

UNIVERSITY OF EL SALVADOR
SCHOOL OF SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

"HOW TO TEACH BASIC ENGLISH USING GENERATIVENESS,
TRANSFORMATION, AND SENTENCE-SLOT QUESTIONING"

UNDERGRADUATE THESIS PRESENTED IN ORDER
TO OBTAIN THE DEGREE OF BACHELOR
OF ARTS IN ENGLISH

by

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EL SALVADOR,

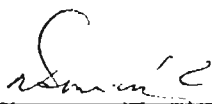
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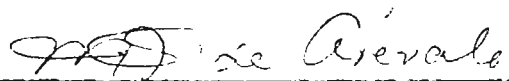



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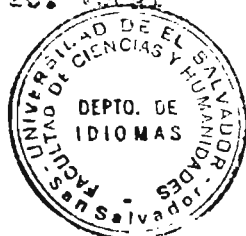
En el salón de sesiones del Departamento de Idiomas, a las diez horas del día miércoles catorce de marzo de mil novecientos -- ochenta y cuatro, reunidos los miembros del Tribunal Examinador del Trabajo de Graduación "COMO ENSEÑAR INGLÉS BASICO USANDO GENERATIVIDAD, TRANSFORMACION E INTERROGACION, COMPLETANDO Y SUSTITUYENDO LOS ELEMENTOS DE LAS ORACIONES", (HOW TO TEACH BASIC ENGLISH USING GENERATIVENESS, TRANSFORMATION AND COMPLET-ION-QUESTIONING) presentado por el estudiante RAMON JUSTINO MURIEL SICHENZA, acordaron por unanimidad: APROBAR el trabajo escrito antes mencionado y señalar el día veintitrés de marzo del corriente a las once horas para la defensa oral.

Y no habiendo más que hacer constar firmados la presente a los -- dieciséis días del mes de marzo de mil novecientos ochenta y -- cuatro.


 Lic. Alvaro A. Eusebio Lordero
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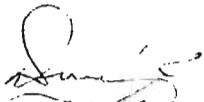


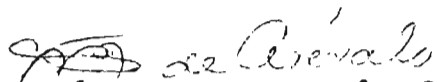
ACTA No.2


En el Salón de Sesiones del Departamento de Idiomas, a las once horas del día veintitrés de marzo de mil novecientos ochenta y cuatro, reunidos los miembros del Tribunal Examinador del Trabajo de Graduación "COMO ENSEÑAR INGLES BASICO USANDO GENERATIVIDAD, TRANSFORMACION E INTERROGACION, COMPLETANDO Y SUSTITUYENDO LOS ELEMENTOS DE LAS ORACIONES" (HOW TO TEACH BASIC ENGLISH USING GENERATIVENESS, TRANSFORMATION AND SENTENCE-SLOT QUESTIONING), presentado por el estudiante RAMON ARISTIDES TURISH SIGUENZA.

Cada miembro del jurado preguntó al examinado acerca del contenido del trabajo antes mencionado, el examen se realizó en Inglés. El estudiante respondió satisfactoriamente a todas las preguntas que se le hicieron. Por lo que nuestro fallo es que la defensa oral realizada por el estudiante TURISH SIGUENZA queda aprobada.

Y no habiendo más que hacer constar, firmamos la presente a los veintisiete días del mes de marzo de mil novecientos ochenta y cuatro.


Lic. Alvaro Alfredo Suncin C.
Presidente


Lic. María Teresa D. de Azevalos
1er. Vocal


Lic. Francisco E. Cañas
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With special dedication to:

God, for His guidance;

My family: Zoila, Jaime, Oscar, and

Ana Ruth, for their encouragement;

My friends and prospective users of this work.

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GLOSSARY

Behavior: anything that an organism does involving action and response to stimulation.

Competence: the ability of native speakers to create and understand grammatical sentences, to detect deviant and ungrammatical sentences, and to make other linguistic judgments about utterances in their language.

English as a Foreign Language: English learned expositively and informatively with emphasis on reading.

English as a Second Language: English learned to become a means of instruction by seeking the four skills of language in the order of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing.

Generativeness: language recursiveness based on generative grammar by which many other sentences can be produced by substitution in the slots of a basic pattern.

Internal structure: the abstract structure postulated as underlying a sentence, containing all the information necessary for both the syntactic and semantic interpretation of the sentence.

Kernel sentence: a term used by generative-transformational grammar to describe active, positive, and declarative sentences from which passive, negative, imperative and other sentences can be derived.

Performance: the actual utterances produced by speakers of a language.

Recursiveness: language property of being infinitely expandable.

Sentence pattern: a pattern that may be used to characterize the structures of sentences.

Sentence slot: a place or position in the organization of a sentence.

Syntax: the arrangements and interrelationships of words and phrases, clauses, and sentences.

Technique: a method of accomplishing a desired aim.

Transformation: a rule for changing one grammatical structure into another by adding, deleting, or rearranging constituents.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Educational Reform in El Salvador, from 1962 to the present, states that "the reason to include the teaching of English in the curriculum of the country from the seventh to the twelfth grades, is to produce a type of citizen with an open mind toward the flow of culture through the Centralamerican isthmus and the American Continent. English is the foreign language most commonly spoken in the Continent; therefore, that is the one the future citizen must understand, speak, read, and write." Even so it is a known problematic fact that the majority of students who complete their studies of secondary school, in spite of having studied English for six years, do not know enough of it to hold an intelligent conversation of one or two minutes. This fact is evidenced by the many students who begin studies in the Department of Foreign Languages at the University of El Salvador.

This problem originates chiefly from the inadequacy of the methods used to teach the language in most of the schools. This reason makes the study of new methodological alternatives necessary, in search of a solution to cope with the problem.

The purpose of this work is to introduce a three-fold English-teaching procedure based on generative-transformational grammar and sentence-slot questioning, which may contribute to improve the English-teaching methodology in El Salvador. The proposal is especially designed for the basic-English teachers who should consider teaching not only the use, but also the usage of the language for communicating with every

¹La Reforma Educativa, Documento 3. El Salvador: Dirección de Cultura del Ministerio de Educación, 1971, p. 16.

grammatical content of the syllabus. This would, therefore, make them emphasize on the keenness of the practice of receptive skills first, and then on accuracy and fluency in the productive ones. Its main suggestion is to get students to speaking through constant imitation and repetition of dialogue-centered-basic sentences. It permits students to see, understand, and use the system of English in its generation and transformation properties, together with information questions, to produce and to promote that language.

In this work, the guiding hypothesis that has led the investigation can be exposed as follows: The inadequate teaching of the English language in El Salvador at the basic level is significantly evidenced by the diversity of the methods used to teach it, and above all, by the insufficient knowledge of advanced techniques to carry out the task.

Seeking to have a better empiric base and objective criteria about the type of techniques used to teach English, a survey was passed among the teachers of the subject in the schools of San Salvador and nearby towns. It contained questions about the name of the method used, type of approach, type of teaching strategies, learning activities, and awareness of the generative-transformational method. (See questionnaire in Chapter IV). The metropolitan area of San Salvador was considered highly representative in terms of the teaching of English because it has nationally: 40% of the urban population and 45% of the basic-school population. It also presents lesser index of desertion, access for better educational technology, and more teachers dedicated in general to the teaching of English in the many public and private schools.

Even though the survey is in itself qualitative, due to practical reasons and to the nature of the investigation sought, its results are quite revealing. These results are

unmistacable indicator of excessive methodological divergence in the surveyed area, and, to some degree, of the bookishly-memoristic orientation of the procedures; even more, of the subjectivity of the instructors.

It must be taken under account that this type of survey does not intend to measure or to establish the qualitative dimensions of concrete facts, because that is not accomplishable in the educational field. It intends to detect either positive or negative trends in this important problematic area where quality and quantity interact and must be determined.

It is worth indicating that the Generative-Transformational (G-T) method, as any other method, presents its intrinsic advantages. In order to make better use of it, it becomes necessary to know its theoretical bases, its philosophy, and the conditions under which it may be of better application to our problematic reality, hence the importance of the survey and the author's personal direct observation of other teachers.

Common sense indicates that in the field of teaching in general, and the teaching of English in particular, there are no "last-word ways". Therefore, it is convenient to examine new methodological trends applicable to our educational environment.

In spite of the hope, effort, and dedication of the author to make a better contribution to the teaching of English in El Salvador, the following limitations made it difficult: 1) The lack of experience in writing this type of work. There was no previous preparation for it. 2) The unavailability of advisors at the time of beginning to write the work. 3) The scarcity of books on generative-transformational grammar. The few-ones on hand did not

focus on English-teaching application. 4) The unwillingness of some teachers to answer the questionnaire on English methodology to detect the status of such at the present time. 5) The impossibility to consult previous works in the field.

Nonetheless, the effort is worthwhile, since the work may be useful for the language students at the Universities in El Salvador, and for the teachers of English who need this type of information in order to get better results in the classrooms.

The supporting data used in the development of this work are from the scarce bibliographical information that was considered relevant to it and the questionnaire on English teaching-methodology passed onto educators in the subject matter in San Salvador and nearby towns. The answers were analyzed in terms of the knowledge about methodology shown by the teachers. Also, teachers of English in public schools, as well as university professors were interviewed and consulted about the methodology of English in El Salvador. Other sources of information used here are from notes taken in class at the University of El Salvador and from the modest personal experience of the author.

This work contains six chapters. The first chapter makes an exposition of the problem focused and the hypothesis of work. The second chapter presents an abbreviation of what has been said by authorities in the field concerning the theory of the G-T approach to grammar, language, and related topics. The third chapter explains the conditions under which the proposal could yield better results.

The fourth chapter contains examples of the teaching application of the G-T method: generation of sentences, transformation of sentences, and sentence-slot questioning.

The fifth chapter deals with the survey, its tabulation, analysis of the results, and the empirical evidence around the hypothesis of work. The sixth chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the work.

The author hopes that this work may (1) be instructional for the teachers of English who need methodological help, (2) enable the new teachers to understand and use a three-fold-integrated procedure, so that it will bear some fruit in the learners, and (3) stimulate the new teachers' desire to go on reading in the field to satisfy their curiosity and to prepare themselves to do a better job as English teachers.

It would have been ideal to include a survey of other methods to teach English in this work, in order to be more enlightening in the field. To expose, for instance, the theory, application, and results of the Grammar-Translation, Direct, Audio-Lingual, and Structural methods, because they all present useful and applicable procedures, depending on the aims of the teaching of languages. However, such possibility remains open for those who care and may want to make a contribution to the language teaching methodology in El Salvador.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAME OF THE GENERATIVE-TRANSFORMATIONAL APPROACH TO GRAMMAR

Generative-transformational grammar has been revised and recast almost continually since its initial statement in Noam Chomsky's syntactic theory in 1957. The theory has been tested against the structural method and then reexamined until getting a set off that, from 1962 to the present, has affected English grammar and school textbooks in the United States. Even though the last word about the theory has not been said, it is pedagogically convenient to study it.

A handsome résumé of this theory presented by Jeanne H. Herndon (1976), that is even more summarized for the purpose of this work, says that ". . . Noam Chomsky was challenged by the proposal of Zellig Harris, a structuralist who hoped that linguistic research could go a step beyond classification and description to arrive at some far-reaching theory about the distributional regularities and logic of languages.

A. Origin

In 1957 Chomsky published Syntactic Structures, in which he discussed critically several possible methods of theorizing about the syntactic regularities of the English language, and suggested the one he felt most likely to meet requirements of simplicity and precision while at the same time dealing with the staggering complexity and creativity of the language. Briefly, the preferred theory involved various formulas or rules for describing simple declarative English sentences and demonstrating relationships between the parts of the sentences. A second set of formulas or

rules were required for transforming these into other type of sentences and structures. The theory was later reorganized to include a semantic component.

