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Trabajo Fin de Grado

**Strategies in the
learning of english
as a foreign
language**

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Abstract. Starting from the concept of communicative competence and, particularly, that of strategic competence, this project is aimed at explaining learning strategies used in the acquisition of a foreign language, offering an overview of the different types of strategies, their main features, and their classification, by distinguishing those which are oriented to acquire knowledge (learning strategies) from those intended to communicate (communicative strategies). As learning strategies are actions developed by learners to make the learning process easier and enjoyable, they are conscious actions chosen by them and play an active role in the learning process. Furthermore, the strategies may affect learning both directly and indirectly and contribute to the main goal of communicative competence.

Key words: communicative competence, strategic competence, learning strategies, communicative strategies, direct strategies, indirect strategies.

Resumen. Partiendo del concepto de competencia comunicativa y, particularmente, de la competencia estratégica, el objetivo principal de este proyecto es explicar las diferentes estrategias usadas por los alumnos en la adquisición de una lengua extranjera, ofreciendo una visión general de los tipos de estrategias, sus características principales y su clasificación, dependiendo de si son usadas en el proceso de aprendizaje de la lengua (estrategias de aprendizaje) o a la hora de comunicarse en la lengua adquirida (estrategias comunicativas). Puesto que las estrategias de aprendizaje son acciones llevadas a cabo por los estudiantes con el objetivo que hacer más fácil y entretenido el proceso de aprendizaje, estas estrategias son operaciones conscientes y seleccionadas por los alumnos, y juegan un papel activo en la adquisición de la lengua. Además, dichas estrategias pueden afectar bien directa o indirectamente al proceso de aprendizaje, así como contribuir al fin principal del mismo: la competencia comunicativa.

Palabras clave: competencia comunicativa, estrategias comunicativas, estrategias de aprendizaje, estrategias directas, estrategias indirectas.

1. INTRODUCTION

When we talk about strategies used in the acquisition of a foreign language, we are making reference to the stratagems learners use to learn something in that language; in other words, what they do in order to learn irregular verbs in English, for example. Moreover, it may also refer to the plans the teachers employ to make students learn something.

In this sense, I consider the different strategies that learners use in language acquisition as well as the ones used by teachers interesting. Some of the subjects in the Degree related to Didactics and Applied Linguistics made me aware of these strategies; particularly, the subject *Materiales y Recursos para la Enseñanza del Inglés* and my practical training period in the *Centro de Estudios Avanzados en Lenguas Modernas* (CEALM), where I had to run some lessons and I bore in mind the student's perspective when preparing them. I believe that if teachers know the different learning strategies used by the students, they may help their students in the process of learning. Thus, this project will be aimed at explaining different strategies in the learning process, focussing on the learner's perspective.

Therefore, by means of this project I would like to offer a complete picture of how learners usually learn and how they solve learning problems, and also how teachers proceed. Thanks to this, as a future teacher, I will be able to move my teaching toward students' necessities, trying to help them as much as possible in the process of learning and making them succeed.

For this purpose, a bibliographical review together with a practical approach have been done in order to offer a complete image of strategies utilized in the acquisition of a foreign language. Moreover, the project is divided into several main chapters, starting with this Introduction (chapter 1). Chapter 2 sets strategies in context within the learning process, moving from the concept of *communicative competence* to *strategic competence*. Then, chapter 3 concentrates on strategies in second language acquisition, defining them and explaining their different types. Thus, on the one hand, chapter 4 develops *learning strategies* in detail, distinguishing between direct and indirect strategies, classifying them and giving some examples. On the other hand, chapter 5 describes *communicative strategies* dividing them into reduction strategies and achievement strategies, which expand the message reformulating it. Furthermore, chapter 6 illustrates several strategies mentioned throughout the previous chapters by means of a textbook used in Secondary Education. Chapter 7 collects the conclusions drawn in the different chapters of the project and chapter 8 lists the different references used. Finally, chapter 9 contains the annexes related to the practical application (chapter 6) and those required for this project.

2. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

In the 21st century, within a global world in which we are all connected, it is important to speak more than one language; since people all over the world do not speak the same language, it is not enough to know just one's mother tongue. People learn foreign languages for different purposes: travelling, getting a better job, surfing on Internet, meeting new people, etc; all those reasons with communication as a common end. Thus, the main goal in language learning is communication, that is, language acquisition is aimed at developing communicative competence in the new language.

In language learning, Chomsky (1957) distinguishes between *competence* and *performance*, in other words, the knowledge students have about the language and how they put that knowledge into practice. Chomsky understands by *linguistic competence* the student's knowledge of the language system considering its internal structure and mechanical aspects; while by *linguistic performance* he means the utilization of the language in real life situations, where emissary and receiver interchange messages encoding and decoding the language (cf. Pérez, 1996: 315). Knowing this, it is worth noticing that both linguistic competence and linguistic performance may not be at the same level sometimes. For instance, it might be the case that students have a lot of knowledge of vocabulary related to cooking (action verbs, ingredients, tools for cooking, and so on); nevertheless, they fail when the teacher asks them to explain the rest of the class how they make a carrot cake.

Bachman (1990: 81) regards these two concepts, competence and performance, as essential elements for communication to occur; stating that "the ability to use language communicatively involves both knowledge of the language, and the capacity for implementing, or using this competence". Thus, *communicative competence* is a concept that refers either to spoken or written language, and that involves a dynamic process within a specific context where learners perform their competences of the language acquired interchanging messages and reaching an agreement by means of negotiation (summarized from Pérez, 1996: 316-319). Bearing this definition in mind, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) note that communicative competence entails four subcompetences, to wit, linguistic, discursive, strategic, and sociolinguistic competence (see Bueno, 1996: 347). Nonetheless, Bachman (1990: 81-100) subdivides communicative competence into three main competences: linguistic competence, strategic competence and psychomotor skills. In linguistic competence he includes all the aspect related to language system and its structure (language components, arrange the message in texts creating a coherent and cohesive

discourse, pragmatics, etc); with strategic competence he tries to compensate the deficit in language learning and, finally, psychomotor skills involve social interactions and the knowledge of the language culture (adapted from Bachman, 1990: 81-100).

Therefore, communicative competence is the result of the interaction of its subcompetences; in this sense, it would be meaningful to define each of them briefly in the following lines. For this purpose, Canale and Swain's (1980) subcompetences have been chosen, incorporating the concept of *pragmatic competence* that Bachman (1990) offers and that seems not to be considered in Canale and Swain's taxonomy.

Linguistic competence, also known as *grammatical competence*, involves the three components of the language (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation). This competence aids learners to choose the appropriate items to use the language adequately, in other words, students select the words or structures they consider correct. Once learners masters grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, they will be fluent in the new language (see Pérez, 1996: 317-320).

Concerning *discursive competence*, all students know that it is necessary to put language in context producing coherent and cohesive discourse. In order to get a cohesive and coherent discourse, the three components of the language must be combined. Additionally, a distinction may be made between oral discourse and written discourse, since the factors affecting them are not the same; for example, interruptions, silences or repetitions take place in a oral discourse because of its immediacy and spontaneity characteristics (adapted from Trujillo and Ortega, 2005: 515-520).

Another subcompetence, which will be developed in detail throughout this project, is *strategic competence*, which is centred on the learning process and helps learners to plan knowledge, acquire it in a easy way, practice the language and assess it in an autonomous way making learners play a more active role in the learning process (Bueno, 2013: 32).

Sociolinguistic competence embraces, at the same time, sociolinguistic, sociocultural and intercultural competences. *Sociolinguistic competence* sees language as a social means to interact with other people by means of different speech acts (persuading, ordering, describing, narrating...); so it develops the relations between learners setting the language in a particular context with particular goals. Furthermore, it helps students work with different registers and varieties of the foreign language. The other competence, the *sociocultural* one, regards culture as a part of language learning. So, apart from studying the internal system of the language, students may learn the language culture too; from general issues such as historic or political matters to everyday life situations (timetables, values, unspoken rules of conduct and so on).

At the same time, while learning a new culture, it is unavoidable to compare the new culture with that of the students, giving, as a result, a third competence named *intercultural competence* (summarized from Méndez and Bueno, 2005: 472-475).

Furthermore, paying attention to Bachman's (1990: 89-90) classification of subcompetences, a fifth subcompetence could be considered too, *pragmatic competence*. This competence studies how sentences are used in context; in other terms, by means of pragmatics we can know if the sentence "I just love taking Maths exams!" has a sarcastic meaning and the person who states it hates Mathematics exams or, by contrast, the speaker or writer actually loves Mathematics exams.

2.1. Strategic competence

Through the terms competence and performance integrated in communicative competence and its subcompetences we arrive at the main point of our assignment: strategies in the learning of English as a foreign language. As defined above, strategic competence focuses on learning and communication processes and aids students to acquire, plan, practise and evaluate language knowledge, thus compensating the deficits of the foreign language. What is more, Bachman (1990: 84) claims that "strategic competence provides the means for relating language competencies to features of the context of situation in which language use takes place and to the language user's knowledge structures".

Furthermore, thanks to strategies, students become more autonomous and active in the learning process, which entails a humanistic approach of the educational system and contributes to develop the individual as a whole. As Bueno (2013: 33) states, "está demostrado que el alumno que está familiarizado con las estrategias de aprendizaje generalmente aprende mejor que los que no hacen uso de ellas". Thus, the next chapters of this project are intended to offer an overview of different strategies used in language learning in order to develop strategic competence and make learners aware of the importance of the use of strategies in the learning process.

3. STRATEGIES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

This chapter has the purpose of building up the concept of *strategy* by means of its definition, its types and its main features.

3.1. Definition of the concept

The original meaning of the word *strategy*, which comes from the ancient Greek term *strategia*, was related to military and made reference to the methods carried out to implement a plan of a military operation. However, through years, this term has generalized its meaning and nowadays it denotes the set of procedures developed in order to achieve something. Furthermore, the term has also acquired a new meaning in education, denoting the use of different stratagems in order to acquire knowledge easily and faster, under the name of *learning strategies* (cf. Schmeck, 1988: 5).

Although strategies have been used for thousands of years, they were not a subject of study until its recent use in education, where they are becoming more and more broadly familiar. This tendency may be due to the fact that the educational system has undergone a change, where education is process-oriented rather than product-oriented nowadays. Therefore, instead of concentrating on the final product (*behaviourism*), current education tends to focus on the learning process and place the learner in the centre of that process (*progressivism* and *cognitivism*) (See Clark, 1987).

The *cognitive theory*, carried out by Piaget and Brunner (1920), prepares the students for learning and claims that to learn something new it is necessary to connect it with previous knowledge; in this way, the learning process will be effective. When a new knowledge appears, there is a process of unbalance first, then there exist a procedure of accommodation of the new learning and, finally, the new knowledge is meaningful to the learner. Thus, to sum up, cognitivism possesses the idea of learners constructing the meaning by linking it with previous experience in order to understand and assimilate it better, rather than just simply acquire knowledge (cf. Valcárcel, Coyle and Verdú, 1996: 83-85).

Students carry out different strategies in order to improve their learning. In this sense, it may be said that strategies play an important role within the learning process because they activate as well as involve the student directly in that process. Moreover, it is important to highlight that they aid the student to learn, as Nisbet (1991: vii) notes, “the most important learning is learning to learn, the most important knowledge is self-knowledge”.

Dealing with strategies, it is essential to manage to select the adequate strategy as well as adapt it to learner necessities, since the use of adequate learning strategies may improve proficiency level as well as the learner's self-confidence, among other perks. This justifies that, in the last few years, teachers are starting to introduce strategies workshops in their programmes in order to help students in their learning process, at the same time they make students more aware of the power of their own strategies (Oxford, 1990: 2).

Additionally, strategies may work out differently between Foreign Language (FL) and Second Language (L2) acquisition. However, a distinction between them will not be done in this assignment as its aim is just to offer a general overview of the different learning skills used by learners to acquire a new language.

3.2. Types of strategies

There exist different types of strategies. On the one hand, *learning strategies* are those used in the input stage, i.e. while the learning process is taking place. On the other hand, *communicative strategies* are related to output situations, that is, to communication as their name itself indicates (cf. Fonseca, 2005: 105). At the same time, both present varied taxonomies that will be developed in detail below when dealing with them individually. Even though this classification is appropriate and accepted by several authors, as the study and research on learning strategies is relatively a recent one, there is no complete agreement on its classification (other authors offer different ways of classifying them). In the same way, there is neither a crystal-clear definition of strategies nor an exact number of them.

3.2.1. Learning strategies

According to Tarone (1981: 289, in Bachman, 1990: 99) learning strategies are “an attempt to use one's linguistic system efficiently and clearly, with a minimum of effort Tarone”. In this section this type of strategies will be developed providing a definition and their main features.

3.2.1.1. Definition

Learning strategies are defined by several authors, each one expressing the main sense and adding different nuances concerning with the choice, the automatism of execution, the role of

the learner and so on. For instance, they are defined as “operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information” (Rigney and Dansereau 1985). Nevertheless, it is worth to include in this definition the active role of the learner by choosing the strategy in order to “make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self – directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations” (Oxford, 1990: 8).

Personally, I would define learning strategies as actions carried out by students to accomplish the different tasks in the learning process throughout the association of previous knowledge and autonomous work, using different tactics in order to be successful in the use of the language. Besides, they are also called *learning skills*, *thinking skills*, *problem-solving skills* or *learning-to-learn skills* (summarized from Valcárcel, Coyle and Verdú, 1996; O’Malley, 1993 and Oxford, 1990).

