

ORGANIZADORAS

Vera Müller & Vivian Magalhães

Proceedings of the 14th Annual Convention

Teaching today,
touching tomorrow



***PROCEEDINGS OF THE 14TH ANNUAL
CONVENTION***

TEACHING TODAY, TOUCHING TOMORROW



Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul

Chanceler:

Dom Dadeus Grings

Reitor:

Joaquim Clotet

Vice-Reitor:

Evilázio Teixeira

Conselho Editorial:

Antônio Carlos Hohlfeldt

Elaine Turk Faria

Gilberto Keller de Andrade

Helenita Rosa Franco

Jaderson Costa da Costa

Jane Rita Caetano da Silveira

Jerônimo Carlos Santos Braga

Jorge Campos da Costa

Jorge Luis Nicolas Audy (Presidente)

José Antônio Poli de Figueiredo

Jussara Maria Rosa Mendes

Lauro Kopper Filho

Maria Eunice Moreira

Maria Lúcia Tiellet Nunes

Marília Costa Morosini

Ney Laert Vilar Calazans

René Ernaini Gertz

Ricardo Timm de Souza

Ruth Maria Chittó Gauer

EDIPUCRS:

Jerônimo Carlos Santos Braga – Diretor

Jorge Campos da Costa – Editor-chefe

Vera Müller
Vivian Magalhães
(Orgs.)

**PROCEEDINGS OF THE 14TH ANNUAL
CONVENTION**
TEACHING TODAY, TOUCHING TOMORROW



PORTO ALEGRE
2009

© EDIPUCRS, 2009

Capa: Vinícius de Almeida Xavier

Diagramação: Gabriela Viale Pereira

Dados Internacionais de Catalogação na Publicação (CIP)

A615 Annual Convention (14. : 2008 : Porto Alegre, RS)

Proceedings [recurso eletrônico] : teaching today, touching tomorrow / 14. Annual Convention ; org. Vera Müller, Vivian Magalhães. – Porto Alegre : PUCRS, 2009.

120 p.

Convenção da Associação dos Professores de Inglês/RS (APIRS), realizada na Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul, nos dias 18, 19 e 20 de julho de 2008.

Sistema requerido: Adobe Acrobat Reader

Modo de Acesso: World Wide Web:

<<http://www.pucrs.br/orgaos/edipucrs/>>

ISBN 978-85-7430-879-1 (on-line)

1. Educação. 2. Inglês – Ensino. 3. Inglês – Aprendizagem.
4. Professores – Ensino de Língua Inglesa. I. Müller, Vera. II. Magalhães, Vivian. III. Associação dos Professores de Inglês do Rio Grande do Sul.
IV. Título: Teaching today, touching tomorrow.

CDD 372.6521

**Ficha Catalográfica elaborada pelo
Setor de Tratamento da Informação BC-PUCRS**



Av. Ipiranga, 6681 - Prédio 33
Caixa Postal 1429
90619-900 Porto Alegre, RS - BRASIL
Fone/Fax: (51) 3320-3711
E-mail: edipucrs@pucrs.br
<http://www.pucrs.br/edipucrs>

SUMÁRIO

Foreword	6
<i>Vera Müller</i>	
<i>Vivian Magalhães</i>	
Helping your students to use their dictionaries more effectively	7
<i>Isabel Cristina Tedesco Selistre</i>	
The Amish people: their habits, culture, history and education.	20
<i>Juliane Garcia Dorneles</i>	
Twelve months in the United States: festivals, theater, tourism, studies, museums.....	33
<i>Juliane Garcia Dorneles</i>	
Teaching children and their languages.....	49
<i>Janice Aquini</i>	
What goes on in the language classroom and how it may affect learning	60
<i>Maerli Tasca Appelt</i>	
<i>Regina Bastos</i>	
<i>Anelise Burmeister</i>	
<i>Anelise Friedrichs</i>	
Teaching English to children: what's going on here?	70
<i>Cristiane Maria Schnack</i>	
<i>Cristiane Ely Lemke</i>	
<i>Aline Jaeger</i>	
English as a Lingua Franca vs. Brazilian EFL classrooms	82
<i>Patrícia Linck Berto</i>	
Integrating English reading comprehension to Chemistry concepts: an interdisciplinary project to High School students	93
<i>Athany Gutierres</i>	
English as an international language: a study of the case of Brazil.....	105
<i>Carina Silva Fragozo</i>	

FOREWORD

In July of 2005, APIRS started registering the presentations held at our yearly conventions, at first in CDs that were then copied and sold to the participants, and then, starting last year, in the e-book format. The positive feedback we had on these previous publications has led us to continue on the same track, this time sharing with you the work presented in the convention of 2008, whose theme was “Teaching today, touching tomorrow”.

The main objective of these publications is to enable teachers who attended the presentations to review what was discussed without having to resort to paper handouts, which are not nature friendly. By the way, APIRS has taken several steps towards a more environmentally-responsible use of natural resources, by, for instance, using recycled paper in the association’s newsletter and distributing cloth bags, instead of plastic ones, at our main events.

A book like this one is also an opportunity for presenters to register their production on a permanent basis, as well as share their knowledge with fellow colleagues. Since this e-book will be freely available online, the knowledge it contains will certainly be useful not only to APIRS members, but also to EFL teachers worldwide who share similar interests and areas of research. We do believe that books, whatever their format, are the most powerful tools in keeping knowledge alive and available.

We would like to point out that the content of each article in this publication is the sole responsibility of their authors, who we thank for sharing their work. We are also thankful to PUCRS for their support, both in hosting the Convention and publishing these proceedings. Like the previous edition of 2007, this e-book will be permanently available at our website www.apirs.com.br ,

We wish you a fruitful and enjoyable reading.

Vera Müller
Vivian Magalhães

Helping your students to use their dictionaries more effectively

Isabel Cristina Tedesco Selistre

Abstract

The National Curriculum Parameters for Secondary School – Foreign Language (PCNEM/LE, 2002) established the role of bilingual dictionaries in the context of teaching and learning English. This paper aims to review the main theoretical issues in lexicography and present some activities that may help to prepare the students to get the information they need from their bilingual dictionaries.

Keywords: Secondary School - Bilingual Lexicography, Dictionary Skills.

Introduction

The National Curriculum Parameters for Secondary School – Foreign Language (PCNEM/LE, 2002) provide guidance on English language teaching. They say that the teachers' primary concern should be to enable their students to read and comprehend texts in a foreign language. The document also outlines that to achieve this goal it is necessary that both language structure and vocabulary building be practiced in the classes (p.103).