A major objective of the theory is to set up a system of rules that generate abstract sentence patterns, reason for which the theory is sometimes called generative grammar. The heart of the theory is in the transformational rules that account for and describe the relationships among the different types of patterns. This makes some followers call the theory transformational grammar. Generally, the theory has taken the name of generative-transformational grammar.

The system assumes that there are certain logical relationships among sentences such as:

Michael painted the portrait.
 Michael didn't paint the portrait.
 Did Michael paint the portrait?
 What did Michael paint?
 The portrait was painted by Michael.

Each of these sentences has a different appearance and in surface structure they are different sentences; but, given the phrase structure and transformational rules of G-T grammar, their underlying similarities can be demonstrated effectively. The difference in the appearance of the sentences 'Michael painted the portrait' and 'The portrait was painted by Michael' are said to be differences of surface structure only. The meanings and relationships between the parts of these two sentences are the same. The underlying meanings are said to represent the deep structure of the two sentences.

Without even having seen a G-T formula, a native speaker

of English would immediately know that both sentences are, in some way, talking about the same thing. Somewhere in his mental apparatus is stored a knowledge of the grammar of his language, the rules of putting English sounds and words together in meaningful combinations. This same intuitive knowledge enables him to determine immediately whether a string of sounds or symbols constitute an English sentence or not. He knows that 'Michael did not paint the portrait' is a sentence in English, and that 'portrait Michael paint not the did' is not an English sentence.

The native speaker's knowledge of how the language works, -whether he can explain how it works or not, is called his linguistic competence. The native speaker's production of English sentences may falter occasionally if he is rushed or excited or tired; he may absent-mindedly produce a sentence that will cause confusion in the mind of another native speaker, but the fact that his performance may have its flaws does not mean that a basic competence is not present.

Once the generative-transformationalists began to include semantic features and definitions in their descriptions of grammar, several of their peers -notably George Lakoff, James McCawley, and Paul Postal- decided to believe that semantic considerations, rather than syntactic ones, were the most fundamental facts of human language. The movement has gained a number of titles such as neo-transformationalist and generative semantics.

In spite of the consideration of the approach as revolutionary, generative-transformational grammar is similar to traditional and structural methods to grammatical analysis in some ways. It reverts to the traditional position that mental process is the legitimate concern of the language scholar, and it seeks to describe the intuitive

grammatical knowledge of native speakers of a language. At the same time, it builds on the vast amount of research done by structuralists, and its criteria for grammaticality are based on evidence as to how the language is actually used, instead of prescribing rules for correctness based on the supposedly superior grammatical system or logic of some other language.

The scholarly conflict between the structuralists and the transformationalists, and more recently, between the transformationalists and the new generative-semantics group, has served as a spur to all linguists. The field of language study is in the midst of a most vigorous and challenging era . . ."¹

Basic to the G-T approach to grammar are the distinctions between competence and performance and between deep structure and surface structure. Such terms and their distinctions can be explained as follows:

One of the definitions of competence says that "it is the ability of native speakers to produce and understand grammatical sentences."² This definition points out three aspects: nativeness, language, and grammaticality. Being so, it is assumed that humans acquire performance from their childhood, progressively and subconsciously. From the first times they are exposed to human language, this is continuously internalized until some surprising degree of built-in grammar is gained. Therefore native speakers

¹Jeanne H. Herndon, A Survey of Modern Grammars, Sec. Ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976, pp. 22-23.

²Wardhaugh, Ronald, Introduction to Linguistics. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1972, p. 12.

differentiate easily between grammatical and ungrammatical sentences. That ability is gradually stored in their minds by some neurological process that no one can, at the present, explain.

Another definition of linguistic competence refers to it as "the ability of speakers of a language to make creative arrangements of language segments."¹

Interestingly enough, humans do organize language in unsuspected forms to convey ideas about real or unreal situations.

Different from competence, performance is referred to as the actual production of language. This ability is physical and manipulated through the phonatory apparatus. It may be clear or blurred, depending on the circumstances of the individual at the time of speaking. It is variable from one person to another, and from one dialectal region to another.

The distinction between these two terms is that competence is mental, whereas performance is physical; what is thought by way of competence, is spoken by way of performance.

"The competence-performance distinction is closely related to that between form and substance. The formal system we describe should account for a native speaker's knowledge of his language. However, this knowledge allows him to understand and produce utterances which he may never find the opportunity either to understand or to produce. For example, the reader will have understood the previous sentence, will understand this one, and will understand the next one, but each of these sentences is unique in his experience. This ability the reader has to

¹Herndon, A Survey of Modern Grammars,

understand novel sentences derives from his competence in English. This same competence that causes him to reject *the ate goldfish John as a possible English sentence, tells him that Time flies is ambiguous, and indicates to him that the speaker got sidetracked in the middle of such a sentence as *I was going along the street and met, well, no it was raining at the time and as I said to Peter before leaving . . . Linguistic performance is full of utterances like this last one, as close listening to almost any conversation will reveal. Many linguists consider that the correct approach is not to describe such utterances, but to describe the underlying system, or competence, which leads a speaker-listener to produce and understand them."¹

Deep structure and surface structure share the characteristics of competence and performance in terms of abstractness and concreteness, except for one significant difference: competence/performance relates to language; deep/surface structure relates to sentences.

Deep structure of a sentence can be said to be the necessary underlying information for such sentence within a human being before it becomes language; it is not tangible. The individual "feels" or perceives the idea of a subject doing something to an object under certain circumstances, but it remains a thought; such thought is deep structure.

Surface structure is audible language, the form it takes as it comes out of the mouth. The process between deep structure and surface structure is considered as the first transformation that sentences undergo, thought "transformed" into oral sentences regulated by language rules.

An interpretation of the deep-surface structure relationships, as viewed by George Lakoff (1967) and discussed by Zavala, says:

¹Wardhaugh, page 12.

". . . The sentences orally manifested are cycles of language conditioned by a pre-cycle within the individual speaker. The precycle-cycle relationship uses meanings previously established by the speaker's linguistic competence, which has assigned names to the empiric phenomena around the individual. These names operate in close connection with the rules of the language, about, say: consonants and vowels, acting subjects, actions, receivers of the actions, in certain manner, place, and time, among the mere general."¹ In other words, the individual brings the deep structure to surface structure by means of known terms.

Once language reaches surface structure, it becomes "a public matter", so to speak. The outer part of language and other related topics have been widely discussed by grammarians who follow other theories, as well as by transformationalists.

Their ideas seem to have merging viewpoints that are included here because of their relevance to the theoretical frame in favor of the proposal in this work.

B. Language and Related Topics

1. Language is natural communication among speakers of one same linguistic heritage who use an association of sound and meaning. There are, of course, other means of communication: hand signals, shrugs, nods, marks on paper, electrical dots and dashes, . . . but these do not involve the human vocal sounds. The sounds and the patterns formed with them are the raw materials of language.

¹Victor Sánchez de Zavala, Semántica y Sintaxis en la Lingüística Transformatoria. Madrid, 1974, pp. 52-132.

Each language community uses a set of conventional methods for stringing together its sounds so that when one member of the group speaks, another is expected to understand what is said.

No one knows what is in the mind of a man that enables him to organize his thought into communicable form. The fact is that he does. The organization is done in ways that are so highly complex that this ability alone puts mankind apart from other life forms.

When one human being communicates with another by means of spoken language, several distinct events occur almost simultaneously: 1. whatever stimulates an idea in the mind of the speaker, 2. the formulation of language segments by the speaker, 3. the physical act of speaking, 4. the sound waves in the atmosphere, 5. the physical process of hearing, 6. the mental sorting of the language segments by the hearer, and 7. the understanding of the idea by the hearer.

The sequential order of the communication is compacted into two terms in the light of G-T grammar: encoding and decoding. Encoding is translating thought into oral signs. This phenomenon begins by the occurrence of a need within the speaker. The need is classified, turned into an oral message, and sent to a listener for decoding. The listener perceives, analyzes, classifies the message, and gives it a response. He decodes it.

2. Human Speech

Humans speak and hear others speak in free, effortless, exchange of ideas, but pay no attention to speech. Their attention centers around what is said and how it is said. A close look at speech will make us realize that humans speak because they possess a phonatory apparatus.

The phonatory apparatus uses air to make speech audible. The air is taken by the nose (or the mouth at times) and stored in the lungs momentarily. From here, the air is modulated, as it comes out, by the speech organs: the vocal cords, uvula, tongue, teeth, lips and the nose, all such organs working in turns or by teams to produce human speech.

Speech is different from language for language involves thinking and speech is a physical act. Some experimentation with parrots and other birds of this type has proved that they are able to produce conditioned, limited speech in a repeated way. It also shows that even though such birds can utter a little bit of speech, they cannot make creative arrangements of lexical units. This fact indicates that language is a man's ability only, whereas speech (sounds) can be common to man and some birds.

3. Language Acquisition

In discussing language acquisition, two aspects must be considered: the social and the biological.

Socially speaking, humans acquire language in the early childhood by imitating the linguistic habits of their elders. These habits are gradually taken and used to communicate with others; however, it is hard, if not impossible to explain when language begins for humans, whether they know that they are learning language, and when this learning stops.

No one begins his native language in a classroom. Each human begins to learn it the first time he hears the sound of a human voice. The learning is continuous in a subconscious way. Inexplicably, around the age of four, the human begins to communicate with others in a surprising way showing that he has learned the complex systems of his elders' language. Later on he generally begins school where the

reading and writing skills are taught systematically but his learning goes on until the final day of his life.

Biologically speaking, to explain how language sets within a human being is virtually impossible. Two theories among others that try to explain this phenomenon are the behaviorist and the rationalist. The behaviorist basically sustains that language is acquired by a continuous conditioning of acoustic stimuli and behavioral responses. When the child begins to play with his "built-in" phonatory apparatus, he produces combinations of sounds that "hit bits of meaning" as interpreted by his elders. He, then, is encouraged to produce more and more sounds and is rewarded for it. But the child is not talking yet; he is only playing. Once he begins to incorporate into human talk as a result of his physical and mental development, he is no longer rewarded for what he says; instead, he is corrected when he fails to apply the rules of the language. Through trial and error, the learning process continues until he can speak independently "as educated people do."

The rationalist theory explains that a human acquires language because he possesses a language acquisition device that enables him learn to communicate. There is a miraculous brain-centered gift within the individual that enables him to make associations of sounds with meanings. As the human hears other humans speak, he begins to store language knowledge in his mind. This knowledge is enriched as the reasoning grows until a whole competence is achieved.

Rational, as it is, this theory finds support in the fact that domestic animals do not learn to talk as humans do in spite of being exposed to language.

4. The Teaching-Learning of Another Language

Now-a-days, there is a defined difference between the

main approaches to language teaching, as pointed out by experts in the field of applied linguistics: the teaching of English as a second language and the teaching of English as a foreign language.

The teaching of English as a second language places a primary importance in the development of the audio-oral skills seeking communication in the new language. Secondary importance is given to reading and writing. Methodologists seem to agree about the idea that understanding and speaking lead to reading and writing, whereas reading and writing do not lead to speaking.

This approach imitates the process of native-language acquisition. A child learns to speak reflexively by hearing others speak and later on to read and write through systematic education.

The teaching of English as a Foreign Language focuses on reading and writing which makes the approach appropriate for students who seek to read, understand, and translate by studying the grammatical rules of the target language. It is evident that such type of approach is a scholarly task that requires a high degree of abstraction and memory.

". . . at the base of various approaches, we can distinguish two main streams of thought, each devolving an integrated system of techniques devolving from the fundamental premises: the formalists and the activists. The distinction is useful in the consideration of the rationale of various teaching methods.

