

# Mosaic

## A Journal for Language Teachers

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# Mosaic

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**The language graduate who never reads a professional journal and participates only minimally, if at all, in professional meetings, will stagnate. There is an onus on the profession in all areas to upgrade and keep abreast of current developments in the field.**

**- Peter Heffernan**

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Paolo E. Balboni

## Being Many and Being One: The Language Policy of the European Union

*The author outlines the current linguistic policies of the European Union and traces the development and future of languages and culture in the "new" Europe.*

Language has always been a political issue, since language is the main instrument for the creation of a sense of belonging and for the definition of a cultural and personal identity. But the above statement changes dramatically if we add the word "education" to it. Language education is the political issue for the future of a plurilingual empire which wants to remain plurilingual and pluricultural as long as possible. as "Cultural and linguistic diversity is a founding value of the [European] Union (EU)", a principle stated over and over again in cultural documents of the EU.

We shall describe the main lines of the EU language and language education policies during this phase of transition from 15 to 25 members countries, from 11 to 20 official languages, from two to three language families (romance, Germanic and Slavonic languages) in addition to various cultures, histories, and religions.

### French vs. English from 'MEC' to 'EU/UE'

From a political point of view, the choice of language(s) is extremely important in international names or acronyms. "MEC", the original "union" created in Rome in 1957, was the French acronym for the *Marché Européen Commun* which included France, Germany, Italy and the BeNeLux. The acronym MEC was often used also in Italy (the Italian version should have been MCE, *Mercato Comune Europeo*) but Germany opted for EWG, *Europäische Wirtschaftsgemeinschaft*. France,

however, had won World War II, had brought about the creation of the first post-war European institution (it dealt with coal and steel), French was the language spoken by the ruling and upper middle classes in Europe – and so the idealistic dream of uniting countries who had mutually destroyed each other for centuries was generally called by its French acronym, MEC. And its "capitals" were two French cities: French- and German-speaking Strasbourg, where the European Parliament was to be established in 1991, and French- and Flemish-speaking Brussels, the seat of the European Commission. English gained momentum in the 1950s and 1960s, but Great Britain was kept out of the MEC (especially by the French De Gaulle) and English was no "threat" to the French-speaking MEC.

Twenty years later the "MEC" evolved into "CEE/EEC", (*Communauté Économique Européenne / European Economic Community*) which included at first 12 later 15 member states. It was named with French and English acronyms, with French still in the first place. French was still the language of the Brussels-based eurocracy, but English was pervading European society as well as the global society more and more. (The EEC included the six countries of MEC, plus Spain and Portugal, the UK and the Irish Republic, Sweden, Denmark and Finland, Austria and Greece).

In 1984 the CEE/EEC passed a resolution inviting all member states to support the study of two European languages in compulsory schooling, although no measure

was to be adopted for those nations who did not do so. Two states were exempted from two-language schooling, the UK and Ireland, which made the main idea explicit: all nations had to learn

- a. English, apart from the English-speaking ones, and
- b. another European language.

Germany reacted with an impressive action which was carried out by the Goethe Institute. It began to train German teachers all over Europe, in order to support its language as the second foreign language in schools. The same policy was to be followed by Spain in the 1990s through the *Instituto Cervantes*. French started losing its leading position, and the descending curve was to build up a dramatic negative momentum throughout the 1990s.

### The Council of Europe

The Council of Europe (CoE) is not a part of the MEC, the EEC, or the EU. It is a cultural organization which includes all European states. One of its main projects was the Modern Language Project, launched in 1967 under the direction of the British linguist J. L. M. Trim, and Oxonian scholars of the Austin and Searle pragmalinguistic school (Gosrosch, Pottier, Riddy 1967). The idea was to establish a *threshold level* of language knowledge, i.e. a basic level of communicative competence which could ensure survival (the so-called *Waystage level*) and integration (the *Threshold level* proper) in a foreign country. The main idea was that instead of listing words and grammar rules, the common ground was to be found in "functions" (i.e., greeting, introducing, asking, etc.) and "notions" (i.e., quantity, time, space, etc.). A list of functions and notions was agreed upon, to which "exponents", namely, linguistic expressions in the different languages, were to be added. This led to the *Threshold Level* for English in 1975, and to *Niveau Seuil*, *Livello soglia*, *Nivel Umbral*, *Kontaktschwelle*, and so on, in the following years (Trim et al. 1980; Trim et al. 1984; see the impressive list of "threshold levels" in the References).

The idea was absolutely revolu-



tionary from the point of view of language teaching methodology, although many of its theoretical bases were not robust enough to support the whole building.

In the 1990s the project was taken up again on more sophisticated theoretical foundations, and the result was the *Common European Framework* for languages, followed by the *Language portfolio* which described 6 levels of language proficiency, from mere survival (A1 and 2), through B1-2 to near native proficiency, C1-2. Consortia were created by "certificators", *i.e.* institutions who granted certificates of language proficiency (such as the Cambridge Syndicate, the Goethe Institut, and so on), so that "knowing a language at level B2" meant the same thing in all the European languages participating in the project.

As mentioned above, although the Council of Europe is not a part of the European Union, which includes only half of the European states, the CoE's *Common European Framework* and the *Language Portfolio* were accepted by the EU as the language standards both in the schools systems and in certification. In fact, the Council of Europe works as the EU think-tank as far as languages are concerned (a good example is Béacco, Byram 2003).

### A Multilingual and Multicultural "Empire"

The EU was formally born in 1992, when the Treaty was signed at Maastricht. The 1984 recommendation that two foreign languages should be taught was included in the Treaty as article 126 (in 2004, after several revisions of the Treaty, it is art. 149). A strategic document issued in 1995 (*The White Book*, prepared by a group led by Jacques Delors) launched the idea of a Europe as a knowledge-based society which needed lifelong *language learning* (LLLL). Many recommendations and documents were issued the following years, the latest being the *Action Plan for Languages 2004-2006*, which we shall discuss in detail below.

### What happened in Europe in the 1990s?

There was an unheard-of event in the history of mankind: for the first time, a group of states voluntarily renounced a part (a significant part – I should say – just think of the euro) of their power, of their autonomy. One feature of each state, however, was to be preserved and could not be handed over to the Union: the language which was seen as the main element of a culture. All EU documents dealing with cultural and linguistic heritage clearly stated that "The difference of languages and cultures is a founding principle of the EU".

*The US motto e pluribus unum focuses on unity, i.e. on the result of the process of unification:*

*the United States are "united", a past participle, indicating that the process is "perfect", "concluded".*

*Children born in America belong to the unum, have one language, and one culture.*

*The European Union is not unum but unionem,*

*which means "the process of becoming united":*

*a process which will cost each child born in the EU the effort of learning three languages at least and of interacting with at least six, seven cultural areas.*

The idea of a multilingual and multicultural empire was not new: Alexander the Great's empire was multilingual, multicultural and multireligious, as partly was the Roman empire. For example, not only did Hadrian, like most members of the Roman upper classes, normally use both Latin and Greek, but he

also built the still-extant Pantheon, a temple to all the gods, as the Greek name indicates. The Ottoman empire, especially its capital Istanbul, was similar, as was the Austrian empire. But in all these cases, the creation of the empire was carried out through military invasion and the invaded country's possibility of keeping its own culture was a gentle concession of the victor, whilst in the EU it is choice of the member states.