Teaching language structure means teaching about how the language works, i.e., it means teaching about grammar: pronouns, articles, word order, verb tenses, etc. (PCNEM/LE 2002: 104).

Vocabulary building comprises mainly two tasks: reading different types of texts on the same subject and making word associations from these texts, and using bilingual dictionaries (PCNEM/LE 2002: 105).

This paper will focus on the development of dictionary skills. In the first part, the main concepts in bilingual lexicography are presented. In the second one, some activities with bilingual dictionaries are suggested.

1 Bilingual Lexicography

A bilingual dictionary consists of an alphabetical list of words or expressions in one language (the 'source language') for which equivalents are given in another language (the 'target language'). The purpose is to provide help to someone who understands one language but not the other (Landau 1989: 7).

The selection and presentation of lexicographical information in bilingual dictionaries and dictionary entries depend on the competence and needs of the user and the function that has to be fulfilled.

1.1 The Active - Passive Dichotomy

Kromann et al (1991: 2719) state that the establishment of a typology for bilingual dictionaries has to be based on the fact that the user of translation dictionaries has native-language competence, i.e., he knows the meaning and usage of words in his own language, and the fact that translation can be done in two directions – from the native to the foreign language or for the foreign language to the native language. These two criteria are the basis for building a typological distinction between active (L1→L2) and passive dictionaries (L2→L1).

In an active dictionary the information is primarily concerned with the equivalents - the lexical units of the foreign language that are to be needed by the user to translate texts from L1 to L2 or to produce L2 texts. In passive dictionaries the information is primarily about the lemmata – the lexical units of the foreign language that occur in foreign language texts the user wants to understand or translate into his native language (Hausmann 1977, apud Welker 2004:20).

1.2 Structural Components

The four canonical components that structure an active or passive dictionary are: *front matter*, macrostructure, microstructure and mediostructure.

1.2.1 Front Matter

The *front matter* usually presents an introduction or preface, explaining the characteristics of the edition concerned, together with a guide to using the dictionary, which may consist of a single-page diagram or some lengthier account (Jackson 2002: 25). Besides the *front matter*, bilingual dictionaries usually have a *middle* and/or a *back matter* - the part(s) of the dictionary that supplement the main alphabetic section with things like lists of names, lists of abbreviations, weights and measures, grammar points, etc.

1.2.2 Macrostructure

The body of a dictionary contains an alphabetic list of 'headwords' – the macrostructure. These headwords are usually printed in bold type and hang one or two spaces to the left of the other lines.

The headwords represent the particular selection of vocabulary and other items (simple lexemes, compounds, derivatives, inflected forms irregularly formed, affixes, abbreviations, etc.) that the lexicographer has decided merit inclusion, given the size and the purpose of the dictionary (Jackson 2002: 25).

1.2.3 Microstructure

The microstructure of a dictionary refers to the arrangement of the information within the entries (Carvalho 2001:65). A general bilingual dictionary usually includes in its microstructure the following elements (Haensch and Omeñaca 2004: 240):

- *spelling*: the headword indicates the normal spelling, but any orthographical variants will follow;
- *pronunciation*: within rounded () or slash / / brackets, together with any variations;
- *part of speech*: usually indicated by conventional abbreviations, 'n' for noun, 'adj' for adjective, etc.; verbs are also marked for 'transitive' (vt) or 'intransitive' (vi);

- *irregular forms*: plural, past and past participle, comparative and superlative degree.
- *equivalents (definitions in a monolingual dictionary)*: (a) word(s) in L1 which contain(s) the same meaning of the headword in L2.
- *usage restrictions*: where a sense is restricted in its contexts of use, an appropriate label precedes the sense concerned.
- *examples of application*: illustrative phrase or sentence.

Kromman et al (1991: 2721) add to this list the indication of *collocations* and *idiosyncratic constructions*.

Summarising, in the microstructure we can find all information about the form and the meaning of the headword.

1.2.4 Mediostructure

The mediostructure is a network structure that deals with a set or sets of relations that exist between different parts of data by way of cross-referencing, dictionary-internal as well as dictionary, external. The abstract mediostructure consists of all the possible sets of cross-referential relations, whether realised by concrete sets or not in the dictionary. The actual realisation of these referential networks may be function-related and the primary function of the dictionary may then be given priority. The actual cross-references at this level are then the concrete sets of relations depending on the function of the dictionary, the distribution structure and the search path involved in retrieving the information (Nielsen 1999: 90).

2 Dictionary skills

Teachers need to know how a bilingual dictionary is structured and the type of information its components (*front matter*, *middle* and/or *back matter*, macrostructure, microstructure and mediostructure) offer to develop in their classes the dictionary skills proposed by the National Curriculum Parameters for Secondary School – Foreign Language (PCNEM/LE, 2002: 105):

- picking up the most suitable equivalent in a given context;
- accessing phrasal verbs, idioms, slangs, etc;

- decoding the entries: abbreviations, phonetics symbols, etc, and
- finding cultural information related to the foreign language.

All these skills can be learned through simple activities like the ones below:

◆ **The dictionary**

- a) Present your bilingual dictionary (production, two 'sides', guide to the entries, pronunciation key, list of abbreviations, extra sections, etc.)
- b) Ask your students to take their dictionaries, and describe them in as much detail as possible. (guide to the entries***)
- c) Ask them to compare their dictionaries (Which one is the best? Why?)

◆ **The entries**

- a) Start asking questions like these:
 - > When do you look at the English side? And the Portuguese side?
 - > Are the two sides the same length?
 - > Do the two sides contain the same types of information? If not, why not?
- b) Choose an entry (noun/verb/adjective/preposition):
 - passive > what type of information can we find?
 - active > what type of information can we find?
- c) Make a list of all the different things they find and then ask the students what they think the different types of information are useful for.

◆ **Information Awareness**

© **'Pick-a-letter'** game (English side of the dictionary)

- a) Ask students to call out a letter.
 - b) Then explain that you are going to read out the first two letters of a word.
 - c) Next, tell them what type of word it is (e.g. noun, adjective, verb, etc.), and any other special information that comes (e.g. if it's American, irregular, etc.)
- The first team to tell you the word gets a point.

◆ **Meaning Awareness**

☉ **Finding the right meaning** (MED Magazine – issue 41 – Aug 2006)

- a) Choose a word with several distinct meanings such as *bar*.
- b) Give the students some simple sentences to translate. For example:

*We had breakfast in a **bar**.*
*All the houses have **bars** on the windows.*
*Can you buy me a chocolate **bar**?*
*Being a woman should not be a **bar** to success.*
*All the gang members are now behind **bars**.*

- c) Ask them if they can use the same Portuguese word in each sentence.