Formalists emphasize the deductive form of teaching, moving from the statement of the rule to its application; activists advocate the apprehension of a generalization by the student himself after he has heard and used certain forms in a number of ways, a process of inductive learning.

Formalists with a commendable regard for thoroughness sometimes become too preoccupied with the 'pedantic' elaboration of fine details of grammar, whereas activists consistently urge a functional approach to structure whereby the student is first taught what is most useful and more generally applicable, being left for later stages the discovery of the rare and the exceptional as a result. Formalist teaching is often based on artificial exercises emphasizing the features of written language, whereas activist teaching seeks to familiarize the student first with the forms of language used for general communication in speech and in less formal writing, teaching the literary forms of the language at more advanced levels."¹

"In recent years linguistic studies have radically altered language teaching. The traditional methods of teaching a new language by studying printed words and the rules governing their arrangement has been largely replaced by the audio-lingual approach. Language is now considered as a set of speech habits and the 'rules of grammar' as a description of these habits. Thus, today, language is taught essentially as a tool of verbal communication.

As a teacher of English as a second language, you have an important and challenging task to perform . . . keep in mind that language habits, like any other habits, are acquired slowly and through constant repetition; great patience and considerable skill are demanded of the teacher of English. With these facts in mind, you, the teacher, can best help your students to master the communication habits of English by observing the following: (1) Speak English in the classroom, (2) let your students do most of

¹Wilga M. Rivers, Teaching Foreign Language Skills. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1968, p. 12.

the talking, (3) correct student errors by having students repeat the right form, (4) introduce one new structure at a time, (5) insist on plenty of repetition, (6) give plenty of substitution drills, (7) train your students to ask questions in English, (8) prepare for your classes, (9) treat your textbook as a tool, not as a tyrant, (10) be encouraging."¹

It is obvious that methodologists and linguists agree upon the ideas about the acquisition of another language. Their viewpoints center around the idea of the final aim that teachers and students seek in the teaching-learning process. Their viewpoints refer to classroom procedures. They omit from their scope the cases of people who migrate to countries where English is spoken as a mother tongue; places where the learning of English is a matter of survival and is carried out in direct exposure to everyday life.

C. The Generative-Transformational Basis for the Proposal

The techniques of the generative-transformational approach to second-language teaching as presented here are based on generative-transformational linguistics, even though its main proponent, Noam A. Chomsky, did not intend his viewpoint to be considered as a pedagogical grammar. "I leave that" he said, "to the methodologist."

This work intends to apply the rules stated by the generative-transformationalist, to be used in a practical way because of the high pedagogical potential that generative-transformational grammar presents, as interpreted by the author of this work.

The main task of teachers is to make students realize

¹Rivers, p. 27.

that language operates in a systematic way; that when they speak their native language, they produce sentences which conform with a system of inherent rules that describe or promote descriptions of situations of a subject doing something. That the sentences are produced by the speaker toward a listener, about somebody or something, and the words within the sentences are arranged in a logical way, not randomly. The order of the words in sentences takes the name of structures, to serve as the means through which ideas travel from speaker to listener. The structures, that go from simple to complex, are segments of language that can be studied and analyzed in terms of the elements that integrate them. In so doing, the structures present an internal composition of connected words that embody a sentence meaning, and an external circular arrangement that, keeping the basic meaning, gives the sentence other forms. These properties of structures are what Chomsky called generation and transformation. These properties make the study of structures possible.

It is also the teachers' task to (1) understand that sentences are made up by words; words are strings of morphemes; and morphemes are phonemes in a given combination, all such elements working together in a system to convey meaning. A sentence then is carried by way of a structure and the structure is the integration of all such language elements. All sentences are generated to embody one meaning; the representation of a positive idea. The sentences are transformed to the affirmative, interrogative, negative, interrogative-negative, present, past, future, singular, plural, etc. It is the verb phrase which is shifted, adverbialized, or modified by other verbs to produce transformations, (2) demonstrate to the students how language generation and transformation work through successive and progressive exercises carefully thought out, so that the students adjoin him in a methodic pursuit toward a defined

accessible goal, (3) develop exercises that are interesting to the students in terms of what is important and proper so that they may like what they do in the long process of learning a second language.

In this approach, generation is proposed first in consideration of the fact that every sentence structure leads to the making of many other sentences that use the same pattern, with small obligatory changes.

In the substitution treatment, the approach suggests using the structure to produce new sentences to serve many different purposes. This property of language can be used to have students manipulate and internalize structures of the target language through overt performance. When having this recourse in use the different substitutions should depend in all cases on what the students would have to say in everyday situations.

When a sentence is spoken, it reveals one meaning, the meaning intended by the speaker at the time of its utterance. Such meaning is used by the speaker in a smaller number of variations, depending on the speaker, type of interest, and situation. These variations are called transformations. (For structural exercises, see Bibliography Nos. (*1), (*2), (*3), (*4), (*5), (6*), (*7) and (*8).

As a sentence undergoes transformation, the idea stays the same, but its circular, relative meaning is interpreted as affirmative, negative, interrogative, interrogative-negative, past, conditional future, . . . which are the modalities that the speaker of English includes in his utterances. These modalities are taken up by this proposal to become a pedagogical tool for teachers and students.

D. The Three-fold Teaching Proposal

1. Generativeness: The didactic recourse to teach basic-

sentence production is called Generativeness in this work. It is the procedure to elicit innumerable new sentences with one grammatical pattern. Generativeness is based on the fact that native speakers of a language use fundamentally a limited number of patterns to express their thoughts in a variety of situations. "Language, because it is based on a system of rules, makes infinite use of finite means. To generate is to provide a rule of substitution for all possible instances with a particular structural pattern."¹

Didactically speaking, the basis on which the generative-oral approach rests is the idea of language as a patterned behavior: a skill that is acquired not so much by mental analysis, but by analogical habit formation. The application of this idea to second-language teaching should bring about satisfactory classroom procedures.

The way in which these patterns are presented, the order in which they are taught, and the amount of practice to master them are determined by the contrast that the English language presents in relation with Spanish. If second-language learning is the formation of a new set of habits, the habits of the mother tongue will interfere wherever the two languages differ. The goal of the generative-oral approach is to establish in the learner automatic control of the patterns of the second language, so that the newly acquired habits can exist side by side with the habits of the native tongue and without interference from them.

To implement this procedure, the teacher prepares the basic-sentence patterns to be taught and writes them in a lesson plan. He then has the students memorize the basic sentences. Next, he drills the student in variations of

¹Noam A. Chomsky, Aspects of the Theory of Syntax, Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press, 1965.

the patterns using substitution in every sentence slot, one at a time. In this process, various visual aids or prompted words can be used.

This procedure plays the key role in establishing automatic habits powerful enough to overcome interference from the students' native tongue.

This type of pattern practice supported by suitable materials can be an effective tool in the hands of the teacher. In each class session, the students are not only presented with a model to imitate, but are also required to produce many variations of a given pattern, either in chorus, or individually. Also, there is little chance of their persisting in an error, as their responses are constantly being reinforced by repetition of the correct sentences. Sentence-generation exercises properly conducted make the students be actively engaged in hearing and producing correct speech throughout entire class periods.

Sentence generation uses positive ideas embodied in Kernel sentences as raw material to be processed by way of slot substitution.

"Kernel sentences are simple basic statements integrated by two main parts: a noun phrase that functions as the subject, followed by a verb phrase that functions as the predicate. These sentences have the following characteristics:

- i. They have an invariable natural order: subject and predicate. (No one is inverted.)
- ii. They are declarative-affirmative. (Any negative statement is the transformation of one that is affirmative).
- iii. They are active. (Any passive sentence is the transformation of one that is active).
- iv. They all begin with the subject.

v. They all contain one predicate."¹

These sentences should appear first in the sequence of second-language teaching because they are the base for other techniques such as transformation and sentence-slot questioning. "These patterns (kernels) and processes are the subject matter of grammar as the linguist views it."²

a) Sentence Slots for Substitution

Substitution slots are segments within the structure of a sentence that facilitate the production of new sentences with the same grammatical pattern by replacing equivalent grammatical categories. The slots take the name of the grammatical item being substituted. Thus, they are called the subject slot, the verb slot, the direct-object slot, the indirect-object slot, the prepositional-phrase slot, etc.

Grammarians apparently do not agree upon the number of substitution slots within sentences; some believe they are four, some believe they are thirty-three, and some believe they are as many as the kinds of grammatical functions of the categories. Whichever they may be, they are the raw material for the substitution technique. The substitution-slot technique to approach basic-sentence formation presents the convenience of accounting for the characteristics of sentences such as word order, pronunciation, word forms, meaning, intonation, intention, and uniqueness.

2. Transformation. Transformation is the means by which a kernel sentence is rearranged in its word order to change

¹Roderick A. Jacobs and Peter Rosenbaum, English Transformational Grammar, New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc., 1966, p. 17.

²Joseph Aurbach, et al., Transformational Grammar: a Guide for Teachers, Washington, D.C.: English Language Services, 1977, p. 15.

it into other form, time, voice, number, and mood.

The first transformation of a sentence is its transition from internal meaning, a need inside the individual, to surface structure, the form of language toward a listener.

But sentences transformed into language are not always affirmative, as in the case of kernel sentences. The same sentences may become negative, interrogative, negative-interrogative, in the future, etc. that the verb-phrase system of English uses in surface structure.

"The term transformation refers to a rule that rearranges various elements in a sentence when that sentence is changed from its simple active form to a more complicated sentence -such as, say, one asking a question, giving a command, or containing one or more included clauses."¹

In spite of the language resourcefulness, some sentences are unacceptable because they are illogical. They may be grammatically correct, but carry a weird meaning. This is due to the fact that grammatical patterns either do not take certain lexical units or cannot be used in some transformations. Linking-verb sentences, for instance, cannot be transformed to the passive voice (the passive voice is used exclusively with verbs that take a direct object; no direct object, no passive voice.)

3. Sentence-Slot Questioning. Language is both informative and inquiring. Informative language uses statements, whereas inquiring language uses questions.

There are four types of interrogative sentences: 1) "yes/no" questions, 2) "or" (choice) questions, 3) state-

¹Wayne Harsh, "Three Approaches: Transformational Grammar, Descriptive Linguistics, Generative Grammar," English Teaching Forum, Special Issue, Washington, D.C., 1975, p. 7.

ments that become questions through question intonation, 4) information-seeking questions. The latter are the specific aim of this last part of the proposal.

Information questions are interrogative sentences that begin with words such as the interrogative pronouns who/whom, what, which, whose, and the interrogative adverbs when, where, why, how, and how many/much/often/good. Information questions are but interrogative transformations preceded by question words except for the one about the subject, which uses statements with who/what in the subject.

"In general, a wh word substitutes for a part in the structure of the kernel, and the word order is shifted."¹

Sentence-Slot Questioning is the pedagogical technique to teach how to ask questions about the different slots within statements in order to elicit specific answers to the question words. It is, in a way, the opposite of the widely used classroom procedure through which English students learn, defensively, to answer questions about a statement, a dialogue, or a reading. Sentence-Slot Questioning should promote the two-way language dexterities: how to get and how to give information. For it can be assumed that if a student can pose a question, he can very likely answer it, not only in the classroom, but also in real-life situations.

The proposal suggests two phases for this type technique: the first phase about one specific slot at a time and the second phase about all possible sentence slots.

The sentence slots should be underlined and numbered to facilitate their spotting to aim the questions.

¹Aurbach, Transformational Grammar: A Guide for Teachers, p. 83.

CHAPTER III

TYPE OF AGENTS AND CIRCUMSTANCES FOR A BETTER APPLICATION OF THE GENERATIVE-TRANSFORMATIONAL METHOD

The same as with any other teaching method, the G-T method requires certain type of agents and circumstances for better results from the teaching-learning process.