This type of process is quite different from the development of religious or ideological empires, which are monolingual and have the *melting pot* as their principle, from the Spanish, Portuguese, Arabic empires of the past to the Soviet and US empires in the 20th century.

Difference and multiplicity are valued differently in Europe ("a founding value" to be preserved) and in America (*e pluribus unum*, "one out of many") might be one of the critical issues in the 21st century, as the opposing positions concerning the 2003 Iraq war has begun to show. The US motto *e pluribus unum* focuses on unity, *i.e.* on the result of the process of unification: the United States are "united", a past participle, indicating that the process is "perfect", "concluded". Children born in America belong to the *unum*, have *one* language, and *one* culture. The European Union is not *unum* but *unionem*, which means "the process of becoming united": a process which will cost each child born in the EU the effort of learning *three* languages at least and of interacting with at least *six, seven* cultural areas.

A symbolic fact attests to this: in all banknotes the name of the common currency, the euro, is written in two alphabets, and it is pronounced in some 20 different ways within the Union. States are giving up the right to mint their own currency, but not the right to call the new currency according to their individual languages.

### A Long Process

The language maintenance policy is not the result of a decision of today's member states. In fact, it has been a long process.



As previously stated, the Council of Europe started its work on the very idea of foreign language proficiency in 1967, when there were only six member states of the Common European Market, compared to the almost fifty states of the Council of Europe today. The official seat of the Council of Europe was still the only monumental building in the Strasbourg square where a few years later the European Parliament was to be built.

The actual beginning of the official EU language policy dates later than the Council's *Modern Language Project*. In 1990 the *Lingua Project* (see below) was launched and in 1992 article 126 of the Maastricht Treaty stated that all European citizens are to be granted education in their mother tongue and *in two languages* spoken in the Union – all except the English and Irish who just need one foreign language, which basically means:

All Europeans must speak English and another European language.

The latest expression of this principle is found in the first lines of the *Action Plan for Languages 2004-2006*:

The range of foreign languages spoken by Europeans is narrow, being limited mainly to English, French, German, and Spanish. Learning one *lingua franca* alone is not enough. Every European citizen should have meaningful communicative competence in at least two other languages in addition to his or her mother tongue.

Three years later, in 1995, the EU issued another important document, Jacques Delors' *Livre blanc*, which indicated strategic lines for the future of the Union. The document stated some objectives which are considered of paramount relevance, and all of them refer to *Objective 4* as the condition to implement the others. *Objective 4* is concerned with language policy, it re-states the plurilingual perspective and the importance of learning at least two languages in order to meet all the other objectives. In the same year, two other projects were launched, *Socrates* and *Leonardo*, which integrate languages across all the curricula and actions they fund.

In 1996, the *Declaration of Barcelona* established the strategic lines for the subsequent years: Europe must become a knowledge-based society. In more explicit terms: wealth, in the future, will not come from agriculture or industry (as a matter of fact Europe, above all Western Europe, had not been an agricultural or industrial society for at least two decades), and it will not come from a finance-based society either, which is too volatile as the reiterated Wall Street crises demonstrated. In the coming 21st century, the document said, wealth and affluence are to be the products of knowledge. And the circulation of knowledge in Europe requires the mastery of several languages. People must learn languages and, above all, learn to learn languages. Each country must have linguistic access to research carried out in other countries without waiting for translation into English; academic and research communities must have the opportunity to meet and work together without relying only on English, the *lingua franca*; university students, i.e. the ruling class and scholars of the future, must go back to the Medieval tradition of *clerici vangantes*, and the knowledge of several national languages is the foundation of a knowledge-based society. Member states were urged to implement article 126 of the Treaty through *positive* action, i.e., they were asked to invest money and human resources in languages.

***In the coming 21st century, wealth and affluence are to be the products of knowledge. And the circulation of knowledge in Europe requires the mastery of several languages. People must learn languages and, above all, learn to learn languages.***

In 2000, the premiers of the fifteen states met in Lisbon and fixed an ambitious objective: to become the most competitive knowl-

edge-based society in the world by the end of the decade. To do so, once again, the importance of languages was highlighted, and the "European Year of Languages" was launched for the following year, 2001: a series of events that also involved the ten future members (the "Baltic republics", i.e., Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania; the western Slavonic countries: Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Slovenia; and then Hungary, Cyprus and Malta; Rumania and Bulgaria are supposed to become members later this decade).

In 2002 – by this time the *Common European Framework* quoted above had already been published and the *Language Portfolio* and official language certifications were spreading – the Barcelona declaration stated once more the instrumental role of languages in the creation of the cognitive society and set in progress the elaboration of the *Action Plan for Languages* to be adopted in 2003 (see below).

The development of increasingly precise focussing of the EU language policy had thus far been benchmarked by references to official documents and declarations. Yet, experience teaches that *declarations* – above all political *declarations* of general aims and objectives – sometimes do not correspond to *actions*. In language policy, however, European actions have outnumbered declarations, and by "action" we mean processes involving spending, budgets, mobility, control over expenditure, benchmarking and so on.

*Lingua*, as we said above, was the leading project, in this area. There are other actions where languages are considered a fundamental component; among them the most relevant are

1. *Socrates*, which has enhanced the collaboration among university researchers by providing funds covering both mobility and research as well as publication costs. The effect of this programme is invaluable: it has changed the perspective of European scholars by opening up possibilities that were unthought-of earlier. Among the many lines of research, two are



particularly interesting in our perspective:

- a) the research projects concerning intercomprehension among languages belonging respectively to the Romance, Germanic and Slavonic families, so that "knowing a language" may also mean "being able to understand a language even though one cannot speak it";
- b) the research projects aimed at providing language courses (most of them on the Internet) for university students involved in the Erasmus project and travelling to countries where lesser taught languages are spoken.

The project has had a tremendous impact. Consider that in 2000-2002, the Socrates program has funded:

- 1,601 joint language projects involving 58,500 pupils and 6,500 teachers;
  - 2,440 language assistantships; 16,563 in-service training grants for teachers of a foreign language;
  - 18 projects developing training tools and courses for language teachers;
  - intensive linguistic preparation courses in a less widely used and less taught languages for 3,632 Higher Education students;
  - 38 learning partnerships, and 12 cooperation projects to promote languages in adult education;
  - 33 projects developing new language learning or testing tools; and
  - 15 projects promoting awareness about the benefits of language learning and bringing language learning opportunities closer to citizens.
2. *Erasmus*, a university student exchange programme, which in March 2003 celebrated its one-millionth exchange student. Young people who receive money to go to a foreign university for some months (up to one year) do not only be-

come naturally plurilingual, but also pluricultural – in fact they receive a healthy culture shock at the peak of their formative years. And these are people who will make the upper middle class, and some of them the ruling class, in the next decades;

3. *Erasmus mundus*, started in 2003, is an evolution of the *Erasmus* programme described above: it aims at attracting master's degree students from non-EU countries, offering them substantial grants so that they choose Europe instead of the US for postgraduate study. Languages are, of course, a primary aspect of this project as young graduates applying for *Erasmus mundus* grants in Slovakia or Estonia or Italy or Sweden will end up by learning the languages spoken in these countries and will become "living ambassadors" of these cultures;
4. *Comenius* is a sort of *Erasmus* programme for schools instead of universities: exchanges involve teachers (not just language teachers), who must prepare specific curricula for the network of classes involved, and eventually engage students who visit their counterparts in other countries, after e-mailing and cooperating for two or three years. Of course, teacher and student exchanges require a common language, which is not only English as more and more classes study two foreign languages in Europe, and so the possibility of using languages other than English is becoming real.