◆ **Vocabulary Expansion**

☉ **Compounds, fixed expressions and collocations**

- a) Give your students a list of
compounds (*food court/scotch tape/carteira de motorista/prato principal*) ;
fixed expressions (*to rain cats and dogs/heaven forbid/em plena luz do dia/num piscar de olhos*) and
collocations (*keep in shape/have a party/tomar cuidado/dar à luz*).

- b) Ask them to find out in which entry they are. Is there any pattern?
-

☉ **Word net**

- a) Ask the students to find compound words or expressions with the given words.

Key word: *wedding*

Word net/English	Portuguese

Key word: amor

b) If the students have different dictionaries they can compare their findings.

◆ **Vocabulary Expansion**

© **Beginnings and Endings** (Adapted from dictionary.cambridge.org/activity.htm)

Table 1

Suffix:	* logia
Sentences in English	Sample words
	<i>psicologia</i>

Table 2

Prefix: un*	
Sample words	Portuguese/Sentences in English
Unusual	

.....
 © **Related Words** (dictionary.cambridge.org/activity.htm)

- Match the meanings to the words in the tables below

Word: Criminal

Meaning: Someone who commits a crime

Related words	Meaning	Formal/Informal*	US or British
<i>Crook</i>		<i>informal</i>	both
<i>Robber</i>		<i>neutral</i>	both
<i>Delinquent</i>		<i>neutral</i>	both
<i>Outlaw</i>		<i>old-fashioned</i>	both

Meaning:

- a) a young person who behaves badly, usually by committing crimes.
- b) a synonym for criminal .
- c) someone who cheats people.
- d) Someone who steals.

◆Vocabulary Expansion

© **What's more usual?** (www.oupnlc.com/activities)

- a) Write a jumble of formal words with their more usual synonyms.
- b) Ask students to look in their dictionaries to match the pairs of words and to write them side by side under the correct headings.

● **Match the pairs of words and write them side by side under the correct headings below:**

require	choose	request	be sick	resemble	select	blow up	ask for	ask	need	
inquire	vomit	weep	assist	buy	look like	help	cry	inflate	try	permit
attempt	allow	purchase								

FORMAL

MORE USUAL

request

ask for

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

● You can ask them to create conversations between: teenagers; boss and worker; etc.

◆ **Vocabulary Expansion**

☺ **Levels of formality** (www.oupnlc.com/activities)

a) Write up two sentences at opposite ends of the formality spectrum, such as 'Shall we commence?' and 'Let's get cracking.'

b) Ask the class what they might say in a situation that was neither very formal nor very informal e.g. 'Shall we start?'

● **'Levels of formality' worksheet**

> Look at the sentences below and, using the information in the dictionary about the word given in **bold type**, find the pairs which mean the same and link them with a 'neutral' version of the sentence.

FORMAL	INFORMAL	NEUTRAL
1. Will there be an opportunity to purchase beverages ?	a. I was sacked .	() She talked a lot.
2. She was rather parsimonious .	b. Cut that out!	() I had to leave.
3. I was asked to vacate the premises.	c. She could talk the hind legs off a donkey .	() I lost my job.
4. My contract was terminated .	d. She was pretty tight with her money.	() Could I get a drink?
5. Please refrain from doing that.	e. Any chance of a cuppa ?	() She was rather mean.
6. She was loquacious .	f. I had to clear out .	() Stop that!

◆Vocabulary Expansion

⊙ Do they mean the same?

- Choose some words in Portuguese and give two possible equivalents for each.
- Students must match the words with their two possible synonyms.

1. macaco	() alliance
2. manga	() sleeve
3. língua	() jack
4. aliança	() monkey
	() mango
	() tongue
	() wedding ring
	() language

➤ Choose the right Word

- The (monkey/jack) escaped from the zoo.
- How many (languages/tongues) do you speak?
- He bought a very expensive (alliance/wedding ring).
- The (mangoes/sleeves) are too long.

◆Reading

⊙ Using dictionaries intelligently (MED Magazine – issue 41 – Aug 2006)

- Encourage students to **guess meanings from context** by giving them a passage with several unfamiliar words in it.
- Tell them to read the passage once without looking anything up, trying to understand the meanings of any unfamiliar words from their contexts.
- Then tell them that they can **choose three words to look up**, so they need to choose the ones that are most important to understanding.
- The students will choose different words and this can lead to a **discussion** about which are the key words to understanding the text and why, and which can be glossed over or understood from context.

☉ **Reading Worksheet**

*Write the words you don't understand from the reading text into the Table 1.

Table 1

Problem Words	Guess the meaning	Check the meaning

*Write example sentences for the problem words into the Table 2.

Table 2

Problem words	Example sentences

♦ **Writing**

☉ **Brainstorm worksheet (English/Portuguese)**

Topic Area: Pollution

Table 1

Words I know	Example Sentence

Table 2

Words I need/ Portuguese	English	Example Sentence

◆ Pronunciation

☺ Finding the word

● What English words are these and which syllable has the most stress in each one?

1. / 'pæs,w d /

2. / 'blendθr/

3. / ,nɑln'tinθ/

4. / 'bitn /

5. / bl ʌd/

Final Tips

Here we present some suggestions to encourage dictionary work¹:

- Always lookout for opportunities to build up the students' skills in using their dictionary. This will encourage them to see the dictionary as an integral part of language learning.
- When you ask the students to use a dictionary, use it yourself. This will tell you how long an activity takes and will enable you to understand what kind of mistakes the students make.
- Try not to hurry students with their dictionaries. You should allow plenty of time for false –starts, mistakes in selecting words or meanings, and so on.
- It is important to discuss failures and successes with the students.
- You can put several words on the board which will come up later in the lesson. They can look these words up before class.
- Set vocabulary goals for the students. If the teacher expects the students to find 3-5 new words per week *of their own choice* in the dictionary, then it is likely they will do it. If it is voluntary, then it is likely they won't. The students can discuss their chosen words with other students.

Once the students are using their dictionary consistently, the teacher has to monitor their use to see if they are using it effectively and correctly. However,

¹ Adapted from <http://www1.harenet.ne.jp/~waring/vocab/dictionary/dictionary.htm>.

teachers should be aware of a good balance between dictionary dependence and dictionary independence.