The agents and circumstances described in this chapter are ideally the best. Their conceptualization should merely indicate the way in which they are desirable in order to orient any attainable degree.

A. The Agents

1. The teacher plays the most important role in the process because he is the promoter of second-language learning. Ideally, he must possess a satisfactory competence and performance derived from his linguistic studies in order to be a dependable model to be imitated. His face-validity must be the closest possible to a native speaker's. He must sound and be right in matters such as pronunciation, stress, intonation, rhythm, and language use, on one side, and assimilation, contraction, reduction, and language usage on the other side. His face-validity should arouse student motivation and inspiration to learn English. Students must be driven to feel that "if the Salvadorean teacher learned English, so can they".

a. Characteristics of the Teacher of English As A Second Language -in General

Some basic requirements of the English teacher to successfully teach the subject are: a) command of the language, b) English teaching methodology, c) psychology applied to English teaching, and d) English testing.

a) He should have a solid command of the English language and of the culture in which it is spoken. His command of English should enable him to present the language as it is, in obedience of its rules and to answer the many and ubiquitous questions that the students have about the language. The knowledge of the culture in which the language is spoken should enable him to accompany his language presentation with the paralinguistic manifestations that are inherent in it, all of which make him a good linguistic model for the students.

b) His teaching methodology should make him proceed in accordance with teaching techniques that immerse students in learning activities. He should know that some grammatical contents of the syllabus demand different strategies for presentation. His methodology also should guide him to select adequate material to accompany his presentations and to be inviting and enthusiastic before the students. The teacher so prepared should plan and give classes in accordance with content, time, type of students, approach, and all the circumstances around the teaching-learning process.

c) His knowledge of psychology applied to the teaching of English should make him aware of the human nature of the students. This, as a matter of fact, makes him tactful and patient. The teacher's awareness of human nature makes him a friendly, reliable partner, "the big brother" who gives encouragement so that his students make the necessary extra effort to learn. Due account of individual differences makes the teacher a psychologist in the classroom.

d) The English teacher's knowledge of testing should tell him what, how, and when to test the students' achievement; that he must test only the contents covered during a certain period of time, and, that tests should go from easy to hard types of questions. Tests should be given at certain

intervals in order not to waste time by testing too continually. Furthermore, he should know that English tests reveal not only the students' achievement but also the teacher's performance in class.

In addition to the basic requirements just mentioned, the teacher should keep in mind that learning a second language is a tremendous task that requires determination and effort. Therefore, the students should be encouraged to learn and should be assisted during the learning period every time that they need help.

English pronunciation, for example, is difficult for Spanish speakers and requires a great deal of attention; some sounds of English do not exist in Spanish, and some Spanish sounds do not exist in English. The interference of the two phonologies result in a heavy foreign accent. Some time of some of the class periods should be dedicated to do pronunciation (minimal pair) exercises from the basic level (and on).

English orthography is also difficult for Spanish speakers. English phonology and orthography do not match. Some sporadic dictation of prepared exercises can help to overcome this problem from the beginning level.

These two last examples of language difficulties are indicative of the fact that English is sound and meaning and that both sides of it should be given attention from the very beginning.

Language is a system formed by its pronunciation, stress, intonation, pitch, rhythm, form, tense, mood, spelling . . . all acting together in unitarian messages called sentences that make up our oral and written composition. Every one of these elements of English come to the classroom with the teacher; they come in separate boxes of which only

he has the key.

Finally, in order to appropriately use this G-T and Sentence-Slot Questioning proposal, he should study its theory and its philosophy, its applicability and limitations, as conditioned by the Salvadorean environment. Adaptation and modification of the method will depend on the teacher and on the teaching situations.

2. The Student involved in the process of learning English as a second language through the G-T method does not need to possess a high degree of abstraction, but he does need enough motivation to the extent of being able to concentrate on the learning activities. The method demands that he listen to, repeat, do, and expand "creatively" the different oral-sentence models presented by the teacher during forty minutes of the class period and ten minutes to do imitative writing. His attitude and effort stimulated by the easiness of the method and by the instructor should make him want and like to learn English.

a) Characteristics of Successful Second-Language Learners -in General

Successful language learners are those who learn and master a second language with the idea of using it comfortably and effectively for whatever purpose or purposes they may have in mind. These purposes are varied: some learners are interested mainly in reading materials written in the second language; others may want only to understand the speech they hear in foreign language films or TV broadcasts; and still others are interested only in passing the obligatory courses of the second language included in the curriculum. For the most second language learners, however, the ability to speak the language fluently, and to understand it when spoken by

native speakers, is the kind of competence that is most valued and desired, with reading and writing being important secondary goals.

Even among those who attain fluency in speaking and understanding of a second language, there is no one type of successful language learner, nor is there any one way of achieving success. Some people seem to have a "gift" for language learning, and make rapid progress under almost any circumstances. Others seem to require much more time and exposure to the second language, and attain their goals only after long and patient effort. Some people can learn quite successfully in formal school environments, while others find that learning occurs best if they can place themselves in a family or a community where they must communicate in the second language in order to survive in everyday living.

Successful second language learning, then, depends on an elaborate interaction of the characteristics and motivations of the learner and the circumstances in which the learning takes place. It also depends on the particular strategies employed by the learner to achieve the desired degree of success. For it is through the adoption of appropriate learning sets and strategies that learners can often be successful even when the talents they bring to the task are only moderate, or indeed only minimal.

b) The "Ear for Language"

Talent in learning languages does play some part in achievement, and it has to be considered here, only to suggest how a learner can surmount the obstacles presented by limitations in talent.

Besides the basic amount of human intelligence that is required to learn almost anything, there are several kinds of abilities that are especially relevant to the learning of second languages by persons who are beyond the age of

primary language acquisition, and that constitute what is then called an "ear for languages."

One of these, which experts call phonetic coding ability, is the ability to listen to second language sounds or words, to identify them as distinctive, and then to store them in memory so that they can later be recalled accurately on an appropriate occasion. A person with a high degree of this ability finds it easy to imitate accurately a second language utterance of, for example, 10 to 15 syllables, even without knowing the language. But persons without high degrees of this ability can still be successful if they will direct their attention to hearing the particular sounds and learning about the speech movements necessary to produce them. Endowing these second-language sounds and words with any associations that can be practiced, and carefully practicing their pronunciation over a period of time and on different occasions, will eventually make them easily recalled and produced.

An ability that is useful to many learners is what experts call grammatical sensitivity. This is the ability to understand the grammatical functions of different kinds of language elements (words, particles, suffixes, etc.) and the rules governing their use.

Possession of this ability may depend somewhat on the amount of grammatical training the learner may have had in the native language. Persons with above average amounts of this ability, however it may have been acquired, are those who are likely to be successful in formal second language courses that emphasize grammatical analysis. Persons with limited sensitivity to grammar may be better off in courses that concentrate on exposing the learner to large amounts of the second language in actual use. Nevertheless, many of them will find it profitable to note carefully, and to try

to correct, the errors they make in producing second-language utterances. Others, as they use the language more and more, may find it more satisfactory simply to wait until a natural correction process takes over, somewhat the way children learn to speak their native language in increasing conformity with adult norms.

A third ability that is specially relevant to second language learning success is inductive reasoning ability, the ability to infer, from the way in which different words and grammatical constructions are used in the second language, the rules governing the use of those words and constructions. Persons with high degrees of this ability will almost automatically come to recognize the distinctions in meanings between closely related second-language words and the differences in meanings that are conveyed by closely similar grammatical constructions. Persons who have difficulty in recognizing these distinctions will need to have them pointed out by teachers.

c) Motivation

Psychologists have established that motivation is necessary for learning, particularly when one is learning a complex and difficult skill. Mastery of a second language is certainly that, at least for most people. Successful second-language learners are nearly always highly motivated to learn the language, and they persist in spite of the frustrations that almost inevitably accompany that learning. This means that they are able to tolerate and accept the difficulties and frustrations, particularly those encountered in the early stages when the second language may seem strange-sounding and irrational, and when they are almost totally unable to communicate in it because of their lack of mastery.

Contrary to some widely-circulated myths, the key to

success is to understand that second language learning is a rather difficult task, which demands much time, patience, and effort. It also requires a tolerance for ambiguity and for seeming irrationality. The successful language learner takes the attitude that the right and rational way of expressing ideas in the second language is the way of the native speakers of the language.

There is a subtle aspect of motivation which seems to be related to personality. The most successful language learners tend to be those who enthusiastically look forward to communicating with speakers of the second language and expect to like, or at least to find interest in, their ideas, experiences, attitudes, and customs. Open, outgoing, friendly people are more likely to have this kind of motivation than persons who have closed minds and rely only on their own ideas and ways of doing things.

d) Strategies for Second Language Learning

Successful second language learners are likely to be those who can adopt good strategies for coping with the difficulties of their task.

Strategy for learning is partly a matter of attitude. Successful learners of a second language are those who can recognize that the task requires effort. The difficulties occur more in the early stages of learning; after the initial difficulties are overcome, the learning process becomes easier and even enjoyable.

A most important strategy to adopt is that of always attempting to convert passive knowledge into active, productive knowledge. Passive knowledge might be, for example, recognizing the meaning of a second-language word or grammatical construction, while active knowledge would be the ability to recall the second language word, or to use the

grammatical structure in a new sentence. Repeated recall of active knowledge will cause that knowledge to become more accessible and automatic. The mistake that many unsuccessful learners make is to allow their knowledge and skill to remain passive. In a classroom situation, good learners will be trying to answer every question for themselves, even when not directly called upon by the teacher.

Another important strategy is to use constantly one's knowledge in a live communication situation, even if the situation is imaginary. Words and sentences heard from models or seen printed on a page, are tools for communication in the second language; one can anticipate their eventual use by pretending to be using them in an imagined situation.

Curiosity about the new language and active searching for opportunities to use it are characteristics of successful language learners. Making one's own lists of words and idioms, and notes about the grammar, are behaviors often observed in good second language learners. Good learners spend as much time as they can in second language activities outside class seeing films, reading books and magazines, and conversing with speakers of the language.

In active use of the language, whether in the classroom or outside it, good language learners are not afraid of making errors, and actively seek information on the correctness and appropriateness of their efforts in the second language. In fact, it is easily seen that successful language learners try to talk more, and actually make more errors as a consequence, than the less successful learners. Successful learners learn from their errors.

B. The Instruments

1. Characteristics of a Method Appropriate to the Teaching of English as a Second Language -in particular.

Searching for the ideal framework for teaching English

is somewhat like seeking the mythical pot of gold at the end of the rainbow. It is always elusive. But discouragement is not the hallmark of education; search must be continued. Educators have the serious responsibility to maintain open and receptive attitudes, to investigate new theories and to test new practices in the classrooms.

This classroom procedure based on G-T linguistics seeking to solve the problems that teaching English as a second language presents in El Salvador should be given a try. As it can be seen, it incorporates the good that the different methods used in the past have given to the present teaching methodology. The teaching approach takes some of the known methods such as the grammar-translation, the direct, the audiolingual, and, to a greater extent, from the structural. No method known today or to be known in the future can claim to be absolute and unique. As the teaching methods evolve, they carry what was good of other methods to be used in the present.

The personal viewpoints of the author of this work concerning the characteristics of a method to teach basic English are:

1. That the method teach how "to make infinite use of finite means"; that is, the recursive systems of English. Basically, the native uses a relatively small number of grammatical patterns to generate and transform sentences that express his particular needs at the time of speaking. Ideas are all positive; it is the aspect of internal meaning that makes him produce either positive sentences or their transformations. Therefore, the method should teach how to generate sentences first, and then how to transform the generated sentences.

2. That the method use second-stage symbology. People speak about objects with a shape and ideas with a definite

concept in a real world where there is a place for everything with a defined shape (first-stage symbology). The illustrations used by the method should evoke first symbology instead of leading to literal material, or third type of symbols.