These strategies are classified in different ways, depending on the author we consider. For example, Naiman et al. (1978, in O’Malley and Chamot, 1993: 4-5) classify learning strategies in five main types: “active task approach, realization of language as a system, realization of language as a means of communication and interaction, management of affective demands, and monitoring L2 performance”. By contrast, O’Malley and Chamot (1993: 46) divide learning strategies into metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies. In addition, Rubin (1981, in O’Malley and Chamot, 1993: 4-5) considers “strategies that directly affect learning” and “processes that contribute indirectly to learning”. Similar to Rubin’s taxonomy is the classification offered by Oxford (1990) and that is the one chosen for the development of this assignment (see section 3 in this project).

3.2.1.2. Features

In this section, the main features of learning strategies will be developed to make them more comprehensible in their use in education (adapted from Oxford, 1990: 8-13).

- a) Learning strategies allow learners to become more *independent* and *autonomous*, encouraging students to play an active role within the new language acquisition process. This is important since the teacher is not always there because the learner may use the language outside the classroom. So, learning strategies give ownership to students, which produces quite a positive stimulus in learning.
- b) Connected with the autonomous work of learners, they aid to *expand* the *role of the teachers*. Now, the teacher may also be able to help students selecting, conducting and training learning strategies to accomplish the sense of ownership when dealing with

acquiring knowledge (cf. Wenden, 1985). The teacher is no longer seen as the authority, but as a facilitator and a guide for the students. The teacher must be aware of the different necessities of the learners to provide them with the adequate material to fulfil their necessities.

- c) Thus, learning strategies *can be taught* by means of strategy training that helps the learner to be more aware of the strategy used, according to the required task, and stimulate its use. This is even more effective when students know why, when and how to use the different strategies available; the more training, the better use of strategies. Nevertheless, sometimes the training could be difficult because strategies are not always observable; teachers may not know how their students utilize strategies and make mental associations with the previous knowledge, as the human mind is not easy to decode.
- d) In this sense, strategies are regarded as *conscious procedures*, i.e., learners employ them intentionally. Authors such as Rabionwitz and Chi (1987), for example, note that in order to have the “strategic” property, strategies themselves should be conscious; if not, they will no longer be strategies since they are automatic actions. Therefore, “instruction is not transformed directly into output, but that individuals build up their knowledge actively and meaningfully through the activation of mental processes” (Valcárcel, Coyle and Verdú, 1995: 86). Nonetheless, it is worth mentioning that, with practice, they become automated.
- e) As strategies are employed consciously, they are *selected by the learner*; in other words, it is the learner who chose the specific tactics implemented. From this perspective, the learning process occurs just when the learner takes part in it in an active way. Likewise, Oxford (1900: 13) states that “there is a great deal of individuality in the way learners choose, combine, and sequence strategies”, although, by contrast, it may be the case that the strategy can be knowable, such as the scanning and skimming strategies when dealing with a reading activity.
- f) According to Weinstein and Mayer (1986: 315, in O’Malley, 1993: 43), “learning strategies have learning facilitation as a goal and are intentional on the part of the learner”. So, learning strategies are intentional, selected by the learner and *problem-oriented*. That is, they are utilized in order to solve a problem, which in this case is the learning a new language, and make it easier by employing different tactics such as memorization, association, images, and so on.
- g) Another feature of the strategies employed in the learning process is that several factors such as age, sex, personality, motivation level, learning style, task requirement or

nationality, among others, affect in the choice of a particular strategy. Furthermore, they not just involve the cognitive aspect of students, but also others such as the metacognitive one (planning, evaluation), the affective one (students' emotions) or the social one.

- h) Moreover, strategies support learning either directly or indirectly; i.e, some strategies affect learning and the main subject matter in a direct way, while other strategies contribute to learning indirectly by taking into account the emotions, the planning or the interaction of students, for instance. This feature will be developed in more detail below when dealing with the classification of learning strategies.
- i) Finally, learning strategies contribute to the main goal in language acquisition, which is communicative competence (see section 2 in this Project). Communication is the aim of language learning so, by means of putting into practice the different learning strategies to accomplish the task and acquire knowledge, communicative competence will be developed as well.

3.2.2. Communicative strategies

Tarone (1981: 288, in Bachman, 1990: 98-99) defines *communicative strategies* as “the mutual attempt by two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where the requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared”. In the following two sections the definition and features of communicative strategies will be presented.

3.2.2.1. Definition

Faerch and Kasper (1983: 36, in García and Bruton, 2005: 455) define communication strategies as “potentially conscious plans for solving what an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal”. In the same way that learning strategies help students to acquire knowledge, *communicative strategies* deal with communication problems, i.e. they aid students to create effective conversations in the foreign language. These strategies concentrate on message production, allowing the learner to formulate accurate messages according to the given situation; especially they pay attention to meaning negotiation. In fact, O'Malley and Chamot (1993: 43) state that “communication strategies are particularly important in negotiating meaning where either linguistic structures

or sociolinguistic rules are not shared between a second language learner and a speaker of the target language”.

Communicative strategies may involve mime, message abandonments, approximations, or circumlocution, for instance. Using these techniques students will be more fluent in the foreign language as they aid to master a proficiency level; what is more, native speakers also use them. Therefore, as well as learning strategies, they should be introduced in language lessons in order to make students aware of them.

3.2.2.2. Features

Communicative strategies share most of the characteristics of learning strategies; they are conscious procedures chosen by learners that can be taught, which give independence and autonomy to them and expand the role of the teacher. Moreover, they are also problem-oriented considering communication as their main goal.

Apart from these features, it may be said that communicative strategies are rather short-term solutions as they are aimed at solving communicative problems. While techniques related to planning, memorization, evaluation, self-esteem, anxiety, and so on, require a longer process; communicative strategies are applied to produce a message just at the same moment the problem has appeared, which avoids successful communication.

Finally, they may involve communication, that is, they are used in communicative activities or real-life situations. An activity is communicative if addresser and addressee interact with unpredictable information in a particular context using authentic language. Furthermore, the activity should imply the interchange of information, which contains an information gap, where each participant must add some information and concentrate on content and fluency rather than accuracy (adapted from Méndez and Bueno, 2005: 485).

4. LEARNING STRATEGIES

In this chapter learning strategies, which are used while the learning process is taking place, are classified into two main groups: *direct strategies* and *indirect strategies* (see Table 1 in chapter 9). On the one hand, direct strategies are connected with direct learning and the use of the subject matter, which is the acquisition of a foreign language in this case. On the other hand, indirect strategies are those that contribute to learning indirectly. Both direct and indirect strategies are equally important, and sustain and connect with each other, in other words, all the strategies support and interact mutually (see Oxford, 1990: 12).

Throughout the following sections, direct strategies as well as indirect ones will be developed in detail with a definition, the different specific strategies in each group and examples to illustrate them.

4.1. Direct strategies

As mentioned above, direct strategies are applied directly to the new language and they involve the repetition of particular language items, memorization, working with grammar rules or guessing the meaning of words, for example. Therefore, their utilization requires the mental processes in the learning of the foreign language. According to their way of processing the language and their goals, direct strategies are divided into memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies (Oxford, 1990: 37).

4.1.1. Memory strategies

For thousands of years, memory strategies, also named mnemonics, have been employed. Nowadays, memory strategies are considered powerful tools and everybody uses them. The *method of loci*, for instance, illustrates a memorization technique: learners imagine a familiar path and set there the things they want to memorize and during the “walk” through that path they memorize the objects, words or whatever they want to (cf. Anderson, 1985).

Madrid (2000) differentiates between short-term and long-term memory, understanding by *short-term memory* the things memorized in a period of time relatively remote and by *long-term memory* the things that are stored in our memory for long periods of time such as the experiences we had during our infancy, for example. Therefore, when things are assimilated in the short-term memory, they are transferred immediately to the long-term

memory; while the things that we have not been able to assimilate in our short-term memory are forgotten (summarized from Madrid, 2000: <<http://goo.gl/rq0C3c>>)).

Memory strategies may imply *mental associations* in order to memorize new devices by linking them with meaningful things to the learner. For example, new vocabulary acquisition normally involves pairing different devices. Thus, mental linkages are made by means of grouping the words paying attention to the topic, its practical functions, its oppositions and so on; placing them into a context, or relating or associating them to other concepts already learned (see O'Malley and Chamot, 1993: 26). For instance, if students want to learn the meaning of the word “disgusting” and use it, taking into account that it means that something is unpleasant, they can associate the word with things they consider disgusting. In addition, learners can employ *images* and *sounds* to acquire the new language by means of pictures, semantic mappings, puns, rhymes, keywords and so on. Other elements such as *mechanical techniques* or *physical responses* aid memorization too. For instance, acting out a new expression like “Close the window” or associating the word to a particular sensation (“Close the window” may suggest cold weather, for example). Additionally, mechanical techniques such as writing the new vocabulary or language devices on cards are quite effective too; in fact, this is quite useful as learners can bring the cards with them all the time and review them whenever and wherever they want to (adapted from Oxford, 1990: 38-42).

Finally, an important factor of memorizing is *review*. It is not enough to look at the new language elements once, but doing it frequently in and spiralling way. In other words, revise it periodically (one hour later, three days later, a week later...) until reaching what Oxford calls (1990: 42) *overlearning*, i.e., make the concept as familiar as it becomes natural and automatic. A good way to memorize items is the utilization of flashcards as explained above.

4.1.2. Cognitive strategies

The most well-liked strategies used by learners are cognitive strategies since they imply the manipulation and transformation of the new language acquired. As O'Malley (1993: 44) defines them, cognitive strategies “operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning”.

One of the cognitive strategies is *practising* and it constitutes one of the most important strategies; nevertheless, learners are not always aware of its importance. Classroom

practice is not always enough because not all the students normally participate in class and because there may be students that, even participating a lot during lessons, need further practice because their level requires it. Wenden and Rubin (1987: 47) distinguish between *spaced practice*, noticing that shorter and frequent practice is preferred, and *real-life practice*, where language items are put in a given context. In order to practise, learners may utilize the tactic of thinking the word in the new language, on the basis of the object they are seeing or using at that moment, or the thing they are doing. For example, if the learning is at home doing the laundry, the tools used for that action as well as the clothes to wash can be recalled to the mind of the students in the foreign language. Which is more, if the learner repeats the process from time to time and relates it with other actions or things, the practice of the language will be assured.

Interaction through *receiving and sending messages* is also a good way to acquire the language. Either oral or written this strategy may create real situations for the learner (asking for directions, personal information, talking about their hobbies, etc) where the learner will need specific information. Learners can train themselves in this technique on their way to the school or at home, asking their partners how to get to the school or their houses, and giving directions at the same time they walk. In addition, *skimming* and *scanning* for specific information in a newspaper or magazine, for example, are other possible techniques.

Additionally, in order to understand the meaning of a word or expression and reasoning about the language and its structure, *analyzing* and *reasoning* techniques are quite useful. Within these strategies, techniques such as translating and transferring from one language to another, analyzing certain expressions or deducting how the language works may be employed. Nonetheless, students must be careful when translating from one language to another, since it does not always work and negative transferences may lead into mistakes and misunderstandings (cf. Oxford, 1990: 46).

4.1.3. Compensation strategies

Within the new language acquisition process, learners may face certain situations such as not knowing the meaning of a specific word or producing particular sentences or structures in the new languages because of their limited knowledge of the new language. Consequently, when the knowledge of the language is limited, compensation strategies are developed in order to fill that gap in the information.

On the one hand, all foreign language learners have faced an unknown word either in a written text or in an oral conversation. This is a frequent problem in language acquisition; the more advanced the learner, the few unknown items the student will face. In this situation, most of the students tend to panic and block out, especially when they are being tested. In order to overcome this situation, students try to *guess the meaning* of the word considering either linguistic clues or others, as Oxford suggests (1990: 49-50). Taking a look at the vocabulary and grammar are useful linguistic clues, as well as paying attention to the context, the situation or the structure of the text.

On the other hand, students may also not know a word when *producing* a message in the foreign language and, as occurs with guessing, students can compensate language production by paraphrasing the message, using gestures and pointing out, or using synonyms, for instance (summarized from Oxford, 1990: 48-50).

4.2. Indirect strategies

Indirect strategies are those techniques that help in the learning process indirectly, as explained above. Strategies related to learners' emotions, social interaction with other learners or the planning and evaluation of the learning process are included in this group. Indirect strategies are divided into three main subgroups that will be explained in detail in the following sections: metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies (cf. Fonseca, 2005: 105; and Oxford, 1990: 135).

4.2.1. Metacognitive strategies

This kind of strategies is really important for language acquisition to succeed because they maintain the learner focused on the main content and avoid oppression due to the large amount of information in the new language. Oxford (1990: 136) defines *metacognitive strategies* as “actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices, and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process”.

Metacognitive strategies involve three types of strategies: centring your learning, arranging and planning your learning, and evaluating your learning. Thus, the learning process will be more efficient if students know how to *organize* themselves and set and *plan*

their own goals and objectives. Additionally, these strategies motivate the learner to practise the new language as much as possible. In order to arrange and organize the learning process, there are six types of specific strategies learners can employ described below (adapted from Oxford, 1990: 139).

- a) Finding out about language learning, that is, trying to understand how the new language works.
- b) Organizing yourself by following a language notebook, making a schedule or taking into account the external environment, as the space or sound for example.
- c) Setting either long-term or short-term goals and objectives and accomplish those aims.
- d) Identifying the purpose of a language task in order to carry out the task properly.
- e) Planning for language task bearing in mind the elements and functions needed. Oxford (1990: 139) explains this as a four step process: “describing the task or situation, determining its requirements, checking one’s own linguistic resources, and determining additional language elements or functions necessary for the task or situation”.
- f) Seeking practice opportunities to put in to practice the language acquired within realistic situations. This can also be carried out by thinking in the new language.