References

BRASIL. MINISTÉRIO DA EDUCAÇÃO (2002). Secretaria de Educação Média e Tecnológica. *PCN + Ensino Médio – Orientações Complementares aos Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais. Linguagens, Códigos e suas Tecnologias*. Brasília: MEC; SEMTEC.

CARVALHO, Orlene L. de S.(2001). *Lexicografia Bilíngüe Português/Alemão: Teoria e Aplicação à Categoria das Preposições*. Brasília. Thesaurus.

HAENSCH, G.; OMEÑACA, Carlos (2004). *Los diccionarios del español en el siglo XXI*, Salamanca: Universidad de Salamanca.

JACKSON, Howard (2002). *Lexicography: an introduction*. London: Routledge.

KROMAN H. P., RIIBER T., ROSBACH P. (1991) Principles of Bilingual Lexicography. In HAUSMANN F.J., REICHMANN O., WIEGAND E., ZGUSTA L. *Wörterbücher / Dictionaries / Dictionnaires. Ein internationales Handbuch zur Lexikographie / An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography / Encyclopédie internationale de lexicographie*.Vol.III , Berlin-New York: De Gruyter, pp. 2711-2728, 1991.

LANDAU, Sydney I. (1989). *Dictionaries. The Art and Craft of Lexicography*. Cambridge: CUP.

NIELSEN, Sandro Nielsen (1999): Mediostructures in Bilingual LSP Dictionaries. In: *Lexicographica. International Annual for Lexicography/Revue Internationale de Lexicographie/Internationales Jahrbuch für Lexikographie*, 15, 90-113.

WELKER, Herbert Andreas (2004). *Dicionários: uma pequena introdução à lexicografia*. Brasília: Thesaurus.

The Amish people: their habits, culture, history and education

Juliane Garcia Dorneles

Abstract

This article has the intention of sharing the amazing experience of visiting the Amish County in Pennsylvania, United States. All the information presented here comes from books, guided tours and other materials collected. In addition, it will bring some hints for people who would like to visit the place.

Keywords: Amish, religion, culture, tourism.

Introduction

The Amish people who live in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania are members of an Anabaptist, Christian denomination. They are best known for simple living, plain dress and resisting modern conveniences such as electricity and automobiles.

The Amish formed in Switzerland in 1693 under the leadership of Jakob Ammann. They began immigrating to Pennsylvania in the early 18th century in response to intense persecution.

There have been several divisions among the Amish since that time. The Old Order Amish are those that have been the most successful at resisting change and retaining their traditional way of life. As of 2000, over 165,000 Old Order Amish live in Canada and the United States. There are no Amish people living in Europe.

Amish church membership begins in adulthood, with baptism. Church membership is required before Amish young people can marry.

Church districts average about 170 adults and children, who meet every other Sunday for worship in a member's home. The rules of the church must be observed by its members: prohibition of electricity and telephones in the homes, use of automobiles and tractors, and style of dress.

Amish do not buy insurance or participate in any form of financial assistance from the government such as Social Security.

Members who do not conform to these expectations and cannot be convinced to repent are excommunicated. In addition to excommunication, members are not allowed to have contact with their family in order to shame the wayward member into returning to the church. Since this applies only to members, teenagers who are not yet baptized are not bound by the rules.

The Amish value a rural life, where there is an abundance of manual labor for a large family.

History

Amish descend from the Swiss Anabaptists of the early 16th century Radical Reformation. These Swiss Brethren trace their origination to Felix Manz (ca. 1498–1527) and Conrad Grebel (ca.1498-1526) who broke from reformer Huldrych Zwingli.

The Amish movement takes its name from Jakob Ammann (c. 1656 – c. 1730), a Swiss Brethren leader. Ammann believed Mennonites — peaceful Anabaptists of the Low Countries and Germany — were drifting away from the teachings of Menno Simons and the 1632 Mennonite Dordrecht Confession of Faith. Ammann favored church discipline, including the exclusion of excommunicated members. Swiss Anabaptists, who were scattered by persecution throughout Alsace and the Palatinate, never practiced the strict rules of the lowland Anabaptists. Ammann insisted on this practice, even to the point of expecting spouses to refuse to eat with the each other until the banned spouse repented. This strict literalism brought about a division in the Swiss Brethren in 1693 and led to the establishment of the Amish.

From this point, Swiss Anabaptism developed in two parallel streams. Those following Ammann became known as Amish. The others eventually adopted the Mennonite name and were the basis of the Swiss Mennonite Conference. Because of this common heritage, Amish and Mennonites retain many similarities and those who leave the Amish fold tend to join conservative Mennonite congregations.

The first Amish began migrating to the colony of Pennsylvania in the 18th century, and were part of a larger migration from the Palatinate and neighboring areas. They came, along with their non-Anabaptist neighbors, largely to avoid religious wars and poverty, but also to avoid religious persecution. The first immigrants went to Berks County, Pennsylvania, but later moved, motivated both by land issues and by security concerns tied to the French and Indian War. Many eventually settled in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania. Other groups later settled in or spread to Alabama, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New York, Ohio, Maryland, Tennessee, Wisconsin, Maine, and Canada.

Most Amish communities that were established in North America did not ultimately retain their Amish identity. The original major split that resulted in the loss of identity occurred in the 1860s. The traditional group who wanted to preserve the old ways became known as the Old Order Amish.

The Amish are united by a common Swiss-German ancestry, language, and culture, and they marry within the Amish community. The term Amish is only used to refer to accepted members of their church community, and not as an ethnic designation. Those who do not choose to live an Amish lifestyle and join the church are no longer considered Amish, just as those who live the plain lifestyle but are not baptized into the Amish Church are not Amish.

Population

The geographic and social isolation of Amish communities makes it difficult to determine their total population. In 2000, there were approximately 165,620 Old Order Amish in the United States, of which 73,609 were church members. The Amish are among the fastest-growing populations in the world, with an average of 6.8 children per family.

There are Old Order communities in 21 states; Pennsylvania has the largest population (44,000), followed by Ohio (43,000) and Indiana (33,000). The largest Amish settlements are in Holmes County, Ohio, Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, and LaGrange, Indiana. With an average of seven children per family, the Amish population is growing rapidly, and new settlements are constantly being formed to obtain sufficient farmland.

Culture

Amish people reject pride, arrogance, and they give high value to humility, calmness and composure. The willingness to submit to the Will of God, as expressed through group norms, is at odds with the individualism so central to the wider American culture. The Amish anti-individualist orientation is the motive for rejecting labor-saving technologies that might make one less dependent on community; or which, like electricity, might start a competition for status-goods; or which, like photographs, might cultivate individual or family vanity.