3. That the method present vocabulary in sentence context. The native speaker communicates with compact units of thought.

4. That the method introduce the second language by imitating native-language acquisition. The skills should be presented in the order of listening, speaking, reading and writing, systematically.

5. That the method permit students to make their own deductions of grammatical rules. Inductive teaching promotes student generalizations about the English language. This is applicable to sounds, forms, and word order in sentences. At times deductive teaching can take place in the classroom, but this becomes more useful after the students have an insight of the language systems.

6. That the method promote creative thinking in English. Student repetition of compact units of thought should lead to individual thinking by using the structures proposed for a certain period of learning.

7. That the method permit brief grammatical explanations in the mother tongue. Upon student requests, the teacher should be allowed to give small explanations about the grammatical systematization of English in order not to appear "pedantic" when the students seek his help.

8. That the method base its teaching in a reality that is familiar to the students. Most textbooks use cultural references that are out of the scope of the students. This adds to the hardships of learning the basic systems of

English and disturbs the immediate purpose. Peoples' names, geographical identity, economic and other cultural systems used abroad can and should be left to the students future opportunities. What counts the most is the language systems.

9. That the method be good for the majority, if not for all, first-language speakers. Speakers of a first language who seek to learn a second language can produce speech sounds in combination to communicate. This fact proves that their phonatory apparatuses can be trained to produce the speech sounds of the target language in order to communicate. If the method does not demand a high degree of abstraction but shows the resources that native speakers use systematically, the majority of students should be able to learn to use such resources, except for those who "do not have an ear for a second language. "

10. That the method be easily implemented by the language instructor. In spite of the fact that some methods work better for some teachers, the techniques of the method should facilitate teaching and consequently learning. The method should be a handy instrument for teachers and students in general.

A comparative chart of the features of the general methods used to teach English (designed in accordance to Wilga Mr. Rivers' s Teaching Foreign Language Skills-1972, and the features of the G-T method, will show the convenience of using the latter to solve significantly the problem exposed in the leading hypothesis of this work.

COMPARATIVE CHART OF GENERAL METHODS TO TEACH ENGLISH

Name	Stud. Type	skills sought	struct. control	No. of stud. in cl.	stud. part.	stud. creat.
Grammar-Translation	Intl.	R-W	0	1-100	low	0
Direct	Intel.	L-Sp	0	1-8	low	low
Audio-Lingual	all	*1 L-Sp. R-W	High	1-15	High	low
Structural	all	L-Sp R-W	very high	1-15	very high	low
G-T	all	L-Sp R-W	very high	1-25	very high	very high

*1 R= reading, W= writing
L= listening, SP= speaking

Even though the chart is self evident, it is worth pointing out that the method that embraces features of the other methods is the Generative-Transformational and not the other way around. But the feature that makes it preferable is the degree of creativity that it yields. Also, the number of students in class that it permits can be stretched from twenty-five to forty, about the number of students in class that the Salvadorean reality imposes.

2. The Classroom for ESL learning should present at least these basic facilities: (1) enough space to sit up to twenty-five students in one circle or two semicircles, so that the students can see each other without strain during the oral-learning activities. Swiveling desks, if possible, could also be used for rooms too small for a classroom ar-

rangement. (2) to be situated away from other-type classrooms in order to avoid by-passers and side conversations in the mother tongue. Sound-proofness, if possible, could help in this respect, provided that an adequate ventilation and lighting be accounted for. (3) the provision of outlets to facilitate the plugging in of electrical tape-recorders for the students to listen to other voices through an improvised language lab. (4) clean walls to place visual aids so that the systematic teaching may be supplemented with reflexive learning.

3. The Number of Hours for English should be scheduled at a rate of five per week, at least. The task of learning a second language requires a great deal of time. If the number of hours is reduced to less than five a week, the learning fades from one week to the next and, consequently, from one year to the following.

4. Language Laboratories where students can have additional audio-oral practice should be available. This instrument would provide the means for faster progress in the acquisition of English, especially in a country as ours where real practice of the language is scarce.

CHAPTER IV

EXAMPLES OF PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF THE METHOD

This chapter will present practical examples for the teaching of generativeness, transformation, and sentence-slot questioning, designed by the author, in order to facilitate understanding of the techniques.

The examples will be aimed at two levels of learning: the level of manipulation of language elements which occur in fixed relationships with slight variations, and the level of expression of personal meaning, at which possible variations are unlimited.

A. Teaching Sentence Generation

Be the basic sentences (A) $\frac{I}{1} \frac{AM}{2} \frac{HUNGRY}{2}$ and (B) $\frac{MARY}{1}$

$\frac{BUYS}{2} \frac{ORANGES}{2} \frac{EVERY DAY.}{4}$

The generative possibilities, given the substitution in the underlined slots of sentence A, we can arrive at the formulation of new sentences:

SENTENCE A:	<u>I</u>	<u>am</u>	<u>hungry</u>	<u>I</u>	<u>am</u>	<u>hungry</u>	
	1			1	2		
	you	are	"	(you)	are	(")	
	he	is	"	(he)	is	(")	
	she	is	"	(She)	is	(")	
	it	is	"	(it)	is	(")	
	we	are	"	(we)	are	(")	
	you	are	"	(you)	are	(")	
	they	are	"	(they)	are	(")	
	the boys	are	"	(the boys)	are	(")	pl.
	Joe	is	"	Joe)	is	(")	
	the girls	are	"	(the girls)	are	(")	
	↓			↓			
	unlimited			unlimited			

I am hungry
 (I am) thirsty
 (" ") hot
 (" ") sick
 (" ") tall
 (" ") short
 (" ") happy
 (" ") angry
 (" ") thin
 (" ") busy

↓
 unlimited

Sentence B.	<u>Mary</u>	<u>buys</u>	<u>oranges</u>	<u>every day.</u>
	1			
	Betty	"	"	"
	Joe	"	"	"
	I	"	"	"
	you	"	"	"
	we	"	"	"
	he	buys	"	"
	she	"	"	"
	they	buy	"	"
	the boys	"	"	"
	the girls	"	"	"

↓
 unlimited

Mary buys oranges every day.

2

sees
 wants
 needs
 uses
 has
 picks
 eats
 brings
borrow
 ↓
 unlimited

<u>Mary</u>	<u>buys</u>	<u>oranges</u>	<u>every day</u> .
		3	
		bananas	
		apples	
		peaches	
		limes	
		guavas	
		coconuts	
		snonas	
		nisperos	
		mangoes	
		jicamas	
		↓	
		unlimited	

<u>Mary</u>	<u>buys</u>	<u>oranges</u>	<u>every</u>	<u>day</u> .
			4	
			week	
			month	
			hour	
			morning	
			night	
			Saturday	
			Sunday	
			Monday	
			Tuesday	
			↓	
			unlimited	

The teacher must be careful to cover all the possible substitution slots and to make the necessary corrections by reinforcing the correct responses when slight variations in the fixed relationships may be obligatory. He must also be careful to substitute all possible lexical units. In the case of sentence A, the complement of Be should include noun complements and adverb complements, in addition to adjective complements.

This type of technique requires tactful planning beforehand. The lesson plan or delimitation of class activities

should frame kernel sentences in the context of a dialogue or a short reading.

B. Teaching transformation

Transformation exercises are developed by two blocks of sentences: the stimulus block for the teacher and the response block for the students.

1. Affirmative to negative (and viceversa)

	<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Response</u>
a)	I am hungry	I am not hungry
	I am thirsty	I am not thirsty
	I am cold	I am not cold
	I am hot	I am not hot
	I am sick	I am not sick
	I am tall	I am not tall
	I am short	I am not short
	I am happy	I am not happy
	I am angry	I am not angry
	I am thin	I am not thin
	I am busy	I am not busy
	↓	↓
	unlimited	unlimited

	<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Response</u>
b)	Mary buys oranges	Mary does not buy oranges
	Mary buys bananas	Mary does not buy bananas
	Mary buys apples	Mary does not buy apples
	Mary buys peaches	Mary does not buy peaches
	Mary buys limes	Mary does not buy limes
	Mary buys guavas	Mary does not buy guavas
	Mary buys coconuts	Mary does not buy coconuts
	Mary buys anonas	Mary does not buy anonas
	Mary buys nisperos	Mary does not buy nisperos
	Mary buys mangoes	Mary does not buy mangoes
	↓	↓
	unlimited	unlimited

2. Affirmative to interrogative (and viceversa)

	<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Response</u>
a)	I am hungry	Am I hungry?
	I am busy	Am I busy?
	↓	↓
	unlimited	unlimited

	<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Response</u>
b)	Mary buys oranges	Does Mary buy oranges?
	Mary buys mangoes	Does Mary buy mangoes?
	↓	↓
	unlimited	unlimited

3. Negative to Interrogative (and viceversa)

	<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Response</u>
a)	I am not hungry	Am I hungry?
	I am not busy	Am I busy?
	↓	↓
	unlimited	unlimited

	<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Response</u>
b)	Mary does not buy oranges	Does Mary buy oranges?
	Mary does not buy mangoes	Does Mary buy mangoes?
	↓	↓
	unlimited	unlimited

4. Negative to Interrogative-Negative (and viceversa)

	<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Response</u>
a)	I am not hungry	Am I not hungry?
	I am not busy	Am I not busy?
	↓	↓
	unlimited	unlimited

StimulusResponse

- b) Mary does not buy oranges
 Mary does not buy mangoes
 ───────────
 ↓
 unlimited
- Doesn't Mary buy oranges?
 Doesn't Mary buy mangoes?
 ───────────
 ↓
 unlimited

5. Singular to Plural (and viceversa)

StimulusResponse

- a) I am hungry
 I am busy
 ───────────
 ↓
 unlimited
- We are hungry
 We are busy
 ───────────
 ↓
 unlimited

- b) Stimulus
- Mary buys oranges
 Mary buys mangoes
 ───────────
 ↓
 unlimited
- Response
- They buy oranges
 They buy mangoes
 ───────────
 ↓
 unlimited

6. Present to Past (and viceversa)

StimulusResponse

- a) I am hungry today
 I am busy today
 ───────────
 ↓
 unlimited
- I was hungry yesterday
 I was busy yesterday
 ───────────
 ↓
 unlimited
- b) Mary buys oranges every day
 Mary buys mangoes every day
 ───────────
 ↓
 unlimited
- Mary bought oranges yesterday
 Mary bought mangoes yesterday
 ───────────
 ↓
 unlimited

7. Present to Future (and viceversa)

StimulusResponse

- a) I am hungry today
 I am busy today
- I will be hungry tomorrow
 I will be busy tomorrow

b)	<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Response</u>
	Mary buys oranges every day	Mary will buy oranges tomorrow
	Mary buys <u>mangoes</u> every <u>day</u>	Mary will buy <u>mangoes</u> tomorrow

8. Simple Present to Progressive (and viceversa)

	<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Response</u>
a)	I am hungry now	-
	I am <u>busy</u> now	-
b)	Mary buys oranges	Mary is buying oranges
	Mary buys <u>mangoes</u>	Mary is buying <u>mangoes</u>

9. "Simple" Future to Periphrastic future (and viceversa)

	<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Response</u>
a)	I will be hungry	I am going to be hungry
	I will be <u>busy</u>	I am going to be <u>busy</u>

	<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Response</u>
b)	Mary will buy oranges	Mary is going to buy oranges
	Mary will buy <u>mangoes</u>	Mary is going to buy <u>mangoes</u>

10. Long Form to Contracted Form (and viceversa)

	<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Response</u>
a)	I am hungry	I'm hungry
	I am <u>busy</u>	I'm <u>busy</u>

b)	<u>Stimulus</u>	<u>Response</u>
	I will buy oranges	I'll buy oranges
	I will buy <u>mangoes</u>	I'll buy <u>mangoes</u>

C. Teaching Sentence-Slot Questioning

First Phase: about one specific slot at a time.

