are any questions or doubts about the framework rules and directions		
UNIT 1	<p>Writing skills</p> <p>Vocabulary: Simple present Auxiliary do / does</p>	<p>Reading comprehension techniques Appropriate use of simple present and auxiliary do/does</p> <p>Ss notice grammar focus in the activities, Distinguishes intonation to request and offer help in a polite way S notices when it his/ her turn to ask Reproduces the grammar rules correctly Requests and gives opinions Identifies grammar rules.</p>	<p>Reading comprehension and writing</p> <p>Reading comprehension and interaction Writing</p>	<p>Review Writing, Speaking</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. T gives SS the instructions. 2. T reads instructions and asks for questions. <p>SS write a bibliography of a partner and read it in front of the group.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. After the reading of the writing T asks SS to do the questions. 4. SS check their answers with partners. 5. T checks exercise. <p>The T gives flashcards and gives instructions for the activity SS hand in the activity T and SS review the answers together T provides feedback</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. T gives SS instructions about the activity in order to make a complaint about a bad service, or a bad product. 2. SS enter the link and write 3. SS stand up and begin to ask the questions to their partners 4. SS mingle. 5. T monitors and participates. 	<p>Copies, pc, whiteboard</p> <p>Handout Flashcards Whiteboard</p>	<p>Use of Expand vocabulary Notice: grammar focus</p>

				<p>6. T gives asks about the results</p> <p>7. T gives feedback.</p> <p>8. ASSESSMENT TOOL</p> <p>The S takes an exam</p> <p>The SS make a portfolio</p> <p>The T elaborates a rubric</p>		
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APPENDIX II Tasks and activities related to the lesson plan:

TASK 2B-1 What do you do on a normal day? Use I, we, they

LEAD IN Match the columns



Practice sports

Wash teeth

Take english class

Wake up

Do your homework

Have dinner with your family

Get dressed

Go to bed

Walk the dog

TASK 2B-2

Set a time for these activities in the clocs and write the sentence, see the example:



I get up at 6 o'clock



Weekend: Saturday and Sunday

Weekdays: Monday through Friday

Morning: 6am to 11:59

Noon: 12:00 pm

Afternoon: 12:00 pm-6:00

Evening: 6pm-9pm

Night: 9:00pm-6:am

Midnight: 12:00am

TASK 2B-3

Match the activities with the corresponding description, one option can be used twice.





In the morning



In the afternoon



On weekends



On fridays



On weekdays



In the evening



At noon



TASK 2B-4

What does **he/she/it** do in a normal day?

ACTIVITY 6 Timing: 10 mins

Reading:



Jennifer Aniston Actress, producer and business

Woman Jen's definitely an early bird! She gets up at 4:30am, unless she's not working, where she might stay in bed until 8 or 9. She washes and moisturises her face, then meditates for twenty minutes. She always has a shake with maca powder and cacao with her breakfast and then she'll do a spin class for half an hour and then yoga for 40 minutes. And that's not all - "I do strength training or just my own thing on the treadmill, the bike, or the elliptical, just to change things up. Keeping your body occupied is always the key for me." Wow, that's intense.



Mark Zuckerberg

Co-founder of Facebook

Given how much he's worth, we're pretty game to copy whatever Mark Zuckerberg does. Reportedly the man gets up at 8am everyday (providing he hasn't worked all night) and wears the same t-shirt to avoid wasting precious time deciding on an outfit. Hmm. We can totally get on board with the first tip but not so much the second. Picking what we wear is part of the fun, right?



Khloé Kardashian

Socialite, Model, businesswoman, and entrepreneur

Khloé gets up at 5am for her morning workout. She spends five minutes waking up and then brushes her teeth and freshens up by washing her face and putting sunscreen on. It takes her around 3 minutes to get ready, and then she heads downstairs for a green tea, a banana and a peanut butter pack. She then heads off to workout.

1.-Khloé spends around 3 minutes to get ready.	
2.-Jennifer stays in bed until 8 or 9 when she works.	
3.-Jen meditates for twenty minutes, then she washes and moisturises her face.	
4.-When Jen trains, she always changes her workout to keep her body confused.	
5.-Mark gets up at 8 am and wears the same t-shirt every day.	