Amish lifestyle differs slightly from community to community, and, within a community, from district to district. What is acceptable in one community may not be acceptable in another. No summary of Amish lifestyle and culture can be totally adequate, because there are few generalities that are true for all Amish. Groups may separate over matters such as the width of a hat-brim, the color of buggies, or various other issues. The use of tobacco (excluding cigarettes, which are considered "worldly") and moderate use of alcohol are generally permitted, particularly among older and more conservative groups.

Amish do not view technology as evil, and individuals may request the acceptance of a particular technology in the local community. High voltage electricity was rejected by 1920 through the actions of a strict bishop, as a reaction against more liberal Amish and to avoid a physical connection to the outside world. Because of the early prohibition of electricity, individual decisions about the use of new inventions such as the television would not be necessary. Electricity is used in some situations when it can be produced without access to outside power lines. Twelve-volt batteries, with their limited applications, are acceptable. Amish communities adopt compromise solutions involving technology that seem strange to outsiders. Gas-powered farm equipment, such as tillers or mowers, may be pushed by a human or pulled by a horse. The reasoning is that Amish farmers will not be tempted to purchase more land in order to out-compete other farmers in their community if they still have to move the equipment manually. Amish farmers employ chemical pesticides, chemical fertilizers, and artificial insemination of cows.

Disabled people are allowed to use motorized wheelchairs; electricity is allowed in the home for medical equipment. Those who break the rules may be

given many months to solve the problem so that they can use a computer to complete a business project or remove electric wiring from a new house.

Although most Amish will not drive cars, they will hire drivers and vans, for example, for visiting family, monthly grocery shopping, or commuting to the workplace off the farm. The practice increases the geographic reach of the Amish, and decreases isolation: a horse can travel only about 40 km, and then it must rest for a considerable period, restricting the Amish to a radius of 20.1 km from home. Moreover, a horse and buggy can only sustain 16 km/h over an extended distance, and thus is impractical for emergencies.

The Amish dislike the telephone because it interferes with their separation from the world: it brings the outside world into the home, it is an intrusion into the privacy and sanctity of the family, and it interferes with social community by eliminating face-to-face communication. However, some Amish, such as many of those in Lancaster County, use the telephone primarily for outgoing calls, but with the added restriction that the telephone must not be inside the home, but rather in a phone "booth", placed far enough from the house as to make its use inconvenient. Commonly, these private phones are shared by more than one family, fostering a sense of community. This allows the Amish to control their communication, and not have telephone calls invade their homes, but also to conduct business, as needed.

Amish children are taught at an early age to work hard. Parents will supervise the children in new tasks, to ensure that they learn to do them effectively and safely. The modern child labor laws conflict with allowing the Amish parents to decide whether their children are competent to perform hazardous tasks.

Some of the Amish vote, and they have been courted by national parties as potentially swing voters: their pacifism and social conscience cause some of them to be drawn to left-of-center politics, while their generally conservative outlook causes others to favor the right wing.

They are nonresistant, and rarely defend themselves physically or even in court; in wartime, they take conscientious objector status. Their own folk-history contains tales of heroic nonresistance, such as the insistence of Jacob Hochstetler (1704-1775) that his sons stop shooting at hostile Indians, who proceeded to kill some of the family and take others captive. During World War I two young men

held at Fort Leavenworth, known for its brutality against conscientious objectors, refused to wear prison uniforms because of the buttons. They were tortured by the guards — held under cold showers until completely chilled, knocked down to the cement floor and dragged by their hair and ears — until they relented and put on the uniforms. During World War II the Amish entered Civilian Public Service.

Amish rely on their church and community for support, and thus reject the concept of insurance. An example of such support is barn raising, in which the entire community gathers together to build a barn in a single day. It means coming together to celebrate with family and friends.

In 1961, the United States Internal Revenue Service announced that since the Amish refuse Social Security benefits and have a religious objection to insurance, they will not pay these taxes. In 1965, this policy was codified into law. Self-employed individuals in certain sects do not pay into, nor receive benefits from, United States Social Security, nor do their similarly-exempt employees. Amish employees of non-Amish employers are taxed, but they do not apply for benefits. Aside from Social Security and workers' compensation, American Amish pay all required taxes. A visible sign of the care Amish provide for the elderly is the smaller house, often built near the main dwelling.

In addition to English, most Amish speak a distinctive German dialect called Pennsylvania German or Pennsylvania Dutch, which they call Deitsch ("German"). Pennsylvania German is derived from Palatinate German of the eighteenth century along with words borrowed from English. The English term "Dutch" originally referred to all forms of the German language, whose own name for itself is Deutsch. There are small dialectal variations between communities, such as Lancaster County and Indiana speech varieties. The Amish are aware of regional variation, and occasionally experience difficulty in understanding speakers from outside their own area.

Church Rules

The Amish consider the Bible a trustworthy guide for living but do not quote it excessively. Separation is based on being a "chosen race, a royal priesthood, a holy nation, God's own people" (1 Peter 2:9), not being "conformed to this world"

(Romans 12:2), avoiding "love the world or the things in the world" (1 John 2:15) and the belief that "friendship with the world is enmity with God" (James 4:4).

The Amish prefer to work at home, because of the concern for the effect of a parent's absence on family life, and in order to minimize contact with outsiders. Increased prices of farmland and decreasing revenues for low-tech farming have forced many Amish to work away from the farm, particularly in construction and factory-labor, and, in those areas where there is a significant tourist trade, to engage in shopwork and crafts for profit. The Amish are ambivalent about both the consequences of this contact and the commoditization of their culture. The decorative arts play little role in authentic Amish life (though the prized Amish quilts are a genuine cultural inheritance, unlike hex signs), and are in fact regarded with suspicion, as a field where egotism and a display of vanity can easily develop.

Members who break church rules may be called to confess before the congregation. Those who will not correct their behavior are excommunicated. Members may interact and even help a excommunicated person, but may not accept anything, like a handshake, payment or automobile ride, directly from the wayward person. Some communities have split in the last century over how they apply this practice. This form of discipline is recommended by the bishop after a long process of working with the individual and must be unanimously approved by the congregation. Excommunicated members will be accepted back into the church if they return and confess their wrongdoing.