(The sentences have been lengthened to provide more slot opportunities.)

Leading Sentences

- a. I am busy in the morning every day.
 1 2 3 4
- b. Mary buys oranges in the supermarket every day.
 1 2 3 4 5 6

Question-answer relationship about the subject slot.

- a) 1. I am busy in the morning every day.
 2. I am hungry in the morning every day.
 3. I am thirsty in the morning every day.
 4. I am cold in the morning every day.
 5. I am hot in the morning every day.
1. Who is busy in the morning every day?
 2. Who is hungry in the morning every day?
 3. Who is thirsty in the morning every day?
 4. Who is hot in the morning every day?
 5. Who is cold in the morning every day?

- b) 1. Mary buys oranges in the supermarket every day.
 2. Mary buys bananas in the supermarket every day.
 3. Mary buys apples in the supermarket every day.
 4. Mary buys peaches in the supermarket every day.
 5. Mary buys limes in the supermarket every day.

1. Who buys oranges in the supermarket every day?
 2. Who buys bananas in the supermarket every day?
 3. Who buys apples in the supermarket every day?
 4. Who buys peaches in the supermarket every day?
 5. Who buys limes in the supermarket every day?

Questions about the verb slot

- a) 1. I am busy in the morning every day.
 1. How am I in the morning every day?
- b) 1. Mary buys oranges in the supermarket every day?
 1. What does Mary do in the supermarket every day?

Questions about the direct-object slot

- a) 1. I am busy in the morning every day.
 1. Null.
- b) 1. Mary buys oranges in the supermarket every day.
 1. What does Mary buy in the supermarket every day?

Questions about the indirect-object slot

- a) 1. I am busy in the morning every day.
 1. Null.
- b) 1. Mary buys oranges in the supermarket every day.
 1. Null.

Questions about the adverb-of-place slot

- a) 1. I am busy in the morning every day.
1. Null.
- b) 1. Mary buys oranges in the supermarket every day.
1. Where does Mary buy oranges every day?

Questions about the adverb-of-time slot

- a) 1. I am busy in the morning every day.
1. When am I busy every day?
- b) 1. Mary buys oranges in the supermarket every day.
1. When does Mary buy oranges in the supermarket? or
How often does Mary buy oranges in the supermarket?

Questions about the adverb-of-frequency slot

- a) 1. I am busy in the morning every day.
1. How often am I busy in the morning?
- b) 1. Mary buys oranges in the supermarket every day.
1. How often does Mary buy oranges in the supermarket?

Second Phase: about all possible sentence slots

Questions about sentence (a) slots

I am busy in the morning every day
1 2 3 4

1. Who is busy in the morning every day?
2. How/what am I in the morning every day?

Time in general:	when	When is your birthday?
Place:	where	Where is Mary?
Selection among many:	what	What is your name?
Selection among a few:	which	Which car is red?
Property:	whose	Whose book is this?
Company:	with who(m)	With whom are you?
Manners:	how	How do you speak?
Reason:	why	Why are you crying?
For the adjective:		
Condition:	how + condition	How tall are you? How busy are you? How many are you? How hungry are you? How fast are you? . . .

SAMPLE LESSON PLANS

1) Teaching Sentence Generation

Date: _____

Level: Basic

No. of Students: 25

Topic: Verbs Be and Buy in Affirmative Sentences.

Objectives

General: That the students speak English at the basic level.

Specific:

a) Given a dialogue that contains two or three kernel sentence, and fifteen minutes of didactic treatment, the students will act out the dialogue as modeled by the teacher. The students should perform the dialogue with at least seventy-five percent of correctness, according to the judgement of the teacher.

b) Given the kernel sentence I AM HUNGRY from the dialogue and the vocabulary THIRSTY, COLD, HOT, SICK, TALL, SHORT, HAPPY, ANGRY, THIN and BUSY, the students will say and write ten new sentences, in fifteen minutes, by substituting the vocabulary items in the adjective-complement-of-be slot of the structure. The students should produce, at least, seven new sentences.

c) Given the kernel sentence MARY BUYS ORANGES EVERY DAY from the dialogue, and the vocabulary BANANAS, APPLES, PEACHES, LIMES, GUAVAS, COCONUTS, ANONAS, NISPEROS, MANGOES, and JICAMAS, the students will say and write ten new sentences, in fifteen minutes, by using substitution in the direct-object-of-buy slot in the structure. The students should produce, at least, seven new sentences.

The Dialogue:

I AM HUNGRY

Albert It is 10:00, but I am hungry.
 Bertha Do you want an orange?
 A Sure! Where is it?
 B In the kitchen. Mary buys oranges every
 day.
 A Fine! I am going to take one. Thank you.
 B You are welcome.

Class Activities

To accomplish specific objective a)

1. Model the dialogue, twice.
2. Copy the dialogue on the board.
3. Have the students repeat the dialogue twice.
4. Teacher and students act out the dialogue.
5. Students and teacher act out the dialogue.
6. The class is divided in two halves to perform the dialogue.
7. The two halves exchange roles.
8. Volunteer students act out the dialogue by couples.
9. Students selected at random act out the dialogue -some four times.
10. The students copy the dialogue from the board.

To accomplish specific objective b)

Illustrations accompany the vocabulary items.

1. Present the pictures for "hungry" and model the sentence twice. The students listen.
2. The students repeat the sentence after the teacher, twice.

3. The teacher says: Substitute the word hungry (show picture) for thirsty (show picture). For example, I say: hungry; you say: I am hungry. I say: thirsty; you say: I am thirsty.

<u>Teacher</u>	<u>Students</u>
hungry	I am hungry.
thirsty	I am thirsty.
cold	I am cold.
hot	I am hot.
sick	I am sick.
tall	I am tall.
short	I am short.
happy	I am happy.
angry	I am angry.
thin	I am thin.
busy	I am busy.

4. The students write the sentences from the board or from dictation.
5. The teacher promotes student-self-made sentences orally and in writing.

To accomplish specific objective c)

Illustrations accompany the vocabulary items.

1. Present the picture for "oranges" and model the sentence twice. The students listen.
2. The students repeat the sentence after the teacher, twice.
3. The teacher says: substitute the word oranges (show picture) for bananas (show picture). For example, I say: oranges. You say: Mary buys oranges every day. I say: bananas. You say: Mary buys bananas every day.

TeacherStudents

oranges	Mary buys oranges every day.
bananas	Mary buys bananas every day.
apples	Mary buys apples every day.
limes	Mary buys limes every day.
guavas	Mary buys guavas every day.
coconuts	Mary buys coconuts every day.
anonas	Mary buys anonas every day.
nisperos	Mary buys nisperos every day.
mangoes	Mary buys mangoes every day.
jicamas	Mary buys jicamas every day.

4. The students copy the sentences from the board or from dictation.
5. The teacher promotes student-self-made sentences orally and in writing.

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN

2) Teaching Sentence Transformation

Date: _____

Level: Basic

No. of students: 25

Topic: The Verbs Be and Buy in Negative Sentences

Objectives

General: That the students speak English at the basic level.

Specific:

1) Given the ten generated sentences with the kernel I AM HUNGRY, from the last class period, the students will transform such sentences, orally and in writing, to the negative form, in fifteen minutes. The students should transform all the sentences.

2) Given the ten sentences generated with the kernel MARY BUYS ORANGES EVERY DAY, from the last class period, the students will transform such sentences, orally and in writing, to the negative form; in fifteen minutes. The students should transform all the sentences.

Class Activities

To accomplish specific objective a)

1. The teacher says: Listen: (a hand-to-ear signal)

I am hungry.	I am not hungry.
I am thirsty.	I am not thirsty.
I am cold.	I am not cold.
I am hot.	I am not hot.
I am sick.	I am not sick.
I am tall.	I am not tall.

I am short.	I am not short.
I am happy.	I am not happy.
I am angry.	I am not angry.
I am thin.	I am not thin.
I am busy.	I am not busy.

2. The teacher says: Listen and repeat. The students listen and repeat the block of negative sentences (the response block.)
3. The teacher says: I say affirmative; you say negative. For example: I say: I am hungry. You say: I am not hungry. I say: I am thirsty. You say: I am not thirsty.

<u>Teacher</u>	<u>Students</u>
I am hungry.	I am not hungry.
I am thirsty.	I am not thirsty.
I am cold.	I am not cold.
I am hot.	I am not hot.
I am sick.	I am not sick.
I am tall.	I am not tall.
I am short.	I am not short.
I am happy.	I am not happy.
I am angry.	I am not angry.
I am thin.	I am not thin.
I am busy.	I am not busy.

4. The students copy the sentences from the board or from dictation.

To accomplish specific objective b)

1. The teacher says: Listen:
Mary buys oranges every day. Mary does not buy oranges every day.

Mary buys bananas every day.	Mary does not buy bananas every day.
Mary buys apples every day.	Mary does not buy apples every day.
Mary buys peaches every day.	Mary does not buy peaches every day.
Mary buys limes every day.	Mary does not buy limes every day.
Mary buys guavas every day.	Mary does not buy guavas every day.
Mary buys coconuts every day.	Mary does not buy coconuts every day.
Mary buys anonas every day.	Mary does not buy anonas every day.
Mary buys nisperos every day.	Mary does not buy nisperos every day.
Mary buys mangoes every day.	Mary does not buy mangoes every day.
Mary buys jicamas every day.	Mary does not buy jicamas every day.

- The teacher says: Listen and repeat. The students listen and repeat the block of negative sentences (the response block.)
- The teacher says: I say affirmative; you say negative. For example: I say: Mary buys oranges every day.
You say: Mary does not buy oranges every day.
I say: Mary buys bananas every day.
You say: Mary does not buy bananas every day.

Teacher

Mary buys oranges every day.

Mary buys bananas every day.

Mary buys apples every day.

Mary buys peaches every day.

Mary buys limes every day.

Mary buys guavas every day.

Mary buys coconuts every day.

Mary buys anonas every day.

Mary buys nisperos every day.

Mary buys mangoes every day.

Mary buys jicamas every day.

Students

Mary does not buy oranges every day.

Mary does not buy bananas every day.

Mary does not buy apples every day.

Mary does not buy peaches every day.

Mary does not buy limes every day.

Mary does not buy guavas every day.

Mary does not buy coconuts every day.

Mary does not buy anonas every day.

Mary does not buy nisperos every day.

Mary does not buy mangoes every day.

Mary does not buy jicamas every day.

4. The students copy the sentences from the board or from dictation.
5. The teacher promotes student-self-made sentences. One student produces a kernel sentence and another transforms it orally.

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN

3) Teaching Sentence-Slot Questioning

Date: _____

Level: Basic

No. of Students: 25

Topic: The Question-word Who in Questions and Answers about
the Subject.Objectives

General: That the students speak English at the basic level.

Specific:

a) Given the ten generated and transformed sentences with the kernel I AM HUNGRY, from the dialogue, the students will ask orally and in writing, ten questions about the subject, with the question word WHO, in ten minutes. The students should ask all the questions correctly.

b) Given the ten generated and transformed sentences with the kernel I AM HUNGRY, from the dialogue, the students will answer orally and in writing, the questions about the subject, in ten minutes. The students should answer the ten questions.

c) Given the ten generated and transformed sentences with the kernel MARY BUYS ORANGES EVERY DAY, from the dialogue, the students will ask orally and in writing, ten questions about the subject using the question word WHO.

The students should ask the ten questions correctly.

Class Activities

To accomplish specific objective a)

1. The teacher says: Listen:

I am hungry.	Who is hungry?
I am thirsty.	Who is thirsty?
I am cold.	Who is cold?
I am hot.	Who is hot?
I am sick.	Who is sick?
I am tall.	Who is tall?
I am short.	Who is short?
I am happy.	Who is happy?
I am angry.	Who is angry?
I am thin.	Who is thin?
I am busy.	Who is busy?