Furthermore, the use of *evaluating* metacognitive strategies aids the students to deal with their errors, trying to make them learn from them; as well as assessing them in a more communicative way rather than a rule-based evaluation.

Unluckily, students do not use those strategies as frequently as they should and, if they do, they are not aware of their importance; they just employ them in order to plan their learning and very few learners make use of self-evaluation techniques.

4.2.2. Affective strategies

Good learners normally know how to control their feelings or emotions about the learning process. While positive thoughts may show a more receptive attitude toward language learning, making the learning process easier and more enjoyable; negative emotions may have the contrary effect, inhibiting the new language acquisition. In fact, Oxford (1990: 140) claims that “the affective side of the learner is probably one of the very biggest influences on language learning success or failure”. In this sense, teachers play an important role as they

might influence students' emotions manipulating them by giving students more responsibility, increasing communication among them and training this type of strategies.

The main factor of this type of strategy is *self-confidence*. If learner's self-esteem is low, it can be easily detected by observing the student's attitude and behaviour toward the new language. Moreover, Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft, and Evers (1985) have found that the combination of *attitude* and *motivation* influences the maintaining or losing of language skill strongly once the learning process has finished. Making positive statements, rewarding yourself and pushing yourself to take risk is a good way to encourage yourself, something frequently forgotten by students; as a matter of fact, self-encouragement can be even more powerful than support from other people. In addition, the fact of knowing one's feelings about the new language and learning to control them helps language acquisition, keeping away negative emotions, for instance. In order to learn to control those feelings, there exist four techniques: listening to your body, using a checklist, writing a language learning diary and discussing your feelings with someone else.

Anxiety is another element in affective strategies. In the same way that a bit of anxiety could help the students to reach their goals, too much anxiety obstructs the learning process. An excess of anxiety creates worries, frustrations, doubts, insecurities, and fears in the learner. Thus, employing the adequate strategies, the students can learn how to *control their anxiety* and overcome the possible problems this creates. For this purpose, the use of progressive relaxation, deep breathing or meditation contributes to relaxing the body and the mind, as well as the use of music or laugh (adapted from Oxford, 1990: 140-141).

Unluckily, several studies have revealed that these strategies are not normally used among learners. As a study carried out by Chamot et al. (1987) illustrated, just 1 learner in every 20 uses this type of strategies.

4.2.3. Social strategies

The main purpose of language learning is communication and this implies social interaction, i.e., contact with other people. This helps learners in two senses; they produce a wide amount of "input" in the language, and provide a feedback about the student's skills. In addition, this cooperation among learners encourages group spirit and eliminates the competition between students.

Among the positive effects of social strategies in language learning, the following ones are found: higher self-esteem, students enjoy the learning process more, increasing of altruism and mutual concern, stronger motivation, more language practice and error feedback, better use of language functions, and encouragement of empathy.

Social strategies are divided into three sets: asking questions, cooperating with others and empathizing with others. Concerning *asking questions*, the learner can either ask for clarification and verification or ask for correction; in both cases, the students get benefit from the questions, which may be asked to teachers, native speakers or to proficient students. Furthermore, by *interacting* and *cooperating* with other people the student improves the four language skills. The learner can cooperate with other fellows or with proficient users. The interaction with other partners usually takes place in class; by contrast, the relation with proficient users occurs outside the classroom. Finally, through the development of cultural understanding, that is, “trying to empathize with another person through learning about the culture, and trying to understand the other person’s relation to that culture” (Oxford, 1990: 147); and by becoming aware of other’s thoughts and feelings, learners will increase their *empathy*.

5. COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGIES

When we speak a foreign language, we do not always know the word that names a specific item or it may be the case that we do not remember it. The level of proficiency the learner has does not matter, we all have faced this type of situation more than once, for sure; in fact, even native speakers experience this. In this context we find the other type of strategies, *communicative strategies*, which will help learners to convey a message overcoming the possible problems that may appear during the conversation.

As occurs with learning strategies, there are several ways to classify communicative strategies. For this project, I have chosen the classification in two main groups of communicative strategies offered by García and Bruton (2005: 455-456) that will be explained in this chapter, supported by the classification of other authors, and illustrated with some examples (see Table 2 in chapter 9).

5.1. Reduction strategies

By using this type of strategy the learner will solve the problem by reducing the message and eliminating the problematic words or structures. In this way, students can consider either reducing the language paying attention to its form or to its function.

Considering the form of the language, learners can avoid difficult pronunciation or complicated syntactic constructions, for instance. A good example for this could be the English passive that takes the indirect object as the subject of the passive, and which is complicated for Spanish speakers since it does not exist in Spanish. Therefore, “I was given a car for my birthday” is normally avoided by Spanish speakers because it sounds weird to them. This process is called *formal reduction strategy*.

Paying attention to function, that is, the topic or issue of the messages, learners tend to get away from the topics they are not familiarized with, which is the case of the *topic avoidance* and *message abandonment* techniques; thus, they use *functional reduction strategies*. For example, if learners are not accustomed to speaking about diseases, hospitals and issues related to them, they will avoid the topic or they will just leave the message without finishing it (summarized from García and Bruton, 2005: 456).

Although these strategies may help students on some occasions to solve particular problems, they are not so useful in the long term because they will not allow learners to deal with new vocabulary or topics if they always skip them.

5.2. Achievement strategies

Other ways to overcome communicative problems are *achievement strategies*, which expand the message trying to reformulate it by means of loanwords, code switching or paraphrasing among others. Instead of avoiding communication breakdowns as reduction strategies do, these strategies search for communicating information by negotiating or manipulating the message.

Achievement strategies, classified by Johnstone (1989: 71, in Fonseca 2005: 108), are *code-switching* and *gesticulation*, *generalization*, *paraphrase*, *literal translation*, *use of loanwords*, among others. Learners normally compensate the lack of vocabulary with gestures or simply by pointing out what they want, as babies do when they want something. However, they can also use a general concept to transmit a message; for example, let us consider a person who is afraid of pigeons but does not know the word “pigeon” in English, so this person will use the general word “bird” and will explain it. Additionally, students may use loanwords or terms in their mother tongue to communicate.

Moreover, another type of achievement strategies is *interactional strategies*, which imply the interaction of the speaker with the listener asking for help, clarification, repetition or expressing non-understanding as Dörnyei (2001: 96-97, in Fonseca 2005: 107) explains. Thus, the use of structures as “Could you repeat please?”, “I don’t understand, could you explain it with other words?”, “Could you tell me the meaning of that word”, for instance, are types of interactional strategies.

6. PRACTICAL APPLICATION

As mentioned above, strategies are becoming more and more important in the learning process and, since it is proved that learners aware of strategies make learning more successful and enjoyable, teachers are trying to incorporate strategies workshops in their lessons. An instance of this may be found in some textbooks, which include strategies to help students in the acquisition of a foreign language. Therefore, this chapter is intended to illustrate some of the strategies described throughout this project by using a textbook, particularly an English textbook for Spanish speakers in Secondary School. The textbook selected for this purpose is *Bridges for Bachillerato 2* because I used it in Secondary Education and it taught me, or better said it introduced to me, some of the strategies I use now.

This textbook includes six units and each one deals with the three linguistic components (*grammar*, *vocabulary* and *pronunciation*) and the four communicative skills (*reading*, *writing*, *listening* and *speaking*) concerning different topics such as *health*, *shopping*, *tourism* or *celebrations*. Apart from these six units, it also contains several appendices which complement them. Taking into account language components, it contains a *grammar appendix* explaining the grammatical rules with examples; a *wordlist*, a *preposition list* and a list of *phrasal verbs* and *irregular verbs*. Considering communicative skills, it incorporates different appendices to aid students to train them towards the exam. In each of the six units there are two sections (*Bridge to Literature* and *Bridge to the Environment*) oriented to work with reading skills; while a *writing guide* teaches students to create different kinds of text following some tips. In addition, there is one section dedicated to *practise speaking*, including some tips to help students; in the same way that learners can also *practise listening* with a similar section. Finally, there is a section aimed at practising for exams as well as an *exam strategies appendix*, which is quite interesting for our topic.

In the following sections of this chapter, most of the strategies explained in the different chapters above will be exemplified by means of *Bridges for Bachillerato 2* in order to show the practical application of these strategies. Before starting to illustrate the different strategies, I would like to acknowledge *Bridges for Bachillerato 2* for being a great help for the development of this chapter, thanks to it I have been able to exemplify almost all the strategies discussed throughout this project. What is more, considering the relatively recent tendency of teaching strategies for the acquisition of a foreign language, as mentioned above, this may be regarded as a good book given the fact that it includes a lot of them, it even incorporates several sections aimed at working with strategies.

6.1. Learning strategies

Most of the strategies included in this textbook are learning strategies as shown below.

6.1.1. Direct strategies

Taking into account direct strategies, the different lists of vocabulary, prepositions, irregular verbs and phrasal verbs imply *memorization* techniques to learn all the items presented. In the same way, a *looking back* section at the end of each unit offers the student the possibility of *reviewing* the main contents of the units taught so far; as we can see on page 27 that reviews Units 1 and 2 (see Annex 9.2.1.).

Moreover, *images* are utilized to help learners to acquire new vocabulary or language structures, such as idioms, by illustrating the meaning of the idiom with a picture. For example, exercise 7 on page 11 and exercise 6 on page 49 help the learner to figure out the meaning of the idioms “the weight of the world on his shoulder”, “worth her weight in gold” and “Mrs Jones wears the trousers in her house”, where the student will associate the image with the meaning of the idiom (see Annex 9.2.1.).

Exercise 5 on page 5, for instance, allows *practising* the language structures related to “eating in a restaurant”, a topic that appears in exercise 4. By means of these structures in dialogues, students practise the language and at the same time they *exchange messages* where they can utilize some communicative strategies as well. Besides, *scanning* and *skimming* techniques are also used in the textbook through reading activities, where there is always at least one pre-reading activity asking learners to take a quick look at the text for specific information, as exercise 1 on page 6.

In addition, *translation* techniques and *comparison* with the mother tongue strategy are also considered, especially in Grammar activities, as the translation requires on page 8 where students should pay special attention to the verb tenses which appear in bold type. Connected to grammar, page 8 also invites students to go to the *Grammar Appendix* on page 103; so they can check grammar rules while *analyzing* and *reasoning* about the language (see Annex 9.2.1.). It also deals with *compensation strategies* by giving tips to find *synonyms* (Williams and Baines, 2008: 27), which is very useful in oral communication too; in fact, it may be considered as a communicative technique as well.

6.1.2. Indirect strategies

The textbook also aids students to *plan* and *evaluate* their learning process. Paying attention to writing production, for instance, the textbook guides learners showing them how to organize a composition, giving the students the main points they have to include, how to arrange them in the text and some language structures such as connectors and useful expressions; as we can see in exercise 5 on page 13. In fact, at the end of the textbook there is a “writing guide” (pages 134-135) where students are taught to compose different types of text; showing the content the composition may contain, the type of vocabulary, the arrangement of the ideas and the different steps to create a good written text. For example, on page 139, students are taught to write an opinion essay and on page 140 they can learn to write a formal letter (see Annex 9.2.2.). Furthermore, the looking back section explained above may also be valuable for *self-evaluation*.

What is more, this textbook contains an appendix on pages 132 and 133 with exam strategies paying attention to typical exams questions such as true/false questions, multiple-choice questions, open questions, sentence completion and rewriting sentences. In the same way, listening tips or techniques to perform listening activities are presented on page 90. Among these tips, looking for keywords strategies, or read the title to know about the topic, are explained. All these strategies might be considered as affective strategies because thanks to them learners can *lower their anxiety* and *gain self-confidence* facing them before the real exam or test (see Annex 9.2.2.).

Social strategies are also regarded since some exercises are meant to be done in pairs or groups. *Pair/group* activities enable students to work in group, helping each other and learning from their classmates through the cooperation and interaction of the group members, at the same time that they establish social relations between them. For example, exercise 1 on page 56 requires students to interact with their partners in order to talk about the different pictures of the page. Additionally, this type of activities might lower student’s anxiety too (included in Annex 9.2.2.).

6.2. Communicative strategies

Moving to communicative strategies, several strategies mentioned above might be included here, such as the section dedicated to *finding synonyms*, the use of the *translation* into the mother tongue and *comparison* between both languages, and the *exchanging of messages*

technique by using some given structures that help speakers to communicate (cf. sections 6.1.1. and 6.1.2.).

Furthermore, this textbook offers some tips to work with speaking as well as useful expressions to help communication between speakers. Some examples of this technique appear in exercise 4 on page 14, in exercise 4 on page 26, and in exercise 4 on page 40 (included in section 9.2.3. in chapter 9).

7. CONCLUSIONS

To go over the main points, considering the concepts of *competence* and *performance* by Chomsky we arrive at the concept of *communicative competence*, since the main goal of language learning is communication. For communicative competence success, some other subcompetences must interact among them to achieve communication; that is, the integration of linguistic, discursive, strategic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence allows accurate communication in the foreign language. In this way, we consider *strategic competence* and the different strategies utilized in foreign language acquisition. Strategies (from the Greek term *strategia*) make the learning process easier and pleasant for students by means of different techniques that allow learners take part in the learning process and give them a sense of ownership. Among strategies, two major types are distinguished: *learning strategies* and *communicative strategies*.