There are other programmes which involve languages as a major sector of intervention, from *Leonardo*, which funds exchanges of young professionals (120,000 transnational placements, exchanges and study visits for people in training in 2000-2002), to *Grundtvig*, concerning continuing education (and many retired people start their new post-work life by studying a language – especially Portuguese, Spanish, Italian and Greek, *i.e.* the

language of sunny countries). And last but not least, the *European Social Fund*, which is the EU's higher expenditure chapter as far as training is concerned, and is meant for the qualification of unemployed people, of young people who have graduated in sectors where employment is difficult to find, of middle-aged workers who need retraining to find employment in new sectors, and so on. In all these cases, the main subjects taught with these funds are computer studies and languages.

### The 2004-2006 Action Plan for Languages

The title of the document, *The 2004-2006 Action Plan for Languages*, is self-explanatory: this is no longer a declaration but an action plan. It covers three years, and the fourth year, 2007, will be devoted to ascertain the attainment of the benchmarks stated in the action plan.

In this document, languages are not only dealt with on a quantitative basis (number of languages taught in the school system, number of students, and so on) but also on a qualitative basis, and this is quite new, because so far qualitative actions were proposed only under the Council of Europe umbrella, whereas the *Action Plan* is an EU initiative. It is not only the EU that takes up the initiative: it also clearly involves all the states:

It is the authorities in Member States who bear the primary responsibility for implementing the new push for language learning in the light of local circumstances and policies, within overall European objectives.

Among the most important qualitative elements of the *Action Plan*, the emphasis on life-long language learning must be highlighted:

- a. "*making an early start*: it is a priority for Member States to ensure that language learning in kindergarten and primary school is effective;
- b. *in secondary education or training* young people complete the acquisition of the essential core of skills that will serve them



- throughout a lifetime of language learning. Member States agree that pupils should master at least two foreign languages, with the emphasis on effective communicative ability: active skills rather than passive knowledge; “native speaker” fluency is not the objective, but appropriate levels of skill in reading, listening, writing and speaking in two foreign languages are required, together with intercultural competencies and the ability to learn languages whether with a teacher or alone;
- c. *Higher Education* institutions play a key role in promoting societal and individual multilingualism. Proposals that each university implement a coherent language policy clarifying its role in promoting language learning and linguistic diversity, both amongst its learning community and in the wider locality, are to be welcomed.
  - d. In non-anglophone countries recent trends to provide teaching in English may have unforeseen consequences on the vitality of the national language. University language policies should therefore include explicit actions to promote the national or regional language.
  - e. All students should study abroad, preferably in a foreign language, for at least one term, and should gain an accepted language qualification as part of their degree course;
  - f. *Every adult* should be encouraged to carry on learning foreign languages, and facilities should be made readily available to make this possible. Workers should have the opportunity to improve the language skills relevant to their working life;
  - g. Language learning is for everybody. Only a very small minority of people has physical, mental or other characteristics that make language learning impossible. Provision for *learners with special needs* can be further developed and new

methods and approaches need to be developed for the teaching of foreign languages to such learners;

- h. Promoting linguistic diversity means actively encouraging the teaching and learning of *the widest possible range of languages*. Taken as a whole, the range on offer should include the smaller European languages as well as all the larger ones, regional, minority and migrant languages as well as those with ‘national’ status, and the languages of our major trading partners throughout the world”.

And in all these cases, funds are provided in order to enhance good practices: which is more than a simple ‘declaration’.

### The idea underlying the language policy of the EU

The main idea is that national identities are absolute values for the Union, and “national identity” also includes regional languages – however limited the number of their speakers – which must be protected.

Should language diversity be considered only from a practical point of view, undoubtedly it would be regarded as a problem: twenty official languages used in official documents and in official meetings do not only mean additional costs, but also additional complexity in organisation, from logistics to interpreters and translators. Yet, “the respect of diversity is a founding principle of the UE” and thus the problem is no longer to be viewed as a “problem” but as one of the many facets of reality: Babel is one of the aspects of the complexity of the globalized world (Balboni 2002).

***Bilingualism is not to be considered as an exceptional situation but as the normal way of being in the 21st century.***

The bilingual personality is viewed as superior to the monolingual and monocultural one; the latter is self-referential, self-centred,

while the EU is a multi-centred “empire” and needs culturally open-minded citizens. A plurilingual person is better fitted for survival than a monolingual one in the new context envisaged by the knowledge-based society in a pluricultural and plurilingual continent.

In other words, bilingualism is not to be considered as an exceptional situation but as the normal way of being in the 21st century, as anticipated by Andrée Tabouret Keller in the 1980s; to use Anthony Mollica’s famous phrase, “monolingualism can be cured”, which implies that monolingualism is the disease, is the exception, and not the normal status of a healthy organism.

Above all, the idea underlying the language policy of both the EU and the Council of Europe is that the task of “curing” monolingualism, of healing monoculturalism, is not a problem that concerns only teachers, curriculum designers, but involves also the whole society, from Ministers of Education to local educational authorities, from legislators to the families which choose a school for their children.

### Language education issues deriving from the EU language policy

*The Threshold Level* project was concerned with *what* is to be taught, not with *how* it was taught. Yet, the fact of providing a syllabus made of communicative acts (or “functions”) and notions changed the *how*, which so far had mostly been set to the teaching of grammar. The notional-functional method would not have come to light without the *Threshold Levels*. The main idea of the project was that languages are taught in order to be used in communication – and idea which has been widened up in the *Common European Framework* and in the *Language Portfolio* to include many diverse types and levels of communication.

All the considerations above have methodological consequences – yet, the main consequence of the EU policy in language teaching is



more far reaching: of course it considers language as an instrument to communicate, in line with the orthodoxy of the communicative approach, but it also sees languages as

- a. *expressions* of a culture, and of cultural diversity. The latter is viewed as more important than mere linguistic diversity: England, Scotland, Ireland, the US and Australia speak the same language but are culturally very different, while the Swiss (at the moment out of the EU) speak four different languages but are culturally united;
- b. *instruments* to keep each culture alive. In other words, supporting Lithuanian or Danish is important for *cultural ecology* rather than for mere communicative reasons;
- c. *instruments* in the hands of speakers of other languages in order to explore other cultures, other worlds.