2. The teacher says: Listen and repeat. The students repeat the block of question sentences with WHO.

3. The teacher says: I say: I am hungry.

You say: Who is hungry?

I say: I am thirsty.

You say: Who is thirsty?

Teacher

Students

I am hungry.	Who is hungry?
I am thirsty.	Who is thirsty?
I am cold.	Who is cold?
I am hot.	Who is hot?
I am sick.	Who is sick?
I am tall.	Who is tall?
I am short.	Who is short?
I am happy.	Who is happy?
I am angry.	Who is angry?
I am thin.	Who is thin?
I am busy.	Who is busy?

4. The students copy the sentences from the board or from dictation.

To accomplish specific objective b)

1. The teacher says : listen:

Who is hungry? I am.

Who is thirsty? I am.

Who is cold? I am.

Who is hot? I am.

Who is sick? I am.

Who is tall? I am.

Who is short? I am.

Who is happy? I am.

Who is angry? I am.

Who is thin? I am.

Who is busy? I am.

2. The teacher has the students repeat the answer I am several times.

3. The teacher says: Answer the question Who is _____?

For example:

I say: Who is hungry? You say: I am.

I say: Who is thirsty? You say: I am.

Teacher

Students

Who is hungry?

I am.

Who is cold?

I am.

Who is hot?

I am.

Who is sick?

I am.

Who is tall?

I am.

Who is short?

I am.

Who is happy?

I am.

Who is angry?

I am.

Who is thin?

I am.

Who is busy?

I am.

4. The students copy questions and answers from the board or from dictation.

To accomplish specific objective c)

1. The teacher says: Listen:

Mary buys oranges every day.	Who buys oranges every day?
Mary buys bananas every day.	Who buys bananas every day?
Mary buys apples every day.	Who buys apples every day?
Mary buys peaches every day.	Who buys peaches every day?
Mary buys limes every day.	Who buys limes every day?
Mary buys guavas every day.	Who buys guavas every day?
Mary buys coconuts every day.	Who buys coconuts every day?
Mary buys anonas every day.	Who buys anonas every day?
Mary buys nisperos every day.	Who buys nisperos every day?
Mary buys mangoes every day.	Who buys mangoes every day?
Mary buys jicamas every day.	Who buys jicamas every day?

2. The teacher says: Listen and repeat. The students repeat the block of question sentences with WHO.

3. The teacher says: I say: Mary buys oranges every day.
 You say: Who buys oranges every day? I say: Mary buys bananas every day.
 You say: Who buys bananas every day?

Teacher

Students

Mary buys oranges every day.	Who buys oranges every day?
Mary buys bananas every day.	Who buys bananas every day?
Mary buys apples every day.	Who buys apples every day?
Mary buys peaches every day.	Who buys peaches every day?
Mary buys limes every day.	Who buys limes every day?
Mary buys guavas every day.	Who buys guavas every day?
Mary buys coconuts every day.	Who buys coconuts every day?
Mary buys anonas every day.	Who buys anonas every day?

Mary buys nisperos every day.	Who buys nisperos every day?
Mary buys mangoes every day.	Who buys mangoes every day?
Mary buys jicamas every day.	Who buys jicamas every day?

4. The students write questions and answers from the board or from dictation.
5. The teacher promotes student-self-made kernel sentences for others to transform.

To accomplish specific objective d)

1. The teachers says: Listen:

Who buys oranges every day?	Mary does.
Who buys bananas every day?	Mary does.
Who buys apples every day?	Mary does.
Who buys peaches every day?	Mary does.
Who buys limes every day?	Mary does.
Who buys guavas every day?	Mary does.
Who buys coconuts every day?	Mary does.
Who buys anonas every day?	Mary does.
Who buys nisperos every day?	Mary does.
Who buys mangoes every day?	Mary does.
Who buys jicamas every day?	Mary does.
2. The teacher has the students repeat the answer several times.
3. The teacher says: Answer the question Who buys? with the answer: Mary does. For example: I say: Who buys oranges every day? You say: Mary does. Who buys bananas every day? Mary does.

TeacherStudent

Who buys oranges every day?	Mary does.
Who buys bananas every day?	Mary does.
Who buys apples every day?	Mary does.
Who buys peaches every day?	Mary does.
Who buys limes every day?	Mary does.
Who buys guavas every day?	Mary does.
Who buys coconuts every day?	Mary does.
Who buys anonas every day?	Mary does.
Who buys nisperos every day?	Mary does.
Who buys mangoes every day?	Mary does.
Who buys jicamas every day?	Mary does.

4. The students copy questions and answers from the board.
5. The teacher promotes student-self-made questions for other students to answer.

CHAPTER V

EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE OF THE ENGLISH-TEACHING METHODOLOGY IN SAN SALVADOR AND NEARBY TOWNS

This chapter will focus on the aspects of the investigation carried out, the type of questionnaire used, its tabulation, analysis of the results, and its relation with the hypothesis leading this work.

1. Description of the questionnaire

In order to have a better judgement from an objective base in relation to the status of the English teaching in El Salvador, a questionnaire was produced and passed among many teachers who work in public and private schools in the Metropolitan Area of San Salvador. The questions were aimed at detecting the type of teaching methods used.

Due to the nature and purpose of the inquiry, that required a "non-probabilistic" method, it was carried out in educational institutions in an area where the language is taught by many relatively qualified staffers.

One hundred copies of the survey were distributed during the first two weeks of March, 1982, but only fifty were returned in spite of repeated visits to most of the teachers. The magnitudes of the sampling became:

$$N_1 = \frac{\text{No. of answers}}{\text{No. of schools}} = \frac{50}{116} = 43.1\%$$

$$N_2 = \frac{\text{No. of answers}}{\text{No. of schools}} = \frac{50}{179} = 27.9\%$$

The first magnitude (N_1) was calculated considering the number of schools with a seventh grade as reported by the Departamento de Información y Estadística of the

Ministry of Education during 1982. This shows a representative proportion of 43.1%

The second magnitude (N_2) 27.9%, was calculated in relation to the number of schools with a seventh grade as reported by the Ministry of Education plus the number of academies and private schools listed in the Telephone Book, 1983. There are academies and private schools that either are not approved or do not report data to the Ministry.

Then, the number of schools covered by the investigation is rather high and representative for the purpose in mind. It is usual to get between 30-60% of feed back, depending on the inquiry and its means. In spite of having only half of the answers from the one-hundred original answers sought, the representativeness is sufficient.

Furthermore, the evidence gathered by the inquiry is quite revealing considering the facts that the Metropolitan Area of San Salvador is close to 100% urban, culturally better, where the teachers are, supposedly, more qualified than those of other population areas in El Salvador.

One last aspect revealed by the inquiry is that the instructors of English serve from two to three schools; or, they work in two shifts in the same schools. This adds to the results of the inquiry, for the methodology used has to be the same.

2. Analysis of the Results

The answers to the questions were tabulated as follows:

Question 1. *Cómo le llamaría usted al método que usa para enseñar Inglés?*

Audio-(visual) oral	8
Lingüístico: Roberto Lado	2
English for Today	1
Eclectico	4

Depende del Programa a seguir	1
Oral-personalizado	1
Método indirecto	1
Método directo	7
Activo de memorización	1
Método práctico	3
Método audiolingual	1
De repetición	1
Gramatical	1
Substitution Drills	1
Repetition, entonación, modulación, escritura, conver- sación	1
Centro de interés	1
Escritura, repetitivo	1
Conversación	1
Propio	3
Sin respuesta	1
TV educativa	1
Intuitivo	1
Oral expositivo	1
Dinámico, conversación entre maestro y alumno	3
Conversación mutua	1
Integrado (oir, hablar, leer y escribir)	1
Método natural	1

Question 2. Qué enfoque (approach) sigue usted al enseñar Inglés?

Que es fundamental	1
Es muy importante para la época y el medio	1
Funcional	2
Es muy necesario para la endoculturización	1
Global	3
Sobre un núcleo generador	1
Enfoque práctico	5
Casi personalizado	1
Sin respuesta	2
La práctica de pronunciación	1
Que lleguen a conversar	1
Aplicación de la vida diaria	1
Que el alumno comprenda y se exprese en Inglés	1
Práctico y teórico: funcional	1
Dominar frases básicas	1
Una clase más viva	1
Muy poco tiempo. Lo mejor posible	1
Es importante aprender otro idioma	1
Carácter formativo e informativo	1
Socio-económico	1
Utilidad personal	1

Comunicación inmediata	1
General-gramatical	2
Encaminado a las necesidades prioritarias	1
Oral	2
Necesidad como medio de comunicación	1
De todo un idioma completo	1
Utilizar lo más próximo	1
Personal	1
Buen rendimiento	1
Importancia como segundo idioma y extranjero	1
Que el alumno aprenda a hablar	1
Hacia el aprendizaje de otro idioma y su cultura	1
No-gramatical	1
De valor personal y defensa en el empleo	1
Comunicación en cualquier situación dada	1
Por salir del compromiso	1
Que aprendan a leer y escribir	1
Al principio en español y después en Inglés	1
Audio-lingual	1

Question 3. Qué estrategias le dan mejores resultados al enseñar el idioma?

Estimular su importancia y la variedad del método	1
Análisis estructural o descriptivo	1
Prácticas de repetición en grupo e individualmente	1
Juegos y diálogos y repetición	5
Mezcla de planificación de clase e improvisación	1
Mucha participación del estudiante	3
Diálogos y la investigación personal	1
Atención personalizada y deberes	1
Usando ayudas audiovisuales	5
La clase activa con diálogos, lecturas y cartas	1
Sin respuesta	3
Canciones, poesías y adivinanzas para el tema	1
Conocimientos generales	1
Que los alumnos aprendan hablando	1
Cuando la participación hace aprender por propia iniciativa	1
Repetición de atrás para adelante	1
Conocimientos y repetir despacio	1
Substitution drills y chorus repetition	1
Pronunciación de los objetivos y pictures	1
Que el alumno repita después del profesor y diálogos	1
Aprender vocabulario nuevo todos los días	1
Pronunciación	1
Lectura Colectiva como fundamento del tema	1
Usar objetos conocidos y repetición constante	1
Enseñar lo que será útil para estudios posteriores y en el trabajo	2

Conversación y participación directa	2
La constante repetición de palabras	1
La constante repetición directa	1
Situaciones reales, preguntas y respuestas	1
Método oral expositivo	1
Repetición de sonidos básicos con materiales	1
Lectura, mímica, deducción de significados	2
Competencias orales entre los alumnos	1
Entusiasmar a los alumnos para que participen	1
Usar vocabulario conocido y objetivos y traducirlos al Inglés	1

Question 4. Cuáles actividades de aprendizaje cree usted que sus alumnos disfrutaban más?

Charlas y hacer carteles, etc.	2
Cuando ellos lo practican	1
Diálogos, traducciones, clases magistrales	1
La de conversar entre sí	1
Cuando repetimos actividades reales	1
Canciones, laboratorios, traducciones	5
Sin respuesta	1
Juegos	3
Orales	7
Producir y más práctica	1
Repetición de vocablos	2
Canciones y diálogos	9
Conversación	2
Trabajos en grupo	1
Las ilustrativas y diálogos	4
Escribir y dictado, pronunciación	1
Charlas, porque ellos explican, pronunciar preguntas	1
Transformación de oraciones, preguntas y respuestas entre sí	1
Chorus repetition	1
Cuando aprenden por propia iniciativa	1
Lecturas y conversación	2
Los grupos de conversación	1
Análisis de aspectos comparativos español-inglés	1
Buena presentación de la clase	1

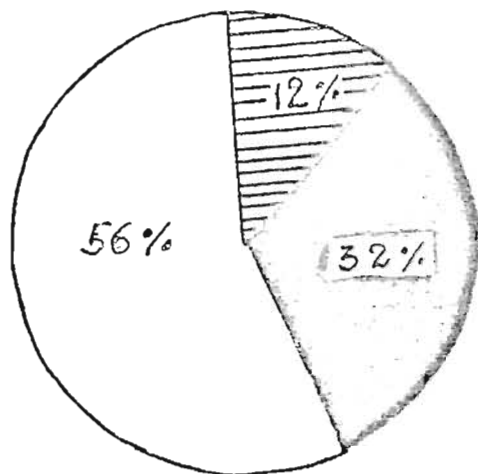
Question 5. Conoce usted el método generativo-transformativo para la enseñanza del Inglés?