On the one hand, *learning strategies* are used to acquire knowledge in the foreign language, so they are related to input items. Paying attention to whether they affect learning process directly or indirectly, they are subdivided into *direct strategies* and *indirect strategies*. *Direct strategies* consider memorization of language items, the practice and mental processing of language and some compensation techniques, among others. By contrast, *indirect strategies* deal with social interaction using the foreign language, the motivation or anxiety of the students or self-evaluation, for instance.

On the other hand, *communicative strategies* are intended to solve communication problems in order to produce an accurate message in a particular conversation and context. Therefore, learners may use *reduction strategies*, avoiding language structures or topics they do not know or they are not familiarized with; or *achievement strategies*, which expand the manipulation of the information by means of paraphrasing, code switching, loanwords and so on.

Furthermore, given their importance in the learning process, strategies are becoming more and more important in English lessons where teachers make workshops to teach them to students, and their presence is starting to be popular in textbooks, as shown in the practical application. Textbooks may offer a wide variety of strategies, particularly learning strategies that students and teachers can take into account when dealing with this type of material.

Before starting this project, as a student, I was just aware of several direct learning strategies such as compensation strategies, memorization, planning, mapping and so on. Thanks to this project I have learnt more about learning strategies and their useful utilization

during the language learning process. I can distinguish now between learning strategies and communicative strategies and, in addition, I am starting to bear in mind indirect strategies, which I have noticed to be as important as direct strategies, although, unfortunately, few learners paying attention to them. Therefore, writing this project has been useful for me since, from my point of view as a student, now I know a wide variety of learning strategies to put into practice in learning acquisition; and from the perspective of a future teacher, I may help my students to know about all these strategies including them in my lessons. In the same way, this might help other students and teachers.

Besides, this topic leads to further lines of research such as the study of teaching strategies, that is, the strategies used by teachers in the teaching of a foreign language; or the comparison of both learning and teaching strategies. Likewise, they may be analysed paying attention to their practical applications, studying the different learning strategies students use when learning and the strategies utilized by teachers in lessons; and comparing the theory with the actual use of strategies.

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9. ANNEXES

9.1. A taxonomy of strategies

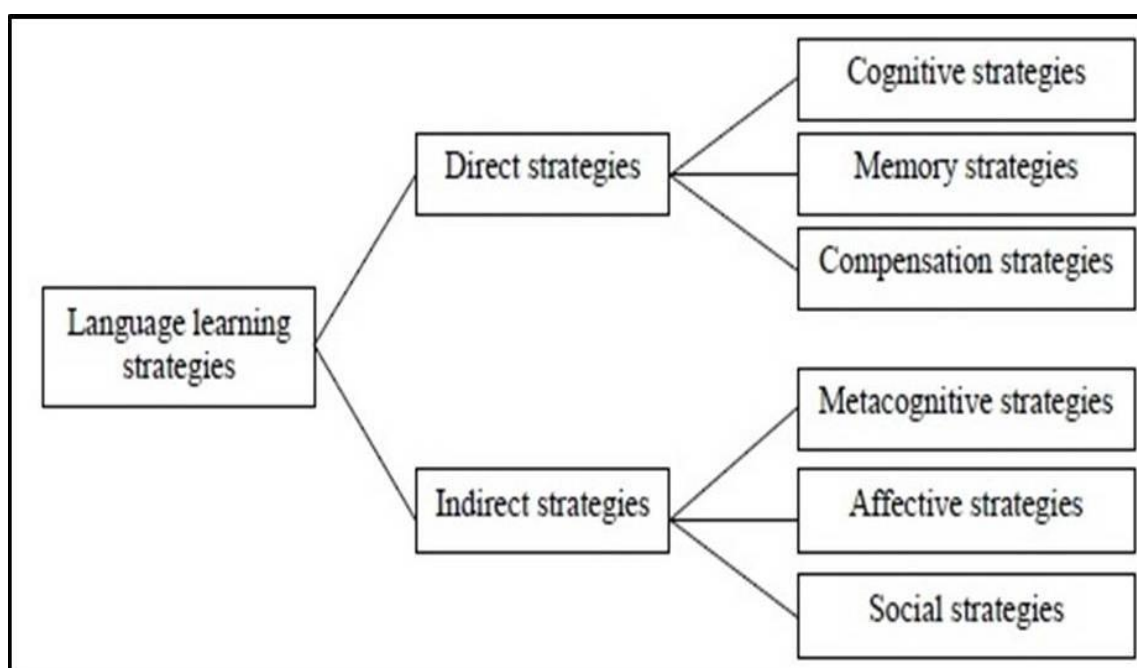


Table 1. Oxford's (1990: 16) taxonomy for language learning strategies.

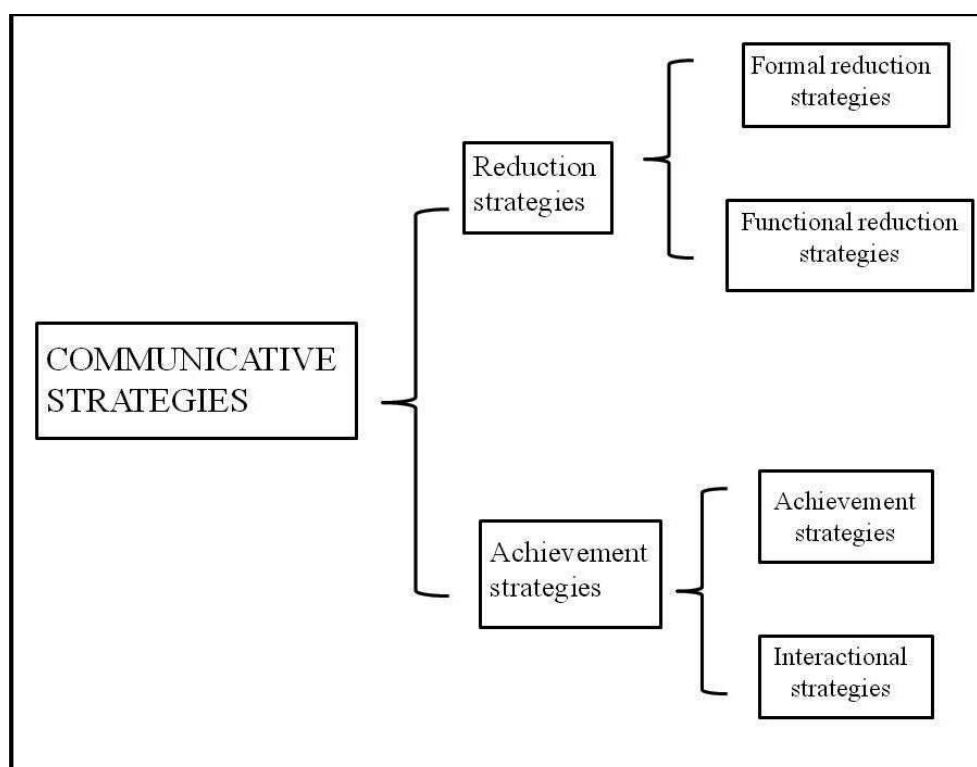


Table 2. A taxonomy of communicative strategies (García and Bruton, 2005: 456; Johnstone, 1989: 71; and Dörnyei, 2001: 96-97).

9.2. *Bridges for Bachillerato 2* 2 pages illustrating the techniques presented in chapter 6

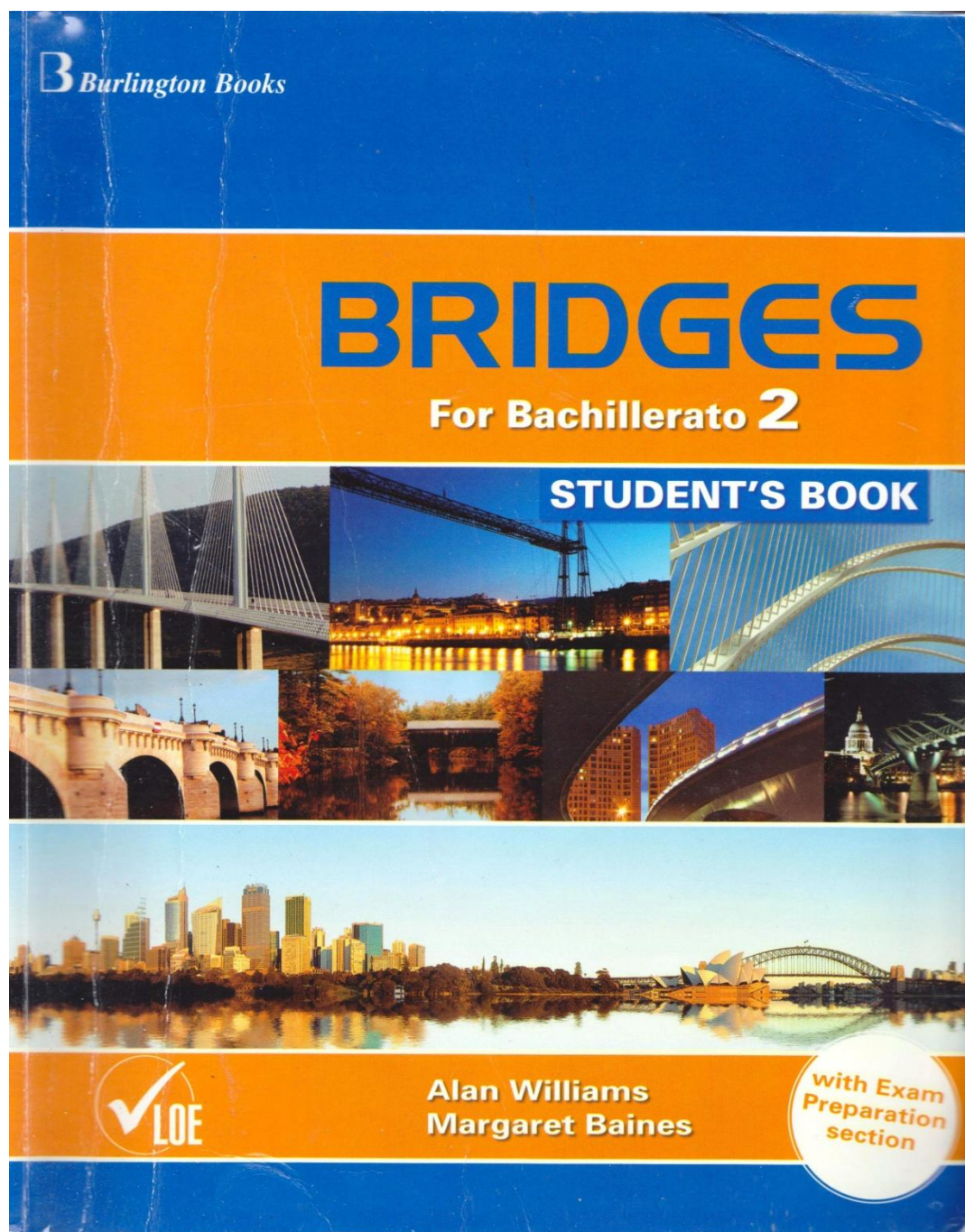


Image 1. *Bridges for Bachillerato 2* cover (2008).

	VOCABULARY	READING	GRAMMAR	WRITING	LISTENING	SPEAKING
UNIT 1 Health page 4	Health Collocations Prefixes Vocabulary Builder: Gerunds and Infinitives	A Fat Man Walking Identifying the Main Idea True / False Questions	Perfect Tenses	An Opinion Essay Connectors of Cause and Result	A Radio Programme	Eating in a Restaurant Expressing Opinions
UNIT 2 Jobs page 16	Employment Easy / Confused Words Suffixes Vocabulary Builder: Verbs + Prepositions	Student Wins Municipal Elections Making Inferences Multiple-choice Questions	Reported Speech	A Formal Letter of Application Connectors of Purpose	A Phone Interview	Asking for Information A Job Interview
Bridge to Literature page 26	• Literature Excerpt: Dracula		• Song: Moon Over Bourbon Street			
UNIT 3 Shopping page 30	Shopping Phrasal Verbs Vocabulary Builder: Five Friends	The Unwanted Gift Scanning Finding Synonyms	The Passive The Causative	A Summary Paraphrasing	Informal Conversations	Going Shopping Agreeing and Disagreeing
UNIT 4 Relationships page 42	Relationships and Feelings Collocations with Verbs Adjectives + Prepositions Vocabulary Builder: Compound Adjectives	Running Around Understanding Reference Open Questions	First, Second and Third Conditionals Wish Clauses	A For and Against Essay Connectors of Addition and Contrast	Advice Helpline	Expressing Feelings Asking For and Giving Advice
Bridge to the Environment page 54	• Biography: The Kenyan Tree Woman		• Poem: Tires			
UNIT 5 Tourism page 56	Travel and Tourism Compound Nouns Adjectives + Infinitives Vocabulary Builder: Using Adjectives	A Different Side to Tourism Identifying the Author's Purpose Sentence Completion	Relative Clauses	A Description of a Place Adjectives and Adverbs Adjective Order	A Travel Description	Planning a Holiday Describing Pictures
UNIT 6 Celebrations page 68	Festivals and Celebrations Easy / Confused Words Verbs + Adjectives Vocabulary Builder: should / had better	Changing with the Times Identifying Fact and Opinion Rewriting Sentences	Modals Modal Perfects	A Narrative Connectors of Sequence and Time Expressions	A Radio Programme	Discussing Festivals Describing an Event
EXAM PREPARATION page 81	• Exam Practice		• Speaking Practice			
		• Listening Practice		• Exam Tips		
APPENDICES	Grammar Appendix page 101 Pronunciation Practice page 117	Wordlist page 120 Phrasal Verbs page 128	Preposition List page 129 Irregular Verbs page 130	Exam Strategies Appendix page 132 Writing Guide page 134	Answer Key page 147	

Image 2. Table of contents of the textbook (Williams and Baines, 2008).