TASK 2B-5

Circle the sentence that best matches the picture:

What does she/he do in a normal day?



She **leaves** her house and **takes** the london subway

She **leaves** her house and **takes** the bus



Every Sunday he **prepares** dinner with his family

Every Sunday he **eats** dinner with his family



He **takes** a break after work

He **works** in his home office



He **eats** breakfast at 10:00 am

He **takes** a break eating ice cream



She **gets** dressed after she wakes up

She **goes** to bed late



Leo **plays soccer** at 5:00 pm

Leo **goes** home around 3 pm

TASK 2B-6

Timing: 10 mins

Fill in the blank with the pronouns he/she/ it according to the pictures:

What **does** _____ **do** in the morning?

_____ has breakfast.



Where **does** _____ exercise in the afternoon?

_____ exercises in the gym.



What **Does** _____ do in the Hospital?

_____ Takes care of patients.



How **does** _____ like her job?

_____ loves her job



What **does** the dog do?

It _____ dogfood



What **does** the cat do?

_____ plays with a ball

TASK 2B-7

Timing: 10 mins

Circle the verb on the correct form:

Messy **play/ plays** Soccer Very well

My father **pick /picks** me up at the school every day

My parents **go / goes** on vacation every year

Adrian **walk/ walks** his dog every Sunday

We **read/reads** novels before bedtime

Flowers **grow/ grows** in the garden

Lucia and Alex **go/ goes** to the cinema every weekend

My brothers and I **play / plays** in the park



Listening:

Listen to Aaron, Madison, and Kayla talk about their daily schedules:

Complete the chart:

	Aaron	Madison	Kayla
Job	Carpenter		
Gets up at		7:00 am	
Gets home at			
Goes to bed at			

TASK 2B-8

Pair Work

Ask you partner questions about his daily routines and then white a biography with the information that you got from your partner

What time do you wake up?

Do you do you have a part time Job?

Do you study english

What time do you go to bed

What does your best friend do?

You:

My partner Goes to school, he has a part time job, he wakes up at 8 am...

APPENDIX III Progress and diagnostic Tests

Progress Test

Test, gap filling, Choose the correct option:

A:What do you do?

B:I'm a full time student, I study the piano

A: And _WHAT/WHERE_____ do you _GO/ARE_____ to school?

B:I _AM/GO_____ to the Brooklyn school of music

A: wow! How/what do you like your classes?

B: I _____LIKE/LIKED_____ them a lot

A: What _DO/DOES_____ tanya do?

B:She's a teacher, she _TEACH/TEACHES_____ an art class at a school in Denver

A: And what about Ryan? Where _DOES/DO_____ he work?

B:He _WORK/WORKS_____ for a big computer company in San Francisco.

A: _WHAT/WHERE_____ does he do, exactly?

B:He's a web designer. He _MAKES/MAKE_____ fantastic websites.

A:What _DOES/DO_____ Bruce and Ivy do?

B:They _WORKS/WORK_____ at an italian restaurant, it's really good.

A:That's nice.WHAT/HOW_____ is Ivy job?

B:Well,she manages the finances and bruce _WORK/WORKS_____ in the kitchen

A: Where _DOES/DO_____ Ali work?

B: He _WORK/WORKS_____ at the university, He _HAS/HAVE_____ a part time job.

A: Really? What _DOES/DO_____ he do?

B:He _HAS/HAVE_____ office work.

A:WHERE/HOW__ does he like it?

B: Not much, but he WANTS/ WANT___ some extra money to spend.



Listening test:

Listen to the dialogue:

Kristina: I need to go to National bank Downtown, please I'm late for a meeting

Taxi driver: No problem, what time is your meeting?

Kristina: in ten minutes, I don't usually work in the morning

Taxi driver: Really? What time do you usually go to work?

Kristina: I work in the afternoon, I start at one

Taxi driver: That's pretty late, do you like to work in the afternoon?