The Old Order Amish do not have churches, but hold their prayer services in private homes. Thus they are sometimes called "House Amish." This practice is based on a verse from the New Testament: "The God who made the world and all things in it, since He is Lord of heaven and earth, does not dwell in temples made with hands..." (Acts 17:24). In addition, the early Anabaptists from whom the Amish are descended were religiously persecuted, and it was safer to pray in the privacy of a home.

They have worship services every other Sunday at private homes. The typical district has 80 adults and 90 children under age 19. Worship begins with a short sermon by one of several preachers or the bishop of the church district, followed by scripture reading and silent prayer, and another, longer sermon. The service is interspersed with hymns from the *Ausbund*, sung without instrumental

accompaniment or harmony. Singing is usually very slow, and a single hymn may take 15 minutes to finish. Worship is followed by lunch and socializing. The service and all hymns are in Deutsch. Amish preachers and deacons are selected by lot out of a group of men nominated by the congregation. They serve for life and have no formal training. Amish bishops are similarly chosen by lot from those selected as preachers.

Amish do not work on Sunday, except to care for animals. Use of money or any purchase is forbidden. Drivers may not be hired to bring members to a church service, except in an emergency. Generally, the Amish hold communion in the spring and the autumn, and not necessarily during regular church services. Communion is only held open to those who have been baptized. As with regular services, the men and women sit in separate rooms. The ritual ends with members washing and drying each other's feet.

Amish and other Anabaptists do not believe that a child can be meaningfully baptized. Amish children are expected to follow the will of their parents in all issues, but when they come of age, they must choose to make an adult, permanent commitment to God and the community. Those who come to be baptized sit with one hand over their face, representing humility and submission to the church. Typically, a deacon ladles water from a bucket into the bishop's cupped hands, which drips over the candidate's head. Then the bishop blesses the young men and greets them into the fellowship of the church with a holy kiss. The bishop's wife similarly blesses and greets the young women.

Membership is taken seriously. Those who leave the church are excommunicated by their congregation and family. Those who choose not to join the church can still relate freely with their friends and family. Church growth happens by having large families and retaining children as part of the community. Old Order Amish do not proselytize, and conversion to the Amish faith is rare but not unheard of.

Weddings are typically held on Tuesdays and Thursdays in November to early December, after the harvest is in. The bride wears a new blue linen dress that will be worn again on other formal occasions. She wears no makeup, and will not receive an engagement or wedding ring because the use of personal jewelry is prohibited. The marriage ceremony itself may take several hours, followed by a community reception that includes a banquet, singing, and storytelling. The new

couple spends the wedding night at the home of the bride's parents. Celery is also placed in vases and used to decorate the house instead of flowers. Rather than immediately taking up housekeeping, the newlywed couple will spend several weekends visiting the homes of friends and relatives who attended the wedding.

Funeral customs appear to vary more from community to community than other religious services. The Amish hold funeral services in the home, rather than using the funeral parlor. Instead of referring to the deceased with stories of his life, eulogizing him, services tend to focus on the creation story and biblical accounts of resurrection. After the funeral, the hearse carries the casket to the cemetery for a reading from the Bible; perhaps a hymn is read (rather than sung) and the Lord's Prayer is recited. The Amish usually, but not always, choose Amish cemeteries, and purchase gravestones which are uniform, modest, and plain; in recent years, they have been inscribed in English. The bodies of both men and women are dressed in white clothing by family members of the same sex, women in the white cape and apron of their wedding outfit. After a funeral, the community gathers together to share a meal.

Having children, raising them, and socialization with neighbors and relatives are the greatest functions of the Amish family. Amish believe large families are a blessing from God. The main purposes of 'family' can be illustrated within the Amish culture in a variety of ways. The family has authority over the individual, not only during infancy and in youth, but throughout life. Loyalties to parents, grandparents, and relatives may change over time, but they will never cease. A church district is measured by the number of families, rather than by the number of baptized people. Families take turns hosting the bi-weekly preaching service. Parents stress their responsibilities and obligations for the correct nurture of their children. They consider themselves accountable to the Lord for the spiritual welfare of their children.

For the Amish people there is a period of adolescence during which rules may be relaxed a little. As in non-Amish families, it is understood as a practical matter that there will likely be a certain amount of misbehavior during this period, but it is neither encouraged nor overlooked. At the end of this period, Amish young adults usually find a spouse and are baptized. A small number choose not to join the church and live the rest of their lives in wider society.

Clothing

Women wear calf-length plain-cut dresses in a solid color, such as blue. Aprons are often worn at home, usually in white or black, and are always worn when attending church. A cape, which consists of a triangular piece of cloth, is usually worn, beginning around the teenage years, and pinned into the apron. In the colder months, a long woolen cloak is worn. Heavy bonnets are worn over the prayer coverings when Amish women are out and about in cold weather. Girls wear colored bonnets until age nine; older girls and women wear black bonnets. Girls begin wearing a cape for church and dress up occasions at about age eight. Single women wear a white cape to church until about the age of thirty. Everyday capes are colored, matching the dress, until about age forty when only black is used.

Men typically wear dark-colored trousers and a dark vest or coat, suspenders, broad-rimmed straw hats in the warmer months, and black felt hats in the colder months. Married men and those over forty grow a beard. Moustaches are not allowed, because they are associated with European military officers. A beard serves the same symbolic function as a wedding ring and marks the passage into manhood.

Hook-and-eye closures or straight pins are used as fasteners on dress clothing. Snaps are used on everyday clothes, and buttons for work shirts and trousers. The historic restriction on buttons is attributed to tradition and their potential for ostentation. In all things, the aesthetic value is plainness: clothing should not call attention to the wearer by cut, color, or any other feature. Prints such as floral design, stripes and polka-dots are not allowed in Amish dress.

During the summer months, the majority of Amish children go barefoot, including to school. The amount of time spent barefoot varies, but most children and adults go barefoot whenever possible.

Health

Amish populations have higher incidences of particular genetic disorders, including dwarfism (Ellis-van Creveld syndrome), various metabolic disorders, and unusual distribution of blood-types. Amish represent a collection of different

demes or genetically-closed communities. Since almost all Amish descend from about 200 18th century founders, genetic disorders from inbreeding exist in more isolated districts. Some of these disorders are quite rare, or unique, and are serious enough to increase the mortality rate among Amish children.

The majority of Amish accept these as God's will. They reject the use of preventive genetic tests prior to marriage and genetic testing of unborn children to discover genetic disorder. Amish are willing to participate in studies of genetics diseases. Their extensive family histories are useful to researchers investigating diseases such as Alzheimer's, Parkinson's, and macular degeneration.