9.2.1. Direct strategies

- Lists for memorization strategies (Williams and Baines, 2008: 120-131).

WORDLIST	
The Wordlist includes vocabulary from the Student's Book and the Vocabulary Builder (Workbook).	
UNIT 1	
achievement /ə'ʃi:vment/ logro, éxito	impersonal /ɪm'pɜ:ʃənl/ impersonal
appetite /ə'petɪt/ apetito	improve /ɪm'pru:v/ mejorar
apple /'æpl/ manzana	inedible /ɪn'edəbl/ no comestible
attempt /ə'tempt/ intento	involved /ɪn'vɒlvd/ involucrado/a
average /'ævərɪdʒ/ medio/a	iron /'aɪən/ hierro
balanced diet /bə'leɪnst 'daɪət/ dieta equilibrada	light meal /laɪt 'mi:kl/ comida ligera
balanced meal /bə'leɪnst 'mi:l/ comida equilibrada	lose (your) appetite /lu:z (jə) 'æpɪtɪt/ perder el apetito
become aware of /bɪ'kʌm ə'weə əv/ darse cuenta de	lose weight /lu:z 'weɪt/ adelgazar, perder peso
booked /'bʊkt/ reservado/a	meat /mi:t/ carne
breath /breθ/ aliento, respiración	meditation /medɪ'teɪʃn/ meditación
cabbage /'kæbɪdʒ/ col, repollo	mild /maɪld/ suave; no muy picante
calcium /'kælsɪəm/ calcio	milkshake /'mɪlkʃeɪk/ batido
catch a cold /kætʃ ə 'kəʊld/ resfriarse, coger un resfriado	multi-vitamin /mʌlti'vɪtəmɪn/ multivitamínico
challenge /'tʃæləndʒ/ reto, desafío	nutritious /n'ju:tɪʃəs/ nutritivo/a
chips /tʃɪps/ patatas fritas	omelette /'ɒmlət/ tortilla
chocolate /'tʃɒklət/ chocolate	order (n) /'ɔ:də/ pedido
comfort /'kʌmfət/ consuelo	ordinary /'ɔ:dɪni/ normal
consist /kən'sɪst/ constar	overbooked /əvə'bʊkt/ con exceso de reservas
consume /kən'sju:m/ consumir	overcooked /əvə'kʊkt/ muy hecho/a, demasiado cocinado/a
cooked /'kʊkt/ cocinado/a	overweight /əvə'weɪt/ gordo/a, obeso/a; (con) sobrepeso
crisps /krɪps/ patatas fritas (de bolsa)	packaged /'pækɪdʒd/ embalado/a, empaquetado/a
daily exercise /deɪli 'eksəsaɪz/ ejercicio diario	peanut /'pi:nʌt/ cacahuete
deal /di:l/ contrato	personal /'pɜ:ʃənl/ personal
diet /'daɪət/ dieta	pizza /'pɪtsə/ pizza
discomfort /dɪ'skʌmfət/ inquietud, desasosiego	poor appetite /pɔ: 'æpɪtɪt/ poco apetito
edible /'edəbl/ comestible	poor health /pɔ: 'helθ/ salud delicada
essential /ɪ'senʃl/ fundamental, esencial	population /pɒpju:'leɪʃn/ población
exhaust (v) /ɪg'zɔ:st/ agotar	positive thinking /'pɒzətɪv θɪŋkɪŋ/ pensamientos optimistas
exhausted /ɪg'zɔ:stɪd/ agotado/a	prearranged /pri:ə'reɪndʒd/ convenido/a, fijado/a
exhausting /ɪg'zɔ:stɪŋ/ agotador/a	pre-packaged /pri:'pækɪdʒd/ (pre)empaquetado
face /feɪs/ enfrentarse a	protein /'prəʊtɪn/ proteína
fast-food (adj.) /fɔ:st'fu:d/ de comida rápida	quick meal /kwɪk 'mi:l/ comida rápida
fat (n) /fæt/ grasa	quick recovery /kwɪk rɪ'kʌvəri/ recuperación rápida
fat (adj.) /fæt/ gordo/a	reach /ri:tʃ/ llegar a
fish /fɪʃ/ pescado	recommend /re'kɒmənd/ recomendar
figure out /'fɪɡə aʊt/ comprender, entender	recover /rɪ'kʌvə/ recuperarse, reponerse
flavour /'fleɪvə/ sabor	salad /sə'ləd/ ensalada
gain weight /geɪn 'weɪt/ engordar, ganar peso	sandwich /'sændwɪtʃ/ sándwich
getting enough sleep /'getɪŋ ɪnəf 'sli:p/ dormir lo suficiente	sausage /'sɔ:sɪdʒ/ salchicha
go on /gəʊ 'ɒn/ seguir, continuar	source /sɔ:s/ fuente
hamburger /'hæmbɜ:ɡə/ hamburguesa	spice /speɪs/ especia
healthy /'helθi/ sano/a, saludable	spicy /'speɪsi/ picante
healthy eating /'helθi 'i:tɪŋ/ alimentación sana	strength /streŋθ/ fuerza
ice cream /aɪs 'kri:m/ helado	

PHRASAL VERBS

aim at: estar encaminado/a, pretender (algo)	get to: llegar a
ask for: pedir	get together: reunir(se)
be over: haber(se) acabado	get up: levantarse
break away from: separarse de, romper con	give away: revelar; delatar
break down: averiarse, estropearse	give back: devolver
break into: introducirse / meterse en; entrar a robar en	give up: abandonar, renunciar a
break up: separarse, romper; terminar	go against: ir en contra de, ser contrario a
bump into: tropezar / toparse con	go away: marcharse, irse
call on: pasar a ver, visitar	go back: volver, regresar
carry on: continuar, llevar adelante	go down: bajar
catch on: tener éxito	go off: marcharse, irse; sonar (alarma)
cater for: atender / ofrecer servicios a	go on: seguir, continuar
check in: registrarse (hotel); facturar (aeropuerto)	go out: salir
check out: mirar, echar un vistazo; pagar y marcharse (hotel)	grow up: crecer
clean up: limpiar	hand out: repartir, distribuir
clear away: quitar, retirar	hang out: pasar el rato
close down: cerrar(se) (definitivamente)	identify with: relacionar / asociar con
close off: acordonar (una zona)	join in: tomar parte / participar en
come back: volver, regresar	keep on: seguir, continuar
come down: bajar	keep out: no dejar entrar / pasar
come on: ¡vamos!, ¡venga!	leave out: omitir, saltarse, dejar fuera
come over: pasar por casa, venir (a visitar)	let in: dejar entrar; hacer pasar
come up with: encontrar	log into: acceder a, entrar en (una página web)
cut down: talar, cortar	look after: cuidar (a / de)
cut in: interrumpir	look around: echar una mirada, mirar alrededor (de uno mismo)
cut off: cortar (el suministro); interrumpir(se) (conversación)	look around for: buscar
cut out: suprimir, recortar	look back: mirar atrás (en el tiempo)
deal with: tratar (de)	look back at: recordar
dress up: disfrazarse; ponerse elegante, vestir(se) de etiqueta	look down: mirar hacia abajo
end up: acabar	look for: buscar
fall off: caerse de	look forward to: estar deseando, esperar con impaciencia
feel like: apetecer, tener ganas de	look into: investigar
figure out: comprender, entender	look out: tener cuidado
fill in: rellenar (impreso, documento)	look up: visitar, ir a ver a alguien; buscar (información)
find out: enterarse de; descubrir, averiguar	make up: inventar(se); reconciliarse, hacer las paces
get across: comunicar, hacer entender; cruzar, atravesar	make up for: compensar
get along: llevarse bien	move out: mudarse, marcharse
get around: desplazarse / moverse por	pass by: pasar por delante
get away: escapar(se)	pass down: transmitir, pasar
get back: volver, regresar; recuperar	pass on: dar, pasar
get by: defenderse (idioma); arreglárselas	pay back: devolver (dinero); (fig.) vengarse
get in: entrar	pay for: pagar (por)
get into: entrar, caber (ropa); contraer (deudas); entrar / meterse en	pay off: merecer la pena
get off: bajarse de (autobús, tren)	pick out: elegir, escoger
get over: superar	pick up: recoger, ir a buscar
get rid of: deshacerse de	point out: señalar
get through: comunicar(se)	pull up: subir, levantar

put away: guardar, poner en su sitio
put off: desanimar(se)
put out: sacar, expulsar
put up: poner, ofrecer
ring up: llamar, telefonar
run around: (fig.) ir a su aire
run away: huir, escapar(se)
run for: presentarse como candidato/a (a un cargo)
set out: salir, ponerse en camino
set up: establecer(se), fundar
shop around: comparar precios
show up: aparecer / presentarse en un sitio
sit down: sentarse
slow down: reducir la velocidad, ir más despacio
stand up: levantarse, ponerse de pie
start over: empezar de nuevo / desde cero
take after: parecerse a
take back: devolver; retractarse, retirar (lo dicho)
take down: bajar; apuntar, tomar nota de

take in: meter (a una prenda); visitar
take off: irse
take on: aceptar (un reto)
take out: invitar; sacar
take part in: participar en
take up: empezar a
throw down: tirar, lanzar
try on: probarse (ropa, calzado)
turn down: bajar (el volumen); rechazar
turn into: convertir(se) en
turn off: apagar
turn on: encender
turn out: resultar
turn over: dar la vuelta (a algo)
turn up: aparecer, presentarse
win over: convencer
work out: hacer ejercicio
write back: contestar (por escrito)

PREPOSITION LIST

Verbs + Prepositions

agree with: estar de acuerdo con
appear on: salir a
apply for: solicitar
arrive in: llegar a (una ciudad, un país)
believe in: creer en
belong to: pertenecer a
care about: preocuparse / interesarse por
come to: llegar a
concentrate on: concentrarse en
decide on: decidirse por
dream of: soñar con
earn from: ganar gracias a
listen to: escuchar (a)
look at: mirar (a)
search for: buscar
serve as: servir de
spend on: gastar en
succeed in: tener éxito / triunfar en
talk about: hablar de / sobre
talk to: hablar con
think about: opinar (sobre), parecer; pensar en

Nouns + Prepositions

an average of: una media de
break from: descanso de
change in: cambio en
cost of: precio / coste de
idea of: idea de
importance of: importancia de
majority of: mayoría de
member of: miembro de
nature of: naturaleza de
number of: cantidad / número de
population of: población de
reminder of: recuerdo / recordatorio de
sign of: señal / indicio de

Adjectives + Prepositions (after to be)

afraid of: asustado de
appropriate for: apropiado / apto para
aware of: consciente de
fond of: (tener) cariño a
interested in: interesado en
jealous of: envidioso de
pleased for: alegre / contento por (alguien)
pleased with: satisfecho de
proud of: orgulloso de
sorry about: (sentir) pena / lástima por (algo)
sorry for: (sentir) pena / lástima por
surprised by: sorprendido por / con

IRREGULAR VERBS

BASE FORM (V1)	PAST SIMPLE (V2)	PAST PARTICIPLE (V3)	CASTELLANO
be /bi:/	was / were /wɒz/wɜ:/	been /bi:n/	ser, estar
beat /bi:t/	beat /bi:t/	beaten /'bi:tɪn/	golpear
become /bɪ'kʌm/	became /br'keɪm/	become /bɪ'kʌm/	llegar a ser
begin /bɪ'ɡɪn/	began /br'ɡeɪn/	begun /br'ɡʌn/	empezar
bend /bend/	bent /bent/	bent /bent/	doblar(se)
bet /bet/	bet /bet/	bet /bet/	apostar
bite /baɪt/	bit /bɪt/	bitten /'bɪtɪn/	morder
bleed /bled/	bled /bled/	bled /bled/	sangrar
blow /bləʊ/	blew /blu:/	blown /bləʊn/	soplar
break /breɪk/	broke /brɔ:k/	broken /'brɔ:kən/	romper
bring /brɪŋ/	brought /brɔ:t/	brought /brɔ:t/	traer
build /bɪld/	built /bɪlt/	built /bɪlt/	construir
burn /bɜ:n/	burnt / burned /bɜ:nt/bænd/	burnt / burned /bɜ:nt/bænd/	quemar
burst /bɜ:st/	burst /bɜ:st/	burst /bɜ:st/	reventar, estallar
buy /baɪ/	bought /bɔ:t/	bought /bɔ:t/	comprar
catch /kætʃ/	caught /kɔ:t/	caught /kɔ:t/	coger, atrapar
choose /tʃu:z/	chose /tʃəʊz/	chosen /'tʃəʊzn/	elegir
come /kʌm/	came /keɪm/	come /kʌm/	venir
cost /kɒst/	cost /kɒst/	cost /kɒst/	costar
cut /kʌt/	cut /kʌt/	cut /kʌt/	cortar
deal /di:l/	dealt /deɪlt/	dealt /deɪlt/	comerciar, tratar
dig /dɪŋ/	dug /dʌŋ/	dug /dʌŋ/	cavar
do /du:/	did /dɪd/	done /dʌn/	hacer
draw /drɔ:/	drew /dru:/	drawn /drɔ:n/	dibujar
dream /dri:m/	dreamt / dreamed /dremt/dri:md/	dreamt / dreamed /dremt/dri:md/	soñar
drink /drɪŋk/	drank /dræŋk/	drunk /drʌŋk/	beber
drive /draɪv/	drove /draʊv/	driven /'drɪvn/	conducir
eat /i:t/	ate /eɪt/	eaten /'i:tɪn/	comer
fall /fɔ:l/	fell /fel/	fallen /'fɔ:lɪn/	caer(se)
feed /fi:d/	fed /fed/	fed /fed/	alimentar
feel /fi:l/	felt /felt/	felt /felt/	sentir(se)
fight /faɪt/	fought /fɔ:t/	fought /fɔ:t/	luchar
find /faɪnd/	found /faʊnd/	found /faʊnd/	encontrar
fly /flaɪ/	flew /flu:/	flown /fləʊn/	volar
forget /fə'ɡet/	forgot /fə'ɡɒt/	forgotten /fə'ɡɒtn/	olvidar
forgive /fə'ɡɪv/	forgave /fə'ɡeɪv/	forgiven /fə'ɡɪvn/	perdonar
freeze /fri:z/	froze /frəʊz/	frozen /'frəʊzn/	congelar(se)
get /get/	got /ɡɒt/	got /ɡɒt/	conseguir, llegar
give /ɡɪv/	gave /geɪv/	given /'ɡɪvn/	dar
go /ɡəʊ/	went /went/	gone /ɡɒn/	ir
grow /ɡrəʊ/	grew /ɡru:/	grown /ɡrəʊn/	crecer; cultivar
hang /hæŋ/	hung / hanged /hæŋ/hæŋd/	hung / hanged /hæŋ/hæŋd/	colgar
have /hæv/	had /hæd/	had /hæd/	tener; haber
hear /hɪə/	heard /hɜ:d/	heard /hɜ:d/	oir
hide /haɪd/	hid /hɪd/	hidden /'hɪdn/	esconder(se)
hit /hɪt/	hit /hɪt/	hit /hɪt/	golpear, pegar
hold /həʊld/	held /held/	held /held/	sujetar
hurt /hɜ:t/	hurt /hɜ:t/	hurt /hɜ:t/	herir, hacer daño
keep /ki:p/	kept /kept/	kept /kept/	guardar, mantener
know /nəʊ/	knew /nju:/	known /nəʊn/	saber, conocer
lay /lei/	laid /leid/	laid /leid/	poner, extender
lead /li:d/	led /led/	led /led/	guiar, conducir
learn /lɜ:n/	learnt / learned /lɜ:nt/lɜ:nd/	learnt / learned /lɜ:nt/lɜ:nd/	aprender
leave /li:v/	left /left/	left /left/	dejar; irse, salir