It is worthwhile writing a few lines to consider the innovative aspects of this idea of the language/culture relation.

In the 1930-40s the anthropologist Malinowsky and the (*ante litteram*) sociolinguist Firth highlighted the importance of the cultural element in the definition of the meaning of language, and in the 1950-60s Fishman and Lado pointed out that the "communicative situation" had a cultural element in it. Culture in these models was functional to language, to meaning, to comprehension, and it remained so in the 1970s, the decade dominated by Hymes in America (the theorician of "communicative events" and "communicative competence") and by Trim in Europe. Communication included a cultural element, although the key role was played by language. The underlying idea – not clearly expressed yet – in the EU language education policy is that language is instrumental to cultural diversity and to cultural maintenance (the two sides of the cultural coin), not viceversa.

In other words – although oversimplifying the notion: communication is ensured by the lingua franca, English, the language for *do-*

*ing things*, while the other languages are to be taught/learnt in order to be cultural keys leading into the 25 (or more, in the future) cultures of the Union: they are languages *for loving* a culture, not merely for communicating with it.

The role of English under this perspective is peculiar:

- a. on the one side it is a lingua franca – and lingua francas are very often little more than pidgins. EuroEnglish is now considered as a legitimate variety of English: it is based on a mixture of British and American English (the latter being the language of world wide mass media). It is not accurate as far as grammar is concerned (*e.g.*, not only do sophisticated features such as duration forms and hypothetical clauses become an option, but also the use of the auxiliary *do*, of the third person –s and so on); its lexicon is limited and the distinction between high register Latin-based words and colloquial Anglo-Saxon ones is lost.
- b. it has won the battle to become the language of world wide communication, but it has lost the war of being the vehicle of the English (and American) culture. Italian, Spanish, French and German (just to limit to the other "big languages" of tradition – but Russian, Portuguese and Polish wait for being inserted in the group) are to be taught and learnt in order to become keys to access cultures, ways of life, sets of values, while English is taught and learnt to be used in airports and company meetings.

The consequence of point "a" above is: "Which English is to be taught in schools?". The consequence of point "b" is "Why are we teaching English, what is the aim of this effort?".

There are other relevant issues. Just to list some:

- taking for granted that English is FL1, the first foreign language to be taught to everybody as early as possible, which languages are eligible by the students as FL2?

Only major European languages or also Lithuanian or Maltese, Gaelic or Latvian?

- who chooses which FL2 is going to be offered in a country, in a local education authority, in a school, in a class?
- who pays for the teaching of very small enrolments in languages? Lesser taught languages such as German or Italian have a market large enough to support the production of good teaching material and to justify the cost of teacher training institutions – but what about Estonian or Slovakian, Slovenian or Finnish? Large and rich countries are investing money to support the teaching of their languages in other member states of the Union. Smaller or poorer countries cannot lobby or invest as easily as the ones listed above. Who – if any – is going to provide money and support in order to increase the opportunity for small languages to be taught in schools?
- content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is highlighted as one of the main ways of enhancing language study in schools: while it is likely that biology or art teachers speak English fairly well to use it during (a part of) their teaching, how long will it take before school staffs include teachers able to use other languages, especially the lesser spoken ones? In-service training is needed in this field. Who will pay for it?

The EU language education policy is abundantly clear as far as main lines are concerned. Its philosophy is extremely clear cut. There are no doubts about the view of Europe as a plurilingual and pluricultural entity. Yet it is only beginning to turn these main lines into action: the *Action plan 2004-2006* is just the first step in a road which appears still long and winding and blurred. The effort to make it easier and more precise will take the next years of language policy makers and of scholars in the field of language education and language teaching. (see Balboni 2002 for further discussion about this road to Babel).



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## Threshold levels for the different languages

(the authors all in fact 'editors')

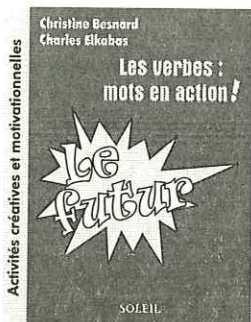
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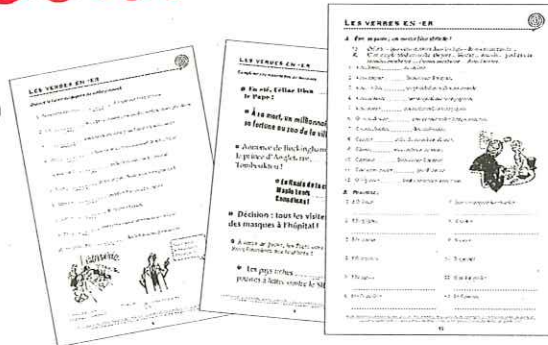
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*Anthony Mollica, Frank Nuessel and  
Aristófanés Cedeño*

## Current Trends and Issues in Service-Learning in the Spanish Curriculum

*Service-learning allows students to apply knowledge acquired in the classroom to real-life situations. It is a form of community service that benefits all participants through practical and useful projects. It is experiential learning in its truest form. This article defines it, enumerates the four stages of a project, reviews the growing literature, and notes a few exemplary programs.*

### Introduction

In her article on service-learning in this journal, Overfield (1997: 11) points out that

[i]n an effort to expand the traditional classroom space and emphasize the role of both the individual and the institution in communities, colleges and universities have been working to implement what is known as 'service-learning' in their curricula.

She further states that [s]ervice learning... offers students a chance to provide a service to members of their communities by allowing them to apply theoretical knowledge to practical situations."

In her essay, Overfield describes a specific service-learning project that she carried out in an intermediate Spanish class at Chattham College in Pennsylvania. Since the relatively recent publication of Overfield's article in 1997, there has been an explosion of interest and creative projects in service-learning in general and in Spanish in particular which we shall discuss here.

Though its roots may be traced to John Dewey (1916), Paolo Freire (1970) and others, service-learning is a relatively new introduction to the curriculum as reflected in the rather recent publication dates of the general literature about it (Barber and Battistoni 1993, Cone and

Harris 1996, Cummings 2000, Erickson and Anderson 1997, Eyster and Giles 1999, Harkavy and Benson 1998, Mills 2001, O'Grady 2000, Overfield 1997, Stanton, Giles and Cruz 1999).

At the same time, the body of literature concerning service-learning in the Spanish curriculum is, to a certain extent, even more recent, as it expands into a meaningful body of theoretical and practical pedagogical research (ACTFL 1996, Beebe and Da Costa 1993, Hellebrandt and Varona 1999, Hellebrandt, Arries and Varona 2004, Klein 2002, Varona 1999b, Weldon and Trautmann 2003; see also Hale 1999a, and Tilley-Lubbs 2004 for annotated bibliographies for service-learning).

In this paper, we will address four topics:

1. a definition and description of service-learning;
2. the four stages of a service-learning project;
3. a discussion of the burgeoning literature on service-learning in the Spanish curriculum; and
4. specific domains of service-learning in the Spanish curriculum.

### Definition

Joseph A. Erickson and Jeffrey B. Anderson (1997: 1) define succinctly service-learning as

... a pedagogical technique for

combining authentic community service with integrated academic outcomes.