No	31
Poco	7
Sí	10
Es ineludible la fonética, la lingüística, estructura	1
Enseño por necesidad, hay varios métodos	1

As it can be seen, there was a variety of answers for every question. This proves the tremendous diversity of procedures derived most of all from didactic subjectivity. Definitely, the quantitative and qualitative indices that the inquiry shows are unmistakably traditionalist, deeply rooted in the teaching of English. But traditionalist methods can be good depending on who uses them, how, and why they are applied; the indices point in the direction of intuitiveness and empirism, and in the direction of "pirate instructory."

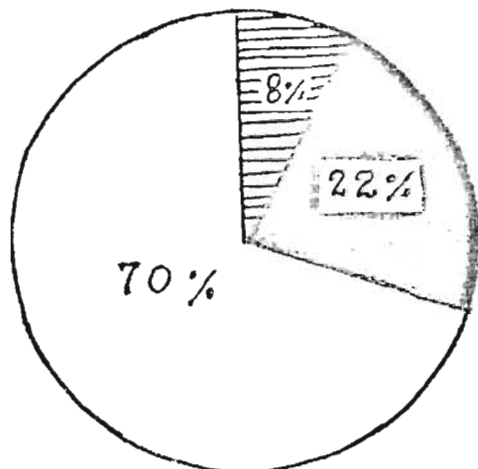
Because of the type of the questionnaire and its answers, the results were represented in pie graphs.

About the method, question 1: Credit is given to answers that include names of methods, such as: Audio-Visual, Direct, and Indirect (Gram. Tr.), as termed by Wilga Mr. Rivers.



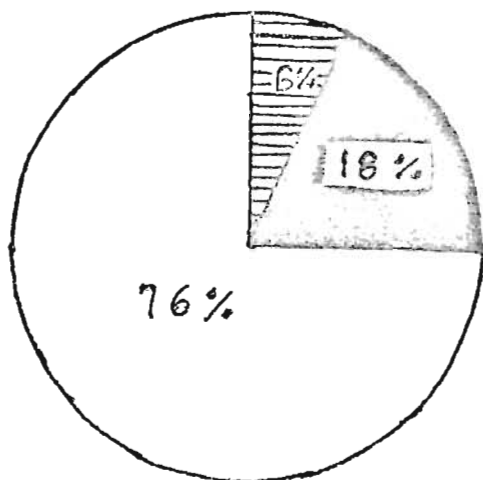
Teacher Universe:	<u>50%</u>	=	100%
Know:	16	=	32%
Know weakly:	6	=	12%
Need to know:	28	=	56%

About the approach, question 2. Credit is given to the answers that include terms such as: Oral, Direct, Grammatical.



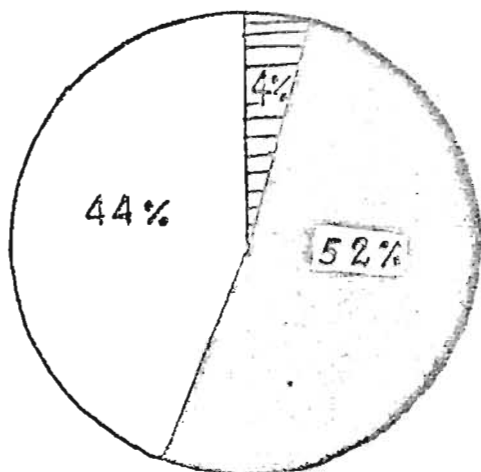
Teacher Universe:	<u>50%</u>	=	100%
Know:	11	=	22%
Know weakly:	4	=	8%
Need to know:	35	=	70%

About teaching strategies, question 3. Credit is given to answers that include terms, such as: dialogues, readings, games, descriptions, and songs.



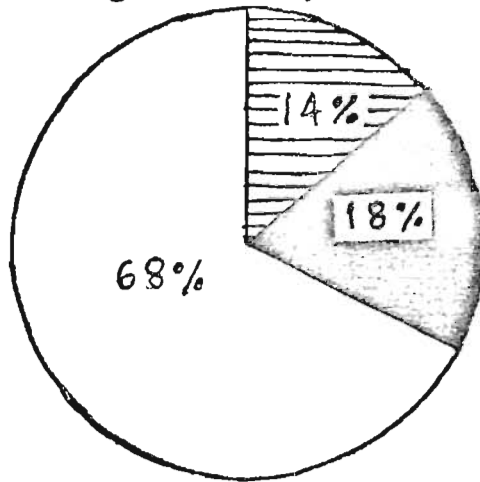
Teacher Universe:	<u>50</u>	=	<u>100%</u>
Know:	9	=	18%
Know weakly:	3	=	6%
Need to know:	38	=	76%

About learning activities, question 4. Credit is given to answers that include terms, such as: dialogues, readings, songs, substitution, and transformation exercises.



Teacher Universe:	<u>50</u>	=	<u>100%</u>
Know:	26	=	52%
Know weakly:	2	=	4%
Need to know:	22	=	44%

About the generative-transformational method, question 5. Credit is given to "yes" and to "a little" answers.



Teacher Universe: $50 = 100\%$
 Know: $9 = 18\%$
 Know weakly: $7 = 14\%$
 Need to know: $34 = 68\%$

The grouping of the results is of course valorative and may have some bias interpretation (which is human) due to the qualitative characteristic of the inquiry. Even so, it should be remembered that the "non parametric" grouping is applicable to "non-probabilistic" type of surveys. This could be the results of the excessive diversity of the methodology reported, the confusion of the terminology, and, perhaps, the lack of knowledge on the side of the surveyed teachers. The inquiry shows that, practically, there are as many methods used as the number of teachers who answered the questionnaire.

3. The Empirical Evidence and the Hypothesis of Work

According to the investigation carried out and its empirical-objective evidence, it is verified that: in the seventh grade, there is a noticeable diversity in the methodology used to teach English, therefore, the statement of the hypothesis presented in the original project of the work is verified.

The results of the inquiry, the opinion of some interviewed reliable teachers, and my personal observation indicate that the teaching of English in the seventh grade

is, in the most, poor. The seventh grade is, generally, where 11-13 year-old students begin their studies of a second language that they "must be able to understand, speak, read, and write." It should, therefore, be the grade where our methodological attention should go in order to attain the type of citizen that the curricular policy of El Salvador seeks. If effective teaching takes place in the initial grade, the higher grades will present much fewer problems than those faced at the present time, where the eighth-to-twelfth-grade teachers have to reteach the contents of the seventh grade.

Other problematic aspects of the seventh grade concerning the teaching of English (beyond the scope of this work) are: the scarcity of modern textbooks, the inavailability of language labs, the overload of students per-teacher, and the inadequacy of the classrooms.

One accentuated general problem around the teaching of English in El Salvador is what I would call "the marginal attitude" of some educational institutions. Such institutions either do not include English in their curricula or look at English as a last-priority subject. Instead, they should realize that English is a valuable subject matter to be demanded satisfactorily as a requisite of new groups of students.

As a teacher of English and as a university student, I think that something can be done to solve the problems that, to a significant degree, caused the results of the survey. The authorities and agents involved in the teaching of English, especially in the seventh grade, should study the problem and apply new methodological options -one which is presented in this work- in order to do away with the prevailing traditionalism and the inertic trends of the past.

Finally, the formulation of this work, due to my personal circumstances, may not be the best way to look at the solution of the problem. Even so, the problem is there. It takes going out and seeing it to arrive at similar conclusions.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The conclusions presented in this chapter are those considered most relevant concerning the problems exposed in the body of the work and the basic recommendations that, if applied, would help to solve these problems gradually.

A. Conclusions

1. The theoretical, linguistic basis and the philosophy of the proposal are scientifically supported by the principles of generative-transformational grammar. The points of view concerning deep-surface structures, language and related topics prevail to the date and will continue to prevail in the next decades until a reasonably better trend takes over.

2. The G-T approach to grammar was originally exposed by Noam Chomsky's Grammatical Structures (1957). The approach has been tested, revised, and retested against the structural method and gained more persuasion in the U.S. itself, and in the world.

3. The G-T approach to teaching English in El Salvador presents more advantages than other general methods, as compared on page 38.

4. Nevertheless, it is necessary to study the proposal, adapt it, and use it as suggested in chapters II and III, especially in what refers to generativeness, transformation, and sentence-slot questioning. If so, the intrinsic nature of the proposal relating the "infinite use of finite means" creatively will be better understood.

5. The quantitative and qualitative indices of the

inquiry, as shown in the analysis of the results, indicate that there is an excessive diversity of methods of teaching seventh-grade English in the MASS. The diversity is such that, paradoxically, there are almost as many methods used as the number of teachers who answered the questionnaire.

The nature and size of the sampling are representative enough of the teaching reality. Besides, the fact that the teachers work in two schools or two shifts in the same school, and the cultural advantages of the studied area, add to the representativity of the inquiry making it grow qualitatively.

6. The range of the methodological diversity that is pointed out with its concomitant negative effect on the seventh grade makes the author of this work conclude that the hypothesis presented in the original project has been proved.

B. Recommendations

The main problem and secondary problems detected by the inquiry require that the following recommendations be made:

1) It is necessary to create educational institutions such as the no-longer-existing Escuela Normal Superior to help the universities in the production of qualified teachers to cover the great demand of the over-populated El Salvador.

2) The teaching of "Métodos y Materiales para la Enseñanza del Inglés" must make a thorough review of the general methods of teaching English and most emphasize on the generative-transformational method.

3) The Ministry of Education must create a department of supervisors to ensure the quality of English teaching and

to reinforce the report of personnel that discard unprepared teachers.

4) The class hours for English should be one a day at least, and the oral skill given the most part of the class period.

5) English-as-a-second language should be demanded of new professionals instead of English-as-a-foreign language I and II. The plan of studies of some schools at the University of El Salvador should give English the priority that it deserves as a modern language. This would require that the present Department of Foreign Languages become a school (in the sense of "facultad").

6) English-teaching workshops must be promoted by the Ministry of Education in order to actualize the procedures in the classrooms. The discussion of practical, easy methods in agreement with the present educational philosophy should be the main course during the workshops.

7) It is necessary to produce locally oriented textbooks, easy enough to work with and at popular prices, that help to cope with the problem that the crisis presents.

8. The "marginal attitude" of most curricular planners must be changed by making them realize the importance of English as an international language, hence its inclusion in the official curriculum of El Salvador. Should that marginal attitude continue, traditionalism and intuition will continue to prevail; and above all, the new generations of students will be fooled by the idea that they are learning English even though they will only learn to copy sentences with unclear meaning in their minds.

Finally, it should be clear that the aim of this work has been to propose a three-fold didactic procedure to teach basic English through I) Sentence Generation, II) Sentence

Generation, II) Sentence Transformation, and III) Sentence-Slot Questioning. Much modeling and repetition have been recommended for each technique as postulated by the behaviorist and the rationalist points of view. Indeed, if the students already speak a first language, they are, just as well, able to learn another; what they need is to emulate a model to acquire a second language through conscientious work.

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