- Revision strategies (Williams and Baines, 2008: 27).

LOOKING BACK

Units 1 2 3 4 5 6

Vocabulary

1 Choose the correct answer.

- All our are expected to come to work on time.
a. employees b. employers
- Last month, I began working at a large
a. appetite b. company
- They asked about my education on the
a. job title b. job application
- I because I started exercising every day.
a. was fired b. lost weight
- I've got a lot of work to do, so I'll have to work
a. overtime b. overweight
- I've finished school, and I'm looking for a
a. steady job b. light meal
- I haven't got the to move this desk.
a. work experience b. strength
- She went to lunch and then came after an hour.
a. back to work b. out of work

2 The following sentences do not make sense. Make them logical by replacing the words in bold with words in bold from another sentence.

- My job is interesting and challenging, so I've got a **balanced diet**. *job satisfaction*
- She has run out of money because she's been **hired** for so long. *unemployed*
- I'm planning to **watch my weight** when I'm 65. *before*
- I would love the job. I really hope that I am **unemployed**. *hired*
- I've decided to **recover** because I think I'm getting fat. *watch my weight*
- He was suffering from **job satisfaction**, so he couldn't work for several months. *poor health*
- It's important to have **poor health** if you want good nutrition. *balanced diet*
- Fortunately, he will soon completely **retire** from his illness. *recover*

3 Complete the sentences by adding a suitable suffix to the words in brackets to form adjectives or nouns.

- Steve reads a lot so he's very (knowledge) *knowledgeable*
- My parents are looking forward to their (retire) *retirement*
- Jane is very talented but she's not (organise) *organised*
- Does your (employ) give you enough holiday time? *employer*
- She received a (promote) because she worked very hard all year. *promotion*

Grammar

4 Complete the passage by choosing the correct answer.

Follow Your Dreams

Would you like to make a change in your career?
(1) **Have you been thinking / Had you been thinking** lately that your job isn't exciting any more?

Perhaps by the time you finish reading this story,
(2) **you have found / you'll have found** the courage to change your life as Sara Thompson has.

Sara Thompson, previously a successful accountant, is now a top jewellery designer.

Nigel Foreman interviewed Sara and reports: When I came to interview Sara, she told me that despite her success as an accountant, it (3) **had always been / was always** her dream to work with her hands. One day she realised that it was now or never – so she told her boss that she (4) **is leaving / was leaving**, and took a course in jewellery-making. Sara then showed me the beautiful earrings that she (5) **had made / has made**. When I wanted to know if she (6) **had / has** any advice for readers, she told me (7) **write / to write**: "Don't be afraid to try new things. Follow your dreams!" Sara did – and she (8) **hasn't been looking / hasn't looked** back since.

5 Rewrite the sentences with the words in brackets. Do not change the original meaning.

- I started to paint in 2001. I'm still painting. (since)
- She worked at the company for two years. Then she decided to leave. (before)
- "I applied for a job yesterday," Jack mentioned. (that)
- "I'll take out the rubbish tonight," my son promised. (that)
- "Let's cook a meal together," I suggested. (that)

Writing

6 Complete the sentences with the words or phrases below.

in order to • contact me • because • look forward to • so

- I haven't got time to work I am studying at university.
- Please about this job application.
- I am writing get some information.
- I receiving your reply.
- I don't feel well, ... I'm going home.

27

- Use of images technique. Exercise 7, page 11, and exercise 6, page 49 (Williams and Baines, 2008).

UNIT 1 | Health

5 Complete the sentences with the words you formed in Exercise 4.

1. After her operation, she was in a lot of discomfort.
2. He needs to lose weight because he is obese.
3. It's so easy to prepare dinner with ready-made food.
4. My sister takes exercise because she doesn't eat enough fruit and vegetables.
5. You burned the cake. It's ruined.

6 Complete the passage with the words below. Then listen and check your answers.
exhausted • meals • strength • nutritious • weight • diet

Eat and Run

Runner Jacqueline Mariash wanted to be chosen for the US Olympic team, and as part of her training, she watched what she ate. She thought that by losing (1) weight, she could improve her performance. The problem was that this didn't help her. She actually missed a lot of training sessions because she was so (2) exhausted. It turned out that the problem was her daily (3) diet – she wasn't getting enough (4) nutritious food. Dietician Nancy Pudwill put her back on track by recommending that she eat three balanced (5) meals a day. Now that Jacqueline is eating well, her performance has improved and she finds she has more energy and (6) strength to run.



7 Match the idioms to the pictures.

1. He's got the weight of the world on his shoulders.
2. She's worth her weight in gold.

A



B



Can you guess the meanings of the idioms above?

Bridge to Speaking

Grammar and Vocabulary

Complete the following sentences.
Tell your partner.

1. I sometimes lose my appetite when
2. People who are unfit should
3. I get exhausted when
4. My daily diet consists of

Ask questions to find out three things you didn't know about your partner.

Have you ever ... ?

 **Vocabulary Builder, page 2**

11

ADJECTIVES + PREPOSITIONS: Remember! Many adjectives are followed by prepositions. Some adjectives can be followed by only one specific preposition: *jealous of*. Other adjectives can be followed by several possible prepositions: *pleased with*, *pleased for*.

Adjectives + Prepositions, page 112

4 Complete the sentences with the expressions below.

sorry for • sorry about • jealous of • fond of • proud of • afraid of • pleased with • pleased for

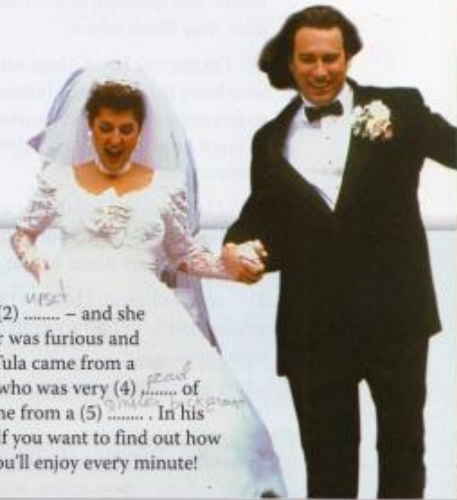
- Sophie has had her room decorated and she is the results.
- I'm so you for winning the prize.
- My little brother is the dark.
- David is very his grandmother. She spoils him all the time.
- I'm so you. You must be so happy about the good news.
- We are so the people whose flight had been cancelled.
- Many people are Anne, because she is beautiful and successful.
- I am your grandmother's illness. You must be very worried.

5 Complete the passage with the words and expressions below. Then listen and check your answers.

proud • similar background • fell in love • couple • upset • spouse

My Big Fat Greek Wedding

When Tula (1) with John, she guessed her father might be (2) – and she was right. When they began to talk about marriage, Tula's father was furious and refused to give the (3) his blessing. The problem was that Tula came from a traditional Greek family, and John was not Greek. Tula's father, who was very (4) of his Greek roots, believed that it was important to marry someone from a (5) In his opinion, a suitable (6) for Tula would be a nice Greek boy. If you want to find out how Tula and John's relationship developed, see this film on DVD. You'll enjoy every minute!



6 Look at the picture and the caption below. What do you think the idiom means?



Mrs Jones **wears the trousers** in her house.

Match the idioms in A to their meanings in B.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|
| A | B |
| 1. see eye to eye | a. ignore |
| 2. give someone the cold shoulder | b. agree |

Bridge to Speaking

Grammar and Vocabulary

Talk to your partner about the following situations, using a suitable conditional.

- What would you do if your best friend didn't treat you nicely?
- Your parents are talking about moving to a different town. If they do, what will you do in order to keep in touch with your current friends?
- Your friend didn't come to school for a few days and you didn't know that he / she had been very ill. What would you have done if you had known?

Vocabulary Builder, page 8

- Practising strategies: receiving and sending messages (exercise 5, page 5) and skimming and scanning (exercise 1, page 6), (Williams and Baines, 2008).

3 What do you know about food?
Try the trivia quiz and find out.

Test Your FOOD Knowledge

1. More than half the world's population eats a diet that consists mainly of:
a. potatoes b. rice c. pasta
2. The only essential vitamin not found in the potato is:
a. Vitamin A b. Vitamin B c. Vitamin C
3. Which of the following does the average person in the United States consume the most of?
a. corn b. cabbage c. tomatoes
4. The largest fast-food market, after the USA, is:
a. China b. Russia c. India
5. The European country that eats more spicy Mexican food than any other is:
a. Italy b. England c. Norway
6. The most popular flavour used in food is:
a. chocolate b. vanilla c. banana
7. Which of the following contains the most fat?
a. crisps b. peanuts c. chocolate biscuits
8. Milkshakes and ice cream are good sources of:
a. iron b. calcium c. protein

Answers, page 147

Bridge to Everyday Language
Eating in a Restaurant

4 In a restaurant, who would say each of the following – a waiter or a customer?

1. Can I clear away your plates? *A waiter.*
2. What would you recommend? *A customer.*
3. Yes – orange juice, please. *"*
4. I'm sorry – we're fully booked this evening. *A waiter.*
5. Have you got a table for four? *A customer.*
6. We haven't made up our minds yet. *A customer.*
7. Would you like a drink with your meal? *A waiter.*
8. Can I take your order, please? *A waiter.*
9. Yes, and we'd like dessert, please. *A customer.*
10. No, it's actually quite mild. *A customer.*
11. Is the soup very spicy? *A waiter.*
12. Try the fillet steak, it's excellent. *A waiter.*

5 With a partner, form mini-dialogues by making suitable pairs of sentences from Exercise 4.

What would you recommend?
Try the fillet steak, it's excellent.

Unusual Food
People eat many unusual things including some of the following. Which do you think people eat?

1. gold
2. glass
3. birds' nests
4. ants

What unusual foods do people eat in your country?

Answers, page 147

READING

1 Identifying the Main Idea: Read the first and last sentence of each paragraph of the text to find the main idea of the paragraph. Which paragraph discusses ... ?

1. reasons for the walk → P. II
2. consequences of the walk → P. IV
3. experiences during the walk → P. III

2 Read the text and decide whether the sentences are true or false. Use the keywords to help you. Find evidence in the text to support your answers.

1. Steve Vaught planned to become famous. F. (3-10)
2. When Steve started the walk, he was obese. T. (9-10)
3. At first, Steve just wanted to be thinner. T. (11)
4. Steve ate in 21 fast-food restaurants in one place. F. (12-18)
5. Many ordinary people identified with Steve. T. (21)

True / False Questions, page 132 →

3 Choose the correct answer.

1. Steve started the walk in order to
 a. get publicity
 b. get a book deal
 c. improve his life
2. Steve eventually weighed 190 kgs because he
 a. felt very unhappy
 b. was a marine
 c. liked fast food
3. Steve thinks that his example will help people to
 a. avoid eating fast food
 b. do more exercise
 c. confront their problems

4 Answer the questions.

1. Why was Steve Vaught surprised by the reaction of the public in the United States?
2. In what way was Steve Vaught "a different person" at the end of his walk?