Timberlake (1998: 13) cites the Corporation for National Service: Learn and Serve America Application Guidelines whose definition of service-learning provides a more comprehensive perspective:

Service-learning relies on an innovative method of teaching and learning that integrates community service activities into academic curricula. Within service learning, classroom studies complement service within the community and enable students to reflect upon and lead to addressing local and national problems. Service-learning curricula enlarge the learning arena of students from the classroom to the community. Coordinated and thoughtful activities encourage students to prepare and reflect on issues in ways that permit them to use their academic skills to deliver effective service to the community, allowing service learning to transform students from passive learners into active learners and community members who responsible actions and service efforts renew and change the landscape of their communities. Service learning not only changes the way students learn, but it changes society's view of education and service. In this sense, service-learning is a philosophy of education and service to the community.

Any unique definition of service-learning tends to be elusive. The following observations about service learning are from Stanton, Giles and Cruz (1999). They (Stanton, Giles and Cruz (1999: 2) observe that

[s]ervice-learning joins two complex concepts: community action, the 'service,' and efforts to learn from that action and connect what is learning to existing knowledge, the 'learning.'

Moreover, Stanton, Giles and Cruz (1999: 2) note that the following is the earliest definition of service learning:

... the accomplishment of tasks that meet genuine human needs in combination with genuine ed-



ucational growth....

Stanton (1987: 4) also states that

... service-learning appears to be an approach to experiential learning, an expression of values – service to others, community development and empowerment, reciprocal learning – which determines the purpose, nature and process of social and educational exchange between learners and the people they serve, and between experiential educational programs and the community organizations with which they work.

Finally, Stanton, Giles and Cruz (1999: 4) specify the service-learning slogan which is

I serve you in order that I may learn from you. You accept my service in order that you may teach me.

Weldon and Trautmann (2003: 574) cite O'Grady (2000: 7) who states that

[i]n a service learning program, individuals engage in community activities in a context of rigorous academic experience. Service learning allows teachers to employ a variety of teaching strategies that emphasize student-centered, interactive, experiential education.

These same authors (Weldon and Trautmann 2003: 574) also cite Weigert (1998: 5) who states that

[o]n the community side: the student provides some meaningful service (work), that meets the need or goal, that is defined by a community (or some of its members). On the campus side: the service provided by the student flows from and into the course objectives, is integrated into the course by means of assignments that require some form of reflection on the service in light of course objectives, and the assignment is assessed and evaluated accordingly.

Weldon and Trautmann (2003: 575) make two additional important points about service-learning in the curriculum. They refer to Sigmon (1979: 10) who states that there are three basic principles:

Principle one: Those being served control the service(s) provided; Principle two: Those being served become better able to serve and be served by their own actions; Principle three: Those who serve are also learners...

The ACTFL Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century (1996) present five basic principles for second-language education (see Appendix for a complete enumeration) commonly called the five "C's" (communication, cultures, connections, comparisons, communities). Service-learning is a pedagogical strategy that addresses all five of these basic components of the national standards either directly or indirectly (see Weldon and Trautmann 2003: 579-581).

In the description of her course entitled "Crossing the Border through Service-Learning," Tiley-Lubbs (2204: 52) enumerates the following principles of service-learning reproduced here, namely, it:

1. Engages people in responsible and challenging actions for the common good.
2. Provides structured opportunities for people to reflect critically on their service experience.
3. Articulates clear service and learning goals for everyone involved.
4. Allows those with needs to articulate those needs.
5. Clarifies the responsibilities of each person and organization involved.
6. Matches service providers and service needs through a process that recognizes changing circumstances.
7. Expects genuine, active, and sustained organizational commitment.
8. Includes training, supervision, monitoring, support, recognition, and evaluation to meet service learning goals.
9. Insures that the time commitment for service and learning is flexible, appropriate, and in the best interests of all involved.
10. Is committed to program par-

ticipation by and with diverse populations.

Hale (1999b: 13) cites Slimbach (1995: 10) who enumerates specific academic and humanitarian objectives for language and culture learning in a service-learning program.

1. Expand students' awareness and understanding of social problems and their ability to express or personally respond to such problems.
2. Enable students to learn from a different segment of society than that which he or she would normally interact with.
3. Break down racial and cultural barriers through the process of students' reaching out and building bridges between different demographic groups.
4. Introduce students to an experiential style of learning.
5. Teach students the meaning of service, patience, cross-cultural understanding, interdependence, humility, and simplicity.
6. Teach students tools for self-evaluation and critical analysis of institutions, social systems, and their own contribution to and effect on a given community.
7. Further the acquisition of a foreign language, when working in or with another culture.

Overfield (1997: 13) specifies four challenges to the development and implementation of a service-learning program reproduced, in part, here.

1. Scheduling problems.
2. Students finding it difficult to overcome tendencies toward shyness in talking to strangers in social situations.
3. Transportation problems.
4. Continuing the program [Certain strategic aspects of a program mean that the instructor must keep in constant contact with the community agency].

Despite the occasional challenges of a service-learning component, Overfield (1997: 12-13) notes the following benefits of such a program.

1. Learners become more aware of



the communicative value of the target language as they use it in authentic situations where each speaker is engaged in the outcome of the interaction.

2. Learners have opportunities to reflect on their own learning and thus are given a more active role in the learning process.
3. Language learning is done in context.
4. Learners are literally taken out of the classroom space and into another venue. This gives them the opportunity to experience the dynamic, crucial role of language in the construction of social identity.
5. There is a two-way interaction between the community and the academic institution as both look at ways to improve the services and education they offer. The concept of 'ivory tower' becomes obsolete as the students apply what they learn in the community to their classroom experience and vice-versa. Similarly, the community agency that sponsors the students receives the practical benefits of the proximity of the college or university.

### Stages of a Service-Learning Project

Kim Johnson, the University of Louisville's service-learning coordinator, provides a "Service Learning Planning Guide" (n.d) that outlines four phases of a project:

1. preparation;
2. action;
3. reflection; and
4. celebration/culminating project.

The four stages of a service-learning project are critical to the success of a service-learning project.

Preparation requires making all of the necessary contacts (Service Learning Coordinator, community needs, project design, contact with selected agencies, preparation of students for the project).

The second, or action stage, entails the creation of a learning con-

tract between instructor, student and agency, specification of goals and responsibilities of the project, appropriate procedures, completion of a student release form.

The third stage involves reflection that includes pre-reflection, reflection and post-reflection activities. Critical reflection is a vital component of any service-learning program. For a service-learning experience to be meaningful, reflective contemplation of the experience is necessary. (Weldon and Trautmann 2003: 577-579, Boyle and Overfield 1999: 142-143; see also Richards and Lockhart 1996 for reflective teaching assessment). Eyler and Giles (1999: 171-177) argue that reflection is essential to the service-learning experience. Critical reflection entails, among other things, maintaining a journal or diary to document each service-learning encounter. In this journal, the student should indicate what he or she did during the time allocated to this activity. Subsequently, the student should indicate the positive and negative aspects of the encounter.