Amish are conscious of the advantages of exogamy. A common bloodline in one community will often be absent in another, and genetic disorders can be avoided by choosing spouses from unrelated communities.

Amish do not carry private commercial health insurance. About two-thirds of the Amish in Lancaster County participate in Church Aid, an informal self-insurance plan for helping members with catastrophic medical expenses. A handful of American hospitals, starting in the mid-1990s, created special outreach programs to assist the Amish. The first of these programs was instituted at the Susquehanna Health System in central Pennsylvania by James Huebert. This program has earned national media attention in the United States, and has spread to several surrounding hospitals. Treating genetic problems is the mission of Clinic for Special Children in Strasburg, Pennsylvania, which has developed effective treatments for such problems as maple syrup urine disease, a previously fatal disease. The clinic is embraced by most Amish, ending the need for parents to leave the community to receive proper care for their children, an action that might result in excommunication.

Although not forbidden or thought of as immoral, most Amish do not practice any form of birth control, hence their large families. They are against abortion and also find "artificial insemination, genetics, eugenics, and stem cell research" to be "inconsistent with Amish values and beliefs".

People's Helpers is an Amish-organized network of mental health caregivers who help families dealing with mental illness and recommend professional counselors. Suicide rates for the Amish of Lancaster County were 5.5 per 100,000 in 1980, about half that of the general population and a third the rate of the non-religious population.

Education

The Amish do not educate their children past the eighth grade, believing that the basic knowledge offered up to that point is sufficient to prepare one for the Amish lifestyle. Almost no Amish go to high school, much less to college. In many communities, the Amish operate their own schools, which are typically one-room schoolhouses with teachers (young unmarried women) from the Amish community.

These schools provide education in many crafts, and are therefore eligible as vocational education, fulfilling the nationwide requirement of education through the 10th grade or its equivalent. There are Amish children who go to non-Amish public schools, even schools that are far away and that include a very small Amish population.

In the past, there have been major conflicts between the Amish and outsiders over these matters of local schooling. But for the most part, they have been resolved, and the educational authorities allow the Amish to educate their children in their own ways. Sometimes, there are conflicts between the state-mandated minimum age for discontinuing schooling, and the younger age of children who have completed the eighth grade. This is often handled by having the children repeat the eighth grade until they are old enough to leave school.

However, in the past, when comparing standardized test scores of Amish students, the Amish have performed above the national average for rural public school students in spelling, word usage, and arithmetic. They performed below the national average, however, in vocabulary.

Visiting the Amish County

One of the most amazing trips inside of the United States is to visit Lancaster County in the state of Pennsylvania, because visitors can get in contact with a different way of living.

The Amish people are as rich as other American people. Their houses look exactly the same inside, only without the televisions, and outside, only with clothes hanging on the clothesline – which is not an American habit.

The Amish County as it is called has many touristic attractions and this is one of the ways in which the Amish people make money. The best way to really live this experience is to stay in a “Bed and Breakfast” where you can get all the information you need. They are not owned by Amish people, but they are able to tell the best places to go.

The food based on corn, bread and meet is wonderful in restaurants, but especially in one of Amish homes opened for visitors. Other attractions include the Amish Theatre and the Amish House, which explains a little bit of their culture, and the buggy rides that show the farms and have Amish “tour guides” that explain their farm work.

References:

NOLT, Steven. *A History of the Amish*. Intercourse, Pennsylvania: Good Books, 2003.

STAHL, Rachel K. & FISHER, Sara E. *The Amish School*. Intercourse, Pennsylvania: Good Books, 1997.

Lancaster County. Available on:
http://www.padutchcountry.com/things_to_do/amish.asp. Last access: Sep.1st, 2008.

Carriage Corner Bed and Breakfast. Available on:
<http://www.carriagecornerbandb.com/index.htm>. Last access: Sep.1st, 2008.

Twelve months in the United States: festivals, theater, tourism, studies, museums

Juliane Garcia Dorneles

Abstract

This article has the objective to describe a year lived in the United States. The main topics, including festivals, tourism, studies, museums, theater, etc, were chosen according to what would be interesting to teach as American culture to students in an ESL classroom. A personal experience and some reading and research before and/or after it brings the teacher a unique knowledge to share with the students in class.

Keywords: tourism, United States, studies, culture.

Introduction

This article has the objective to describe a year lived in the United States. The topics were chosen according to what would be interesting to teach as American culture to students in an ESL classroom.

The subdivision East Coast and West Coast of the item Tourism is for people who wish to visit the county and wants to have a geographical idea.

One of the most important parts of this article is the Studies section. There are descriptions of the most important Universities in the Country and their location. Nowadays it is perfectly possible for students from all over the world to study there; the students just need to have access to information about it. The structure of the American Public Schools is also important as general culture.

Visiting the museums people can find history, culture and information not only about the United States but about other countries and peoples. The festivals are an important part of the American Culture with all the celebrations. For those who love theatre, United States, or more specifically New York City, is the right place to be.

All the information presented in this article comes from the guided tours taken and the institution's websites (see REFERENCES).

Festivals

The National Cherry Blossom Festival annually commemorates the 1912 gift to the city of Washington of 3,000 cherry trees from Mayor Yukio Ozaki of Tokyo to enhance the growing friendship between the United States and Japan and celebrate the continued close relationship between the two peoples.

Brazilian Day is the biggest Brazilian event in the United States. It celebrated its 24th anniversary in 2008, always taking place at 46th St. (Little Brazil), near Time Square.

In summer time people all over the country attend music and theater presentations outside. The theaters are closed and the presentations are held in parks.

In 2007 took place in Jamestown, Virginia, the *Jamestown Festival* celebrating the 400 years of the United States. The objective of the commemoration was to increase tourism, expand economic development and renew educational awareness of Virginia's significant impact as the birthplace of the American society. This event happens every 50 years.

Theatre

Lincoln Center for the Performing Arts is the world's leading performing arts center. Located in New York City, the complex is comprised of 12 organizations: Lincoln Center for the Performing Arts, The Chamber Music Society of Lincoln Center, The Film Society of Lincoln Center, Jazz at Lincoln Center, The Juilliard School, Lincoln Center Theater, The Metropolitan Opera, New York City Ballet, New York City Opera, New York Philharmonic, The New York Public Library for the Performing Arts, The School of American Ballet. People can take tours and get to know the place and its history.