5 Find words or expressions in the text which mean the same as:

1. understand (introduction)
2. change (paragraph I)
3. got to (paragraph II)
4. continued (paragraph III)
5. contract (paragraph IV)

6 Words from the Text: Complete the following summary of the text on page 7. Use the words below.

improve • face • turned into
weight • attempt • breath

Steve Vaught realised he had a problem when even walking in the supermarket made him lose his (1) He decided to walk from coast to coast in an (2) to lose (3) As he was walking, more and more people began to follow his progress and Steve (4) a celebrity. This surprised him. He said he wasn't really special – all he wanted to do was to (5) his problems and (6) his life.



British / American English

Some foods are uniquely British or American. Can you guess in which country you would eat the following?

1. hash browns → American
2. bangers and mash → British
3. roast beef and Yorkshire pudding → British
4. grits → American

Answers, page 147

- Translation, comparison and analyzing and reasoning techniques (Williams and Baines, 2008: 8, 103).

GRAMMAR

Perfect Tenses

Read the dialogue and do the exercises.

DEBBIE: You look exhausted! Is everything OK?

JUSTIN: Yes, I've **been working out**. I've just **started** a new exercise programme.

DEBBIE: What made you decide to do that?

JUSTIN: Well, I **had been putting on** weight. I couldn't get into a pair of jeans I **had bought** last year. Hopefully, by this time next month, I **will have lost** some weight.



- Look at the verbs in bold. Match each verb to the correct tense below.
 Present Perfect Simple • Present Perfect Continuous
 Past Perfect Simple • Past Perfect Continuous • Future Perfect Simple
- Translate the dialogue into your own language, paying attention to the verbs in bold.

Grammar Appendix, page 103

1 Choose the correct answer.

- This is the first time I **have done** / **had done** Pilates exercises.
- By the time she got to school, everyone **had heard** / **will have heard** the news.
- I didn't know that they **have opened** / **had opened** a gym here last week.
- Where is Sue? **Has anyone seen** / **Will anyone have seen** her?
- By this time next year, everyone **will have forgotten** / **has forgotten** his name.
- We had to take a taxi because the last bus **has already left** / **had already left**.
- I hope the film **hadn't started** / **won't have started** by the time we arrive.
- She can't drive because she **hasn't got** / **hadn't got** a licence yet.



2 Complete the sentences with the verbs in brackets. Use the Present Perfect Simple, Past Perfect Simple, Past Simple or Future Perfect Simple.

- Debbie (start) smoking when she was 16, but some of her friends even (start) a few months earlier.
- I (lose) a lot of weight since I (stop) eating fast food.
- By this time tomorrow, I (walk) over 20 kilometres.
- Sam (finish) the race by the time we (arrive) last night.
- Next Monday, my boyfriend and I (know) each other for exactly a year.
- you ever (compete) in a marathon before or is this your first one?
- We (not complete) the assignment by tomorrow.
- He just (leave) his office, but he's probably still in the building.

8

BE GOING TO		
FORM		
Affirmative I am going to buy You are going to buy He / She / It is going to buy We / You / They are going to buy	Negative I am (I'm) not going to buy You are not (aren't) going to buy He / She / It is not (isn't) going to buy We / You / They are not (aren't) going to buy	Interrogative Am I going to buy? Are you going to buy? Is he / she / it going to buy? Are we / you / they going to buy?
Uses	Examples	Time expressions
A planned action for the future	We are going to buy a new computer next month.	this evening, later, in an hour, at 4 o'clock, tomorrow, soon,
An action that is about to happen	Look at those clouds. It's going to rain soon.	next month / year, in a few weeks, on 8th May

— El Present Continuous con valor de futuro

Anuncia acciones fijadas de antemano que ocurrirán en el futuro próximo. Se suele reservar para planes personales ya concertados.

They're coming home tonight.
(Vienen / Vendrán a casa esta noche.)

No expresa una intención, como **be going to**, sino algo que ha sido programado con antelación y que va a pasar con seguridad. Se distingue del *Present Continuous* normal porque la expresión temporal que va en la frase indica un tiempo futuro y no presente.

The train is arriving in twenty minutes.
(El tren llega / llegará dentro de veinte minutos.)

FUTURE CONTINUOUS		
FORM		
Affirmative I / You will be shopping He / She / It will be shopping We / You / They will be shopping	Negative I / You will not (won't) be shopping He / She / It will not (won't) be shopping We / You / They will not (won't) be shopping	Interrogative Will I / you be shopping? Will he / she / it be shopping? Will we / you / they be shopping?
Uses	Examples	Time expressions
An action in progress at a certain time in the future	At this time tomorrow, I will be shopping in town.	at this time, at this time next ..., on Thursday, in the next decade

UNIT 1 Health

PRESENT PERFECT SIMPLE		
FORM		
Affirmative I / You have talked He / She / It has talked We / You / They have talked	Negative I / You have not (haven't) talked He / She / It has not (hasn't) talked We / You / They have not (haven't) talked	Interrogative Have I / you talked? Has he / she / it talked? Have we / you / they talked?
Uses	Examples	Time expressions
An action that began in the past and continues until the future	I haven't talked to Jim for a week.	ever, never, yet, just, already, recently, lately, how long ...?, for, since, in recent years
An action that took place at an undetermined time in the past, but is connected to the present	Jack has stopped smoking.	

9.2.2. Indirect strategies

- Planning techniques (Williams and Baines, 2008: 134-135, 139-140).

WRITING GUIDE

THE WRITING PROCESS

STEP 1: Brainstorm for Ideas

- Write down all the ideas you can think of.
- Don't worry about grammar or spelling.
- Don't worry about whether the idea is relevant.
- You can write in your own language.

STEP 2: Organising Your Ideas

- Decide which ideas to keep and cross out the others.
- Group similar ideas together.
- Put the groups in order according to a writing plan.

STEP 3: Focus on Language

- Think of words and expressions you will need in your work.

STEP 4: Write a First Draft

- Write in pencil. Leave wide margins for notes. Leave space between lines for additions and corrections.
- Write quickly. Don't worry about neatness or accuracy.
- If you can't think of a word in English, write it in your own language. Look the word up in a dictionary later.
- If you can't spell a word, write it any way you can. Then check the word in a dictionary when you have finished.

TOPIC: Advantages and Disadvantages of CCTV

(Closed Circuit TVs)

Group A – advantages (+)

Group B – disadvantages (-)

- invade our privacy (B)
- help prevent crime (A)
- help trace missing people (A)
- ~~very ugly~~
- are expensive (B)
- catch shoplifters (A)
- ~~show black and white or colour pictures~~
- information received could be dangerous in the wrong hands (B)

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CONNECTORS

STEP 5: Check Your Work

- Use the Writer's Checklist on this page to improve your work.

STEP 6: Writing a Final Draft

- When you are satisfied with your work, copy it neatly onto a clean sheet of paper.
- Write in pen or type on the computer.
- Be sure to include all your corrections.
- Leave a margin on the left-hand side.
- Make sure your paragraphs are clearly indicated.

NOTE:

You can indicate the beginning of a paragraph by:

1. indenting (moving the first word of the paragraph to the right).
 2. skipping a line before beginning a new paragraph. Each paragraph begins at the left-hand margin.
- Both styles are correct, but be consistent in your writing. The indented style is preferred for informal letters.

There ~~is~~ ^{are} several advantages ~~of~~ ^{to} having CCTV in public places. They can be used to prevent crime. Moreover, if someone ~~is~~ ^{is} will be missing, CCTV cameras can help police find out the last place where they were. ~~soon~~ ^{soon} In addition, CCTVs help shopkeepers locate people who steal from ~~his~~ ^{their} shops.

Writer's Checklist

CONTENT: Did I ...

- ☐ begin with a suitable opening sentence?
- ☐ present my ideas clearly?
- ☐ use relevant details and examples to explain my ideas?
- ☐ support my ideas with details and examples (opinion, for and against essay)?
- ☐ end with a suitable closing sentence?
- ☐ use pronouns to refer to the nouns in the paragraph?
- ☐ use connectors to link my ideas?

LANGUAGE: Did I ...

- ☐ check my grammar?
- ☐ check my spelling?
- ☐ check word order?
- ☐ use correct punctuation?
- ☐ use capital letters correctly?
- ☐ use adjectives correctly?

ORGANISATION: Did I ...

- ☐ use suitable connectors?
- ☐ present the information in a logical order?

AN OPINION ESSAY

When writing an opinion essay, the writer states an opinion and tries to convince readers that his / her opinion is justified. The writer should also present aspects of the topic which support his / her point of view. Look at the topic below. Then study the plan and read the model.

TOPIC: Write an opinion essay on the topic: Should fast-food adverts contain a health warning?

PLAN:

Opening:

states the topic and the writer's opinion

Body:

supports the writer's opinion with facts and examples

Closing:

summarises and restates the writer's opinion

MODEL:

Should Fast-Food Adverts Contain a Health Warning?

Fast-food restaurants are all around us, but, unfortunately, not everyone is aware of how unhealthy fast food is. I strongly believe that adverts for fast food should contain a health warning in order to make the public aware of this.

In the first place, eating too much fast food can cause many serious, even fatal, illnesses. A recent study has shown that eating frequent fast-food meals causes obesity and increases the risk of diabetes, particularly among young people.

Many of the adverts for fast food are aimed at children, who probably do not think about the bad effects of fast food. It seems to me that before or after each advert, there should be a warning which says, "Too much fast food can damage your health". As a result, young people might think twice before buying fast food.

In conclusion, I believe that it is the government's responsibility to bring to people's attention the potential dangers of fast food, just as they do with cigarettes. Personally, I am sure that it will save many lives.

Useful Language

In my opinion, ...

I think / feel that ...

I believe that ...

As I see it, ...

I love / can't stand / don't mind ...

As for ...

If you ask me, ...

For example, ...

It seems to me that ...

As far as I'm concerned, ...

Personally, ...

In conclusion, ...

To sum up, ...

In short, ...

Writing Guide

A FORMAL LETTER

A formal letter is usually written when we want to make a complaint, apply for a job or request information. The language we use is different to the language we use when writing to someone we know well. Look at the topic below. Then study the plan and read the model.

TOPIC: Write a formal letter requesting information about an English course.

PLAN:

MODEL:

Details:	
the writer's address	C/ de la Fuente, 19
date	02004 Albacete
	25th March, 2008
name and address of person or business being written to	The Gladstone School of English 13 Glastonbury Way Chester
Formal Greeting:	Dear Sir / Madam,
Opening:	I am writing in response to your advertisement in the local newspaper. I would like to receive further information about the English summer courses which you are offering.
states reason for writing letter	
Body:	First of all, I would appreciate receiving more details about the courses and the activities you offer. I am interested in participating in a course which emphasises spoken English. In addition, I would like to know the cost of such a course and whether or not recreational activities are included in the cost. Can you also tell me the size of the classes?
asks for information	I would be grateful if you could supply more information regarding accommodation. Is it possible to stay with local families?
Conclusion:	I look forward to receiving this information as soon as possible.
requests a response	
Closing:	Yours faithfully,
formal ending	<i>Rosa Torres</i>
signature with full name written underneath	Rosa Torres

Useful Language

Greetings

Dear Sir / Madam,

Dear Mr / Mrs / Ms ... ,

Purpose of writing

I am writing in reply to your advertisement in ...

I am writing in order to apply for the position of ...

I would like to apply for the position of ...

Concluding remarks

I hope you will consider my application favourably.

Enclosed please find a photograph of myself.

Please contact me if you require any further information.

I look forward to hearing from you in the near future.

Closing

Yours faithfully,

Yours sincerely,

- Lowering anxiety and gaining self-confidence strategies: exam strategies (pages 132-133) and listening tips (page 90), (Williams and Baines, 2008).

EXAM STRATEGIES APPENDIX

TRUE / FALSE QUESTIONS

Read the tips for answering true / false questions. Then look at how the tips were used in the example.

1. Make sure you understand the statement's meaning. Identify the keywords in the statement.
2. Find the relevant part of the text with the help of the keywords or their synonyms.
3. Compare the statement with the text and decide if it is true or false.
4. Justify your answer by quoting the relevant part of the text.

Example: Steve Vaught planned to become famous.

- The keywords in this sentence are **planned** and **famous**.
- **Celebrity** (line 4) means the same as famous, so the relevant sentence is: **At first, it began as a personal challenge, but gradually it turned Steve into a celebrity.**
- The sentence shows that his fame was unplanned, since the walk began as a personal challenge and only gradually turned Steve into a celebrity.

Answer: False

MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS

Read the tips for answering multiple-choice questions. Then look at how the tips were used in the example.

1. Read the question and all the answer options. Identify the keywords in the question.
2. Find the relevant part of the text with the help of the keywords or their synonyms.
3. Compare the words in the answers with the words in the text. Be careful – similar words may be distractors!

Example: Sessions' victory was most surprising because ...

- a. he won by a narrow margin
- b. he is a high-school student
- c. Hillsdale is a small town

- The keywords are **victory** and **surprising**.
- The words **caused a sensation** (line 2) are a synonym for the word **surprising**, and **winning** is a synonym for the word **victory** (line 4).

Answer: b

Answer c is incorrect. This option uses an idea from the text, but it is unrelated to his victory.

Answer a is incorrect. This option uses words from the text, but they relate to the election results and not people's feelings about his victory.

Answer b is correct. This option rewords the information in the text and explains the surprise.

FINDING SYNONYMS

Read the tips for finding synonyms. Then look at how the tips were used in the example.

1. Analyse the word given and determine what part of speech it is. Use prefixes and suffixes to help you.
2. Read through the text and pay attention to the words that are the same part of speech as the word given.
3. When you think you have found the correct synonym, check yourself by replacing the word in the text with the word from the exercise. Read the sentence to see if it makes sense.

Example: Find a word with the same meaning as **things** (paragraph 1).