Finally, there is the celebration, or culminating project, which will include the sharing of the results with the other students and the subsequent publicizing of the project.

### Current Studies in Spanish Service-Learning in the Spanish Curriculum

Two anthologies on service-learning in the Spanish curriculum now exist. The first is *Construyendo Puentes (Building Bridges). Concepts and Models and Models for Service-Learning in Spanish* edited by Josef Hellebrandt and Lucía T. Varona (1999). The second is *Juntos: Community Partnerships in Spanish and Portuguese* edited by Josef Hellebrandt, Jonathan Arries and Lucía Varona (2004). Both provide excellent theoretical, practical and pedagogical materials for the Spanish curriculum.

*Construyendo Puentes (Building Bridges). Concepts and Models for Service-Learning in Spanish* contains three sections:

1. Service-learning as theory (Hale 1999b, Arries 1999, Mullaney 1999, Varona 1999a);
2. Service-learning from the classroom (Baldwin, Díaz-Greenberg, and Keating 1999, Irizarry 1999, Lizardi-Rivera, 1999, Varas 1999, and Boyle and Overfield 1999); and
3. Service-learning in local and international communities (Darias, Gómez, Hellebrandt, Loomis, Orendain, and Quezada 1999, Smith 1999, and Strang 1999).

The newly published AATSP volume on service-learning features four distinct sections prefaced by an overview (Hellebrandt 2004a):

1. theoretical context (Olazagasti-Segovia 2004, Jorge 2004, Lesman 2004, Tilley-Lubbs 2004b);
2. sharing experiences (Bennett 2004, Varona and Bauluz 2004, Cockerham, Nelson and Anderson 2004, Bruno 2004, Kaplan and Pérez-Gamboa 2004);
3. Cross-disciplinary perspectives (Weldon and Sigmon 2004, Julseth 2004, Díaz-Barriga 2004, Reseigh Long and Morgan 2004, Kennedy and Pedras 2004); and
4. technology-aided perspectives and service-learning resources (Hellebrandt and Messner 2004, Kennedy and Hellebrandt 2004, Hellebrandt 2004b, Varona 2004, Tilley-Lubbs 2004a).

### Service Learning and the Spanish Curriculum

Olazagasti-Segovia (2004: 13) notes that the "bibliography about the relationship between service-learning and Spanish second language acquisition is still very scarce." Nevertheless, this situation is undergoing rapid change as evidenced by publication of two anthologies on service-learning (Hellebrandt and Varona 1999, Hellebrandts, Arries and Varona 2004), the bibliographies included therein (Hale 1999a, Tilley-Lubbs 2004a) and a few articles in *Hispania* (Beebe and Da Costa 1993, Varona 1999b, Weldon and Trautmann 2003).

Many of the existing studies



about service-learning in the Spanish curriculum make it clear that the types of service-learning opportunities are plentiful and diverse. The following list exemplifies some of the possibilities. The following articles illustrate how to integrate service-learning into the Spanish curriculum.

1. Health Care (Weldon and Trautmann 2003).
2. Translation (Lizardi-Rivera 1999).
3. Migrant education programs (Varas 1999).
4. Summer camp (Bennett 2004).
5. Elementary school (Kaplan and Pérez-Gamboa 2004).
6. Hispanic achievement (Julseth 2004).
7. Social services (Díaz-Barriga 2004).
8. Community service (Beebe and Da Costa 1993).

### Concluding Remarks

The AATSP provides an outstanding and constantly updated website (on its service-learning programs (see also Kennedy and Hellebrandt 2004).

Carol E. Klein, Executive Director of the AATSP (2002) enumerated an extensive list of specific projects that AATSP had carried out from 1998 to 2002 in the area of service-learning for the Hispanic and Luso-Brazilian communities (Klein 2002: 195-196). *Hispania* has published four articles on service-learning (Beebe and Da Costa 1993, Klein 2002, Varona 1999b, Weldon and Trautmann 2003) and it will continue to do so in future issues of that AATSP journal.

Finally, certain academic institutions have become leaders in service-learning programs in Spanish. The first in this area is the University of Southern California, while others include Santa Clara University, Marquette University, The University of North Carolina at Asheville. The rapidly increasing interest in service-learning in the Spanish curriculum means that reports of innovative projects will continue at an ever-increasing rate.

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## Appendix

### Standards for Language Learning

#### Communication

#### Communicate in Languages Other than English

##### Standard 1.1:

Students engage in conversations, provide and obtain information, express feelings and emotion, and exchange opinions.

##### Standard 1.2:

Students understand and interpret written and spoken language on a variety of topics.

##### Standard 1.3:

Students present information, concepts, and ideas to an audience of listeners or readers on a variety of topics.

#### Cultures

#### Gain Knowledge and Understanding of Other Cultures

##### Standard 2.1:

Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the culture studied.

##### Standard 2.2:

Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practice and perspectives of the culture studied.

#### Connections

#### Connect with Other Disciplines and Acquire Information

##### Standard 3.1:

Students reinforce and further their knowledge of other disciplines through the foreign language.

##### Standard 3.2:

Students acquire information and recognize the distinctive viewpoints that are only available through the foreign language and its cultures.

#### Comparisons

#### Develop Insight into the Nature of Language and Culture

##### Standard 4.1:

Students demonstrate understanding of the nature of language through comparisons of the language studied and their own.



**Standard 4.2:**

Students demonstrate understanding of the concept of culture through comparisons of the cultures studied and their own.

**Communities**

**Participate in Multilingual Communities at Home and Around the World**

**Standard 5.1:**

Students use the language both within and beyond the school setting.

**Standard 5.2:** Students show evidence of becoming lifelong learners by using the language for personal enjoyment and enrichment.

Source: *Standards for Foreign Language Learning* (1996: 9).

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60 schede fotocopiables  
per attivare e ampliare  
il vocabolario di base della lingua italiana

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John J. Janc

## Teaching French Using Mnemonic Devices

*Mnemonic devices can make learning a foreign language more enjoyable by helping students understand, master and remember many grammatical concepts.*

**M**nemonic devices are basically memory aides. I have always found them useful as have those who take my classes. When trying to create one, teachers should never hesitate to give free reign to their imagination. They must play with the letters and, when necessary, look for other examples that fit the rule under consideration. Sometimes one really must "cheat" a little. Words may have to be repeated or letters used that do not fit the acronym. Teachers should regularly repeat the devices in class and should require students to memorize them when feasible. Very often, after having taught one, I give extra credit on the next quiz to those who are able to reproduce the device and explain the grammatical point that it illustrates. I then require everyone to know it by heart for the following quiz or examination. Some devices may appeal to the ear, others to the eye. Some need to be used in conjunction with another one in order to make sense. The reader will find examples of these different points below.

### Adjectives

This is the traditional device used to help students remember what adjectives normally precede the noun.

- **B**eauty: *beau, joli, vilain*
- **A**ge: *jeune, nouveau, vieux*
- **N**umber: *premier, dernier, deuxième*
- **G**oodness: *bon, gentil, mauvais, méchant, vilain*
- **S**ize: *court, haut, grand, gros, long, petit*

Here is a French version of the preceding one.