Kristina: Yes I do, I work better in the afternoon, I finish at seven or eight, then I go home and eat dinner at around 10:30

Taxi driver: Wow, you have dinner late, I go to bed every night at 8:00 pm

Kristina: Really, that seems do early

Task: Listen to the rest of the conversation, and answer:

What time does the taxi driver start work? What time does he finish?

Diagnostic Test

1.-The earth _____ the third planet from the sun

a)was

b)is

c)are

2.-I _____ coffee every morning

a)drinks

b)am

c)drink

3.-You _____ drink too much coffee, do you?

a)don't

b)are

c)do drink

4.-She _____ the answer to that question

a)doesn't know

b) didn't know

c) don't know

5.-She _____ her dog every morning

a) walk

b) walks

c) run

6.-The earth _____ around the sun

a) spin

b) spins

c) went

7.- _____ Your mother get up early every morning?

a) does

b) is

c) do

8.-Last Night she _____ the sciences project

a) finishes

b) finished

c) was

9.-How many friends _____ you _____ to the party

a) do brought

b) did bring

c) did brought

10.-My boss is _____ on the phone at this moment

a) talked

b) spoken

c) talking

11.-My friend _____ in Mexico City for 20 years

a) has lived

b) have lived

c) am live

12.-I _____ take my final exams tomorrow

a) am going to

b)will to

c)am

13.-Leave a message and I _____ call you back as soon as possible

a) am going to

b)will

c)will to

14.-How _____ people attended the class?

a)much

b)many

c) a lot of

15.-How _____ time do we have left?

a)many

b)long

c)much

16.-Her birthday is tomorrow _____ is the next Friday

a)my

b)they

c)mine

17.-This car is _____, they can drive it home now

a)theirs

b)her

a)your

18.-He is very strong, he _____ lift 150 kilos

a)cans

b)can

c)is

19.-Maria is _____ than her sister

a)more intelligent

b) intelligenter

c)most intelligent

20.-Who is _____ boxer in the world?

a)The more famous

b)The most

c)The most famous

21.-John is 32 years old, Mathew is 42 years old, who is _____?

a)the older

b)oldest

c)older

22.-Who is the _____ girl in your group?

a)prettiest

b) more beautiful

c)pretty

APPENDIX IV Rubrics

Rubric for assessment of the activities:

Performance Item	Excellent (5)	Good (4)	Fair Fair(5)	Poor	none
Use of simple present	The S uses correctly the elements of simple present	The S uses parts of the elements of the simple present	The S uses only some of the elements of simple present	The S uses only a fewof the elements of the simple present	The student does not use the elements of the simple present
pronunciation	The S shows a correct pronunciation of most of the words and also shows s search work of those unknown words	The S shows a correct pronunciation of most of the words but shows a poor search work of those unknown	The S shows a fair pronunciation of some words but does not show a search work of those unknown words	The S shows a poor pronunciation of most of the words and also shows none research work of those unknown words	The S does not shows a correct pronunciation of most of the words and none research work of those unknown words
Prior grammar	The S shows a high	The S Shows a good	The S shows a fair	The S shows a poor	The S shows none

	competence of the grammar rules including the verb To Be possessives and superlatives	competence of grammar rules including a verb be, possessives and superlatives.	competence of the grammar rules and makes mistakes when using B, possessives and superlatives	competence of the grammar rules and makes mistakes when using B, possessives and superlatives	competence of the grammar rules and makes mistakes when using B, possessives and superlatives
Vocabulary	The S shows a high competence when selecting prior learnt vocabulary altogether mew vocabulary sets	The S shows a good competence when selecting prior learnt vocabulary altogether mew vocabulary sets	The S shows a fair competence when selecting prior learnt vocabulary altogether mew vocabulary sets	The S shows a poor competence when selecting prior learnt vocabulary altogether mew vocabulary was included	The S shows a none competence when selecting prior learnt vocabulary altogether mew vocabulary sets
The dead line	The S pesented the assignment on time and before the deadline established	The S pesented the assignment some minutes after deadline established	The S pesented the assignment some hours after deadline established	The S pesented the assignment a day after deadline established	The S pesented the assignment some days after deadline established
Final grade					