- The word **things** is a noun (seen from the plural ending -s), and refers to objects.
- In lines 15-16, the text mentions an Internet site where you can buy new or second-hand items. When you replace **items** with **things**, the sentence makes sense.

Answer: items

OPEN QUESTIONS

Read the tips for answering open questions. Then look at how the tips were used in the example.

1. Read the question carefully and determine the type of information (reason, place, time, etc.) you have to provide. Use the question words to help you.
2. Use keywords (or their synonyms) in the question to help you locate the answer in the text.
3. Note the tense in the question. Your answer will generally use the same tense.
4. Write the answer in your own words whenever possible. Do not add unnecessary information or give your opinion.
5. Check for errors in language, spelling and punctuation.

Example: In what way has the Amish lifestyle remained the same since they arrived in the USA?

- The phrase **In what way** indicates that you need to provide specific information.
- The keywords are **lifestyle** and **remained the same**. **Remained the same** is a synonym for **hardly changed** (line 9). In line 9, we also find the word **lifestyle**.
- The answer should be in the Present Perfect Simple.

Answer: They have continued to isolate themselves from the rest of the world and turn their backs on change.

SENTENCE COMPLETION

Read the tips for sentence completion. Then look at how the tips were used in the example.

1. Read the part of the sentence you have been given and locate keywords and connectors.
2. Use the keywords or their synonyms / opposites to locate the relevant part of the text.
3. Read that part of the text and decide what information is needed to complete the sentence.
4. Complete the sentence. Remember to make the necessary grammatical changes.

Example: Dark tourism seems unnatural since

- The keywords in this sentence are **Dark tourism** and **unnatural** and the connector is **since**. It indicates that you need to complete the sentence by giving a reason.
- The opposite of **unnatural** is **natural**, so the relevant part of the text is line 28. If it is **natural** to visit places with a more positive and fun atmosphere, it is **unnatural not** to visit them.
- Information required: the reason why these places are not considered natural to visit.

Answer: Dark tourism seems unnatural since it does not include places that have got a positive and fun atmosphere.

REWRITING SENTENCES

Read the tips for rewriting sentences. Then look at how the tips were used in the example.

1. Read the original sentence carefully.
2. Look at the words in the new sentence. Decide which part of speech the next word must be.
3. Identify which grammar structure is being practised and decide what you have to change in the sentence you are going to write.
4. Rewrite the sentence, checking that you have included all the information given in the original sentence and that your sentence is grammatically correct.

Example: Local traditions must be maintained, otherwise you will lose your identity.

If you don't ...

- **If you don't ...** must be followed by a verb in the base form. The grammatical structure being practised is the first conditional.

Answer: If you don't maintain local traditions, you will lose your identity.

LISTENING PREPARATION

TIPS FOR LISTENING EXAMS

Read through these tips and keep them in mind as you work through the practice sections.

Before You Listen

- Before listening to the recording, read the title and the comprehension questions, as they can help you to predict the topic and content of the passage.
- When you read the questions, identify keywords and underline them.
- Make sure you know the type of information you are listening for (place, time, person, reason, etc.).

While You Listen

- As you listen, pay attention to keywords and their synonyms or antonyms to recognise the part of the recording related to each question.
- Remember – you don't have to understand every word to comprehend the main ideas and answer questions.
- Some English words can sound very similar. Try to recognise the word from its context.

Answering Multiple-choice Questions

- Read the choice of answers carefully and listen for the correct answer expressed in a slightly different way.
- Be aware of words that appear in the recording, but which are used as distractors in the questions.

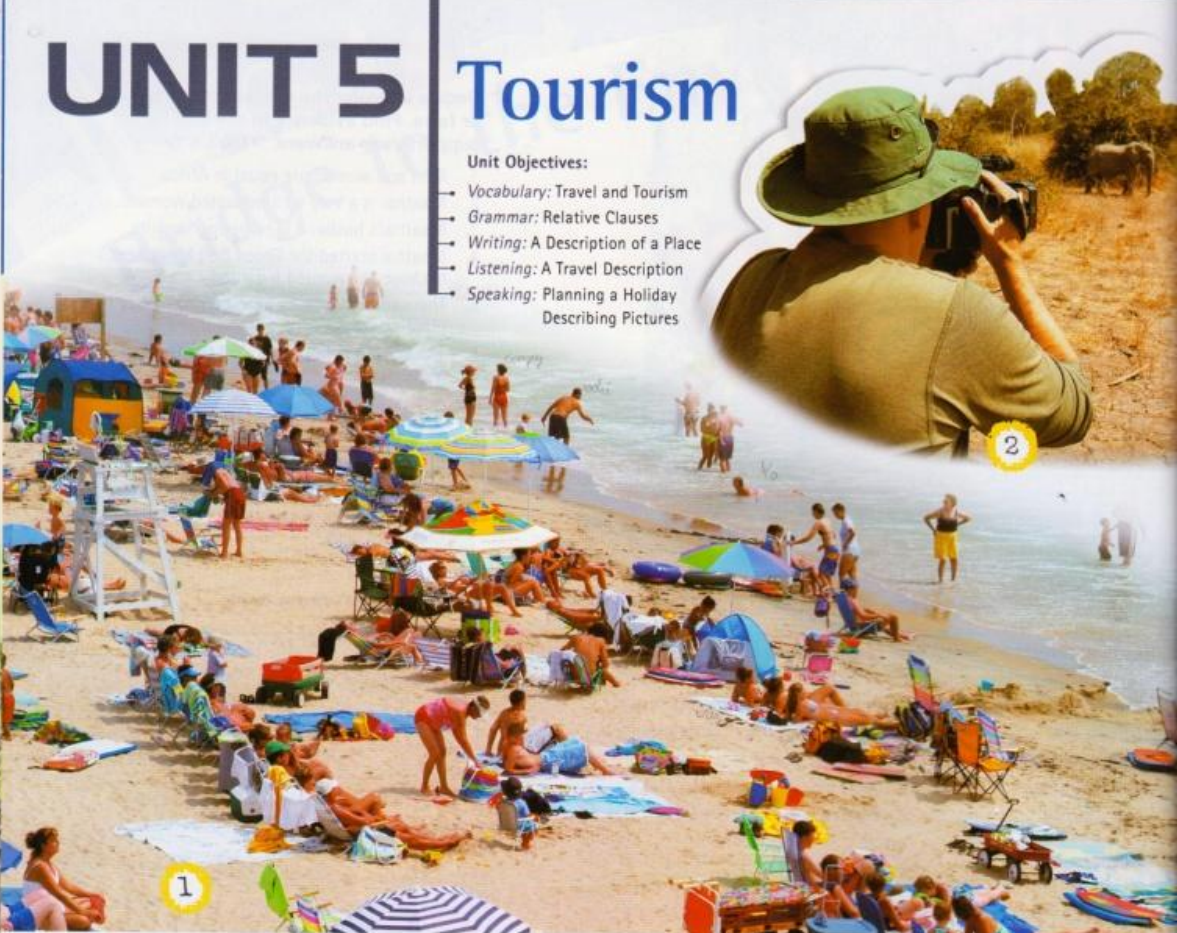


- Social strategies: group cooperation and interaction (Williams and Baines, 2008: 56).

UNIT 5 Tourism

Unit Objectives:

- Vocabulary: Travel and Tourism
- Grammar: Relative Clauses
- Writing: A Description of a Place
- Listening: A Travel Description
- Speaking: Planning a Holiday
Describing Pictures



VOCABULARY

- 1 Look at the pictures of people abroad. Tell your partner what the people are doing. What do you think was their reason for travelling? Use the expressions below to help you.
look for adventure • do volunteer work • get away from it all • take it easy • see historical places
fulfil the dream of a lifetime • take on a personal challenge • meet the locals
- 2 Look at the pictures and use the adjectives below to describe each place.
isolated • crowded • peaceful • dangerous • boring • relaxing • fun
impressive • noisy • historical • lively • underdeveloped • unspoilt
- 3 Look at the types of holidays below. Which ones would you prefer to go on? Give reasons.
a guided tour • a cruise • a camping trip • a resort holiday • a safari • a trek

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9.2.3. Communicative strategies

- Tips for oral communication: exercise 4, page 14; exercise 4, page 26; and exercise 4, page 40 (Williams and Baines, 2008).

LISTENING

A Radio Programme

1 You are going to listen to a radio programme which discusses whether using mobile phones is a health risk. Read the opinions below and choose one that you agree with. Say why.

1. In my opinion, mobile phones are dangerous and I refuse to have one.
2. Nothing has been proved. So, as far as I'm concerned, I'm going to continue using my mobile phone.
3. Personally, I try to use my mobile phone as little as possible – just in case!

2 Listen to the radio programme and decide whether the following sentences are true or false.

1. The series *Burning Issues* always deals with radiation.
2. The studies do not have the same conclusions.
3. Geoffrey Parker is worried by the results of some of the studies.
4. According to one study, mobile-phone radiation can affect people's memory.
5. According to the Cancer Research Organisation, mobile phones cause cancer.

3 Listen again and decide what the following things mentioned in the text refer to.

1. 30 per cent
2. rats
3. 50
4. Alzheimer's disease



SPEAKING

Expressing Opinions

4 With a partner, read the following statements and express your opinion. Give reasons to support your opinion. Use the *Useful Expressions* to help you.

1. Smokers should be allowed to smoke in public places.
2. In the past, people lived healthier lives.
3. Fast-food restaurants should be forced to sell healthier food.
4. It's healthier to be a vegetarian.

Useful Expressions

- In my opinion, ...
- If you ask me, ...
- I think / believe that ...
- As far as I'm concerned ...
- Personally, ...
- It seems to me that ...

Tip

Don't just agree or disagree with partner. Give reasons.

No Smoking

Have a guess. Which of the following countries was the first to introduce a total ban on smoking in workplaces?
a. Sweden b. Ireland c. France
In what places is smoking banned in your country?
Answer, page 147



14

Pronunciation Practice, page

LISTENING A Phone Interview

1 Look at the questions below. Which are intended to clarify information on a job application form or CV? Which ask for additional information?

1. Could I just check ... ?
2. Can you tell me more about ... ?
3. Have you ever ... ?
4. ... , is that correct?
5. What exactly do you mean when you say that ... ?

2 Listen to Jane's phone conversation. Which of the following points does she want to clarify?

job title • full-time or part-time job • salary
dress code • job training • holidays • working hours

3 Now listen to the job interview and complete the missing information on the CV.

CURRICULUM VITAE

NAME: Jane Margaret Evans
DATE OF BIRTH: 13th March (1) ...
ADDRESS: 23 Church Way, Cardiff
TELEPHONE: 029 784 6579
PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS:
BA in Computer Programming,
(2) ... University [(3) ... -year course]
WORK EXPERIENCE:
Jones Electronics: Specialised in
programs for (4) ... businesses

SPEAKING A Job Interview

4 Choose one of the adverts below and role-play a job interview. Student A is interested in applying for the job, but wants more information. Student B is the employer and interviews student A for the job. Use the questions in Exercise 1 and the *Useful Expressions* to help you.

Tip

Don't understand? Ask your partner to repeat. *Can you say that again?*
Need time to think? It's natural to pause or say: *er, um, well.*

CLASSIFIED ADS TUESDAY, 17th JUNE

Help Wanted

Waiters / Waitresses Required

Busy restaurant requires
young waiters / waitresses
for summer work

Flexible hours
Good conditions

Neat appearance a must
Possibility of regular work
throughout the year

CALL: JOANNE - 01752 7382198

Help Wanted

SUMMER JOB

Are you over 16?
Can you ride a motorbike?
Are you willing to work hard?
Do you want to make lots of money?

If you answered YES to the questions
above, we want to speak to you!

CONTACT MIKE - 0183 78467391

Useful Expressions

- Tell me a little about yourself.
- What do you do in your free time?
- What work experience have you got?
- Sorry, I'm not sure what you mean.
- Could you repeat that, please?

Pronunciation Practice, page 118 →



LISTENING Informal Conversations

- 1 What is important to you when buying new clothes? What is important to your parents when they buy you clothes? Rank the things below (1 = most important, 5 = least important).
- a. price b. brand name c. quality d. latest style e. comfort

- 2 Listen to the conversations in the shops and choose the correct answer.



CONVERSATION 1:

1. The problem with the dress is
 a. it doesn't look good on Carol
 b. it's too expensive
 c. it's not the right size



CONVERSATION 2:

2. The white shoes
 a. look comfortable
 b. are the latest style
 c. aren't very expensive



CONVERSATION 3:

3. The customer wants to
 a. have his money refunded
 b. replace the shirt
 c. buy something else

- 3 Listen again and answer true or false.

- Susan thinks the dress is too big for Carol.
- Susan recommends that Carol buy the dress now.
- Sam's mum agrees to buy the grey trainers.
- The man in the shop has got a receipt.
- The sales assistant refuses to refund the man's money.

Tip

Find the keywords in the questions or statements. Then listen for these words or their synonyms.

SPEAKING Agreeing and Disagreeing

- 4 With a partner, read the following statements about shopping. Tell your partner whether you agree or disagree with the statements and give your reasons why. Use the expressions in *Useful Language*.

- If something is cheap, it means it's not good quality.
- Shopping online is unsafe.
- You always save money shopping at sales.
- Brand-name products are worth the extra money.
- It's important to buy the latest fashions.

I disagree. If something is cheap, it doesn't mean it's not good quality. Perhaps it's in a sale.

Useful Language

- I agree / disagree (because) ...
- I'm in favour of ...
- I'm against ...
- I think it's a good idea, but ...
- I think it would be better to ...

Pronunciation Practice, page 118 →