- **T**aillage: *court, haut, grand, gros, long, petit*
- **Â**ge: *jeune, nouveau, vieux*

- **N**ombre: *premier, dernier, deuxième*
- **C**aractère: *bon, gentil, mauvais, méchant, vilain*
- **A**utre: *autre*
- **B**eauté: *beau, joli, vilain*

I have also used "BIG MAC" to supplement the preceding two.

- BIG
- **M**ême
  - **A**utre
  - **C**haque

### Adverbs

This device is visual in nature and is designed to help students remember that "mieux," not "meilleur," is the irregular comparative form of "bien."

- **b**IEu
- **m**IEux

### Adverbs of Quantity

These adverbs of quantity are followed only by "de."

- **P**lus
- **U**n peu
- **T**ant

- **M**oins
- **A**utant
- **T**rop

in a

- **C**ombien
- **A**ssez
- **B**eaucoup

### Definite Articles

These verbs are never followed by the partitive.

- **P**référer
- **A**dorer

- **H**âir
- **A**imer
- **D**étester

### Indefinite Articles

Two versions for this device exist because one of them may offend some people. If the predicate nominative is not modified, one uses the appropriate subject pronoun: "il(s), elle(s)." If it is modified, one uses "ce(c')."

Il est Français.

C'est un Français.

Elles sont ingénieurs.

Ce sont de bonnes ingénieurs.

- **P**arti politique
- **O**ccupation
- **R**eligion
- **N**ationalité

- **C**itoyen(neté)
- **R**eligion
- **O**ccupation
- **P**arti politique

### Indirect and Direct Object

#### Pronouns

The Three "As"

The three "As" are used when teaching direct objects ("compléments d'objet direct" or COD in French) because they help students recognize them. If an object is preceded by one of these words and nothing else, it is direct. If one of these words is preceded by a preposition or if there is a number, a partitive, an expression of quantity, etc. before the noun, a direct object pronoun cannot be used.

A COD:

Nous chantons l'/cet/ton air.

Not a COD:

Nous jouons avec tes amis.

Nous lisons trois poèmes/des poèmes/beaucoup de ces poèmes.

- **A**rticle défini
- **A**djectif possessif
- **A**djectif démonstratif

This device is meant to help students learn the pattern in question. Because of its length, they are not asked to memorize it. It can be used several times: to introduce the direct-object indirect-object pattern, to teach direct object replacement, to teach indirect object placement, to teach double pronoun replacement and to teach past participle agreement.

- **D**avoir quelque chose à quelqu'un
- **A**tttribuer quelque chose à quelqu'un



- un
- **D**emander quelque chose à quelqu'un

- **R**aconter
- **E**xpliquer
- **A**cheter
- **D**ire

- **S**ervir
- **P**rêter
- **É**crire
- **E**nvoyer
- **D**onner

- **M**ontrer
- **A**pporter
- **I**ndiquer
- **L**ire

### Prepositions

The following verbs require these prepositions in French.

- **S**ortir de
- **P**artir de
- **E**ntre dans
- **E**ntre dans
- **D**iriger (se) vers

- **M**onter dans
- **D**escendre de

These verbs are not followed by a preposition in French.

- **C**hercher
- **R**egarder
- **A**ttendre
- **P**ayer
- **É**couter
- **D**évisager

"RED CAP" is another version of this acronym. Some teachers replace "dévisager" by "demander." My students generally prefer the first one because of the way it sounds (it is meant to rime with the English pronunciation of "crêpe.")

In the passive, when describing a state of being, these past participles are followed by "de."

La route est bordée d'arbres.

La piscine est remplie d'eau.

- **B**ordé de
- **R**empli de
- **U**
- **C**ouvert de
- **E**ntouré de

These verbs are followed by the preposition "à."

- **A**ssister
- **T**éléphoner

- **R**épondre
- **O**béir
- **O**béir
- **P**oser une question
- **É**chouer
- **R**éussir

When these verbs are followed by an infinitive, no preposition is used.

- **A**ller

- **D**étester
- **E**spérer
- **A**dorer
- **D**ésirer

- **A**imer
- **P**référer
- **E**ntendre

When these verbs are followed by an infinitive, the preposition "de" is used.

- **P**arler
- **E**ssayer
- **A**ccepter
- **C**esser
- **É**viter

- **C**hoisir
- **O**ublier
- **R**efuser
- **P**romettre
- **S'**arrêter

When these verbs are followed by an infinitive, the preposition "à" is used.

- **C**ommencer
- **H**ésiter
- **I**nviter
- **R**enoncer
- **A**rriver
- **C**ontinuer

### Nouns

The following nouns are masculine in the singular, feminine in the plural. "ADO" is short for "adolescent" in French.

- **A**mour
- **D**élice
- **O**rgue

### Pronouns

#### Disjunctive Pronouns

After one of these verbs, a disjunctive pronoun is used to replace a proper name or a noun designating a person.

Je pense à Paul.

Je pense à lui.

Je tiens à ma mère.

Je tiens à elle.

- **P**enser à
- **Ê**tre à
- **T**enir à

After one of these verbs, a disjunctive pronoun is used to replace a proper name or a noun designating a person. Students should be told who Édith Piaf was and that the word also means "sparrow."

- **P**réserver (se) à
- **I**ntéresser (s') à
- **A**dresser (s') à
- **F**ier (se) à

### Adverbial Pronouns

This device and the one that follows are based largely on sound association. Both are to be pronounced like the Japanese currency.

When "en" and all other prepositions other than "de" are followed by a noun designating a place, they are replaced by the pronoun "y."

Elles vont en France/à Paris/au concert. Elles y vont.

- **Y**en

When "de" is followed by a noun designating a place, it is replaced by the pronoun "en."

Ils arrivent du Portugal/de Rome/du match. Ils en arrivent.

- **D**en

The pronoun "en" is used to replace a word following one of these words or expressions.

- **A**dverbe de quantité

- **N**uméro
- **E**xpression de quantité
- **E**xpression indéterminée
- **D**e

When teaching the order of pronouns, students rarely forget that "y" always precedes "en" when they are told to think about the Japanese currency "yen."

### Verbs

#### Auxiliary Verbs

When one of these verbs is followed by an object, "avoir" is used.

J'ai passé un examen. Nous avons monté les marches.

- **P**asser
- **U**
- **R**entrer
- **R**etourner
- **S**ortir

- **M**onter



- **D**escendre

This is a common device used to designate verbs conjugated with "être." Many textbooks also use the "house of 'être'" to teach this grammatical point. They present a picture of a house with individuals illustrating many of the verbs: arriving, entering, going upstairs, coming downstairs, leaving.

- **D**escendre
- **R**etourner

**&**

- **M**ourir
- **R**ester
- **S**ortir

- **V**enir
- **A**ller
- **N**aitre

- **D**evenir
- **E**ntre
- **R**evenir

- **T**omber
- **R**entrer
- **A**rriver
- **M**onter
- **P**artir
- **P**asser

### Spelling and Accent Changes

#### Shoe/Boot/L-Shaped Verbs

This device is visual in nature. Students must imagine what a boot, a high top shoe or an "L" looks like. Teachers can draw one of each on the board. The first, second and third person singular and the third person plural forms require the same change in the present tense (both indicative and subjunctive).

- comme espérer:  
*célébrer, posséder, préférer, protéger, répéter, révéler, suggérer, etc.*
- comme essayer:  
*employer, ennuyer, essayer, nettoyer, payer, etc.*
- comme acheter:  
*achever, élever, geler, lever, mener, peser, promener, etc.*
- comme jeter et appeler:  
*chanceler, épeler, projeter, etc.*

This device is oral in nature and is taught in conjunction with the next one. When the letter "g" is followed by an "a" or an "o," one adds an "e" after the "g." It is generally used when teaching verbs.

### Ago

When the letter "c" is followed by an "a" or an "o," one adds a cedilla to the "c." It, too, is generally used when teaching verbs.

### Aco

#### Irregular Conjugations

In the present tense, these verbs are conjugated as a verb from the first group is.

- **A**ccueillir
- **C**ouvrir
- **O**ffrir
- **O**uvrir
- **R**edécouvrir
- **S**ouffrir

One uses the first three letters of the infinitive to form the present singular, the first four letters to form the plural.

- **M**entir
- **I**
- **S**ortir
- **S**entir

- **D**ormir
- **I**
- **P**artir
- **S**ervir

### Negation

The second part of the negation ("pas") can be dropped with these verbs in certain situations. This device is meant to help students recognize a full negation when reading literary texts.

- **C**esser
- **O**ser
- **P**ouvoir
- **S**avoir

### Conjunctions

The conjunction "à ce que" is used after these verbs.

Je tiens à ce que tu fasses la vaisselle.

- **s'**Opposer
- **s'**Attendre
- **T**enir

### Tenses

Even though there is no conjunction that begins with "g," this device is most helpful when teaching students that when one verb is in the present, the other is in the present and that when one is in the future, the other is in the future. At this point, they have not learned the future perfect.

- **G** Quand

- **L**orsque
- **A**ussitôt que
- **D**ès que

- **P**endant que
- **A**ussitôt que
- **T**ant que

The association of these two words occasionally helps students to know when to use the imperfect tense.

[Imparfait = Description] I.D.

If "was" or "were" can be used in English to translate the French verb, the imperfect is required.

- **W**as/Were
- **I**
- **M**
- **P**

This device is used in conjunction with the preceding one. The verb that directly follows the conjunction "pendant que" must be in the imperfect. The verb in the independent clause can be in either the imperfect or the preterit, depending upon the meaning of the sentence.

Pendant que tu dormais, je dormais aussi.

Pendant que tu dormais, j'ai regardé la télé et j'ai fait la vaisselle.

- **P**endant que
- **I**
- **M**
- **P**

The imperfect is used with the following verbs or in the following situations.

- **H**eur
- **U**sed to

- **W**AS

- **P**endant que
- **É**motion
- **A**ction habituelle
- **V**enir de
- **É**motion
- **D**escription

Keith Mason (1996: 16) suggests this device for helping students know when to use the imperfect while narrating in the past.

- **C**ontinuous actions
- **H**abitual Actions
- **E**motions
- **A**ge
- **T**ime



- **E**ndless Actions
- **D**escriptions

Constance Knop (1971: 341) offers this acronym for the use of the imperfect.

- **R**epeated
- **I**nterrupted
- **C**ontinual or Continuing
- **H**abitual

After my students understand that a "si" clause in the present can be followed by the present, the future or an imperative, I repeat the following statements in order to help them remember the other sequences of tenses.

1. Temps simple d'un côté, temps simple de l'autre. Terminaisons de l'imparfait d'un côté, terminaisons de l'imparfait de l'autre.  
Si j'avais faim, je mangerais quelque chose.
2. Temps composé d'un côté, temps composé de l'autre. Terminaisons de l'imparfait d'un côté, terminaisons de l'imparfait de l'autre.  
Si j'avais eu soif, j'aurais bu quelque chose.

### Moods

The pleonastic or expletive "ne" is used after these conjunctions.

### Camp

de **C**rainte que **A**vant que à **M**oins que de **P**eur que

The pleonastic or expletive "ne" is used after these verbs.

### Crap

**C**raindre **R**edouter **A**voir **P**eur

Knop suggests this acronym when teaching the subjunctive.

- **W**ill: souhaiter, vouloir; il est souhaitable, il faut
- **E**motion: être content, heureux, ravi; il est dommage, triste
- **D**esire: aimer, désirer, souhaiter
- **D**oubt: douter, il est douteux, ne pas être sûr, certain, clair
- **I**nterrogative: Croyez-vous, Pensez-vous, Trouvez-vous, Est-il sûr, certain, clair  
[Impersonal expressions: il est bon, essentiel, naturel, utile]
- **N**egation: ne pas croire, penser, trouver, ne pas être sûr, certain, clair
- **G**eneral characteristics for things or people that one is not sure exists: avoir besoin, chercher, existe-t-il, y a-t-il, Superlative

According to Knop (1971: 340), "The teacher may add that in a wedding two different persons are involved (reinforcing the idea of the subjunctive being used only with two different subjects) and that in French the 'ring' that joins these two separate people in the wedding is que".

Mnemonic devices are very useful when teaching a new concept. Since they are primarily descriptive in nature, students must be given ample opportunity to internalize them. After they have had sufficient

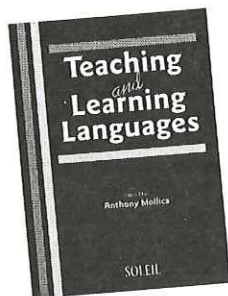
work with the principle involved, they will first develop monitors that lead to automatic self-correction and finally to errorless use of it. This is, after all, the ultimate goal of language instruction.

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## Teaching and Learning Languages



BK-113

- ✓ recognize the importance of language teaching and learning
- ✓ acknowledge the important role of the student and teacher and parent
- ✓ identify the students' anxiety and offer practical suggestions for studying
- ✓ discuss classroom environment
- ✓ provide practical teaching techniques which will assist teachers in their day-to-day teaching activity
- ✓ highlight the partnership between home and school
- ✓ identify the fundamentals of second-language teaching
- ✓ focus on the teaching of a specific point of grammar
- ✓ propose vocabulary expansion
- ✓ emphasize the fun element in language teaching
- ✓ identify methods and approaches to language teaching
- ✓ assess the neuroscientific interest of second-language educators
- ✓ suggest caveats with print and non-print materials
- ✓ evaluate visuals in the classroom
- ✓ offer suggestions for creative activities
- ✓ focus on three of the language skills: speaking reading, writing, as well as on culture and body language
- ✓ discuss the importance of evaluation
- ✓ and conclude with background information on North American cultural festivities

Selected from the first five volumes of **Mosaic**, these forty-seven practical and theoretical chapters, written by distinguished North American second-language scholars, are invaluable professional readings for both beginning and seasoned teachers.

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