Yerba Buena Gardens is the name for two blocks of public parks located in downtown San Francisco, California. The first block bordered by Mission and Howard Streets was opened in 1993. The second block was opened in 1998 when

Mayor Willie Brown took the first ride on the newly restored Carousel in the Children's Garden. Yerba Buena was named in 1835 when the English family of William A. Richardson settled in the area. Wild mint grew in the surrounding hills, and the name comes from the Spanish for "good herb." It contains several public art installations such as the Yerba Buena Center for the Arts, the Zeum, the Technology Museum, an ice skating rink and a bowling alley.

The Shakespeare Theatre of New Jersey (at Drew University campus) is one of 22 professional theatres in the state of New Jersey and one of the leading Shakespeare theatres in the nation. It was established in 1963 in Cape May by Paul Barry and Philip Dorian. In 2002, the 40th season, the company inaugurated its new outdoor stage: The Greek Theatre, a beautiful open-air amphitheatre on the campus of the College of Saint Elizabeth.

Christmas Spectacular is an annual show that is held at New York City's Radio City Music Hall during the Christmas season. It is seen by more than a million visitors a year. It presents a combination of special effects, music and dance during various acts. Much of the dancing is done by the dance group known as the Rockettes.

Broadway theatre refers to theatrical performances presented in one of the 39 large professional theatres with 500 seats or more located in the Theatre District of the New York City borough of Manhattan. On January 9, 2006, "The Phantom of the Opera" at the Majestic Theatre became the longest running Broadway musical, with 7,486 performances, overtaking "Cats". *Off Broadway* theatres are those with 100 to 499 seats.

Tourism - East coast

Niagara Falls are massive waterfalls on the Niagara River, straddling the international border separating the Canadian province of Ontario and the U.S. state of New York. They are renowned both for their beauty and as a valuable source of hydroelectric power. More than just see the falls people have many kinds of touristic activities, as a movies theatre presenting its history, a big balloon that takes up really high to see everything around and the elevator that takes people down to the river to take the boats which go really close to the falls on the Niagara River.

Newport Mansions are 11 historic properties and landscapes - seven of which are National Historic Landmarks – that trace America's architectural and social development from the Colonial era through the Gilded Age located in Newport County, Rhode Island. They are preserved and protected by The Preservation Society of Newport County. The Society strives to offer its members and the public a comprehensive view of each property's architecture, interiors, landscapes and social history.

The *Amish People* who live in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania are best known for their simple living, plain dress and resisting modern conveniences such as electricity and automobiles. The Amish formed in Switzerland among Swiss Brethren in 1693 under the leadership of Jakob Ammann. They began immigrating to Pennsylvania in the early 18th century in response to intense persecution. Amish still speak the Pennsylvania German or Alemannic German of their former homeland. They value a rural life, where there is an abundance of manual labor for a large family. They typically run their own one-room schools, and end education at grade eight.

Boston, Massachusetts: is the capital and largest city of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. The city is located in Suffolk County, Massachusetts, in the northeastern United States. The main touristic attractions in the city are:

- “The Boston Public Library”, the largest municipal public library in the United States, was the first publicly supported municipal library in the United States, the first large library open to the public in the United States, and the first public library to allow people to borrow books and other materials and take them home to read and use. According to the *American Library Association*, the Boston Public Library is the third-largest library in the United States by number of volumes, after the Library of Congress and the Harvard University library system.

- “Trinity Church” located in the Back Bay of Boston is a parish of the Episcopal Diocese of Massachusetts. The congregation, currently standing at approximately 3,000 households, was founded in 1733. The church is home to several high-level choirs, including the Trinity Choir, Trinity Schola, Trinity Choristers, and Trinity Chamber Choir. After its former site burned in the Great Boston Fire of 1872, the current church was erected under the direction of Rector Phillips Brooks (1835-1893).

-“Custom House Tower” a skyscraper in McKinley Square, in the Financial District neighborhood of Boston, was construction in the 19th century and had its tower added in the 1910s.

Richmond, Virginia is the capital of the Commonwealth of Virginia. The present city was founded in 1737. During the American Civil War, Richmond served as the capital of the Confederate States of America, and many important American Civil War landmarks remain in the city today, including the Virginia State Capitol and the White House of the Confederacy, among others. The most interesting places to visit there are:

- “Maymont Park” is a Victorian estate which contains the Maymont House, a historic house museum; an arboretum; formal gardens; native wildlife exhibits; nature center, carriage collection; and petting zoo known as "The Maymont Children's Farm". The park was elaborated by Major James H. Dooley, a wealthy Richmond lawyer and philanthropist, and his wife, Sallie. After their death, Maymont was left to the people of Richmond.

- “Lewis Ginter Botanical Garden” is a botanical garden located in Richmond, Virginia. The property was once owned by Patrick Henry. The Garden’s mission is to provide education to the community about the plant world, to promote the best in horticulture and landscape design and to work toward the goal of being a leader in botanical and applied horticultural research.

- “Edgar Allan Poe Museum” shows the world's finest collection of Edgar Allan Poe's manuscripts, letters, first editions, memorabilia and personal belongings. The Poe Museum provides a retreat into early nineteenth century Richmond where Poe lived and worked. The museum features the life and career of Edgar Allan Poe by documenting his accomplishments with pictures, relics, and verse, and focusing on his many years in Richmond. Opened in 1922, in The Old Stone House, the museum is only blocks away from Poe's first Richmond home and his first place of employment, the Southern Literary Messenger.

-“The Virginia State Capitol Building” is the seat of state government in the Commonwealth of Virginia. It houses the oldest legislative body in the United States, the Virginia General Assembly. Although it was completed in 1788 and is over 215 years old, the current State Capitol building is the eighth built to serve as Virginia's State House, primarily due to fires in the Colonial period.

-“The Virginia Historical Society” founded in 1831 as the Virginia Historical and Philosophical Society is a major research, and teaching center for Virginia history. It is a private non-profit organization, supported almost entirely by private contributions. It features award-winning exhibitions and programming that are entertaining and educational for visitors of all ages in the thirteen exhibition galleries

Central Park is a large public, urban park in the borough of Manhattan in New York City. With about twenty-five million visitors annually, Central Park is the most visited city park in the United States, and its appearance in many movies and television shows has made it famous. The park is maintained and managed by the Central Park Conservancy, a private, not-for-profit organization. It was designed by landscape architect Frederick Law Olmsted and architect Calvert Vaux. While much of the park looks natural, it is in fact almost entirely landscaped. It contains several natural-looking lakes and ponds, extensive walking tracks, two ice-skating rinks, the Central Park Zoo, the Central Park Conservatory Garden, a wildlife sanctuary, a large area of natural woods, a billion gallon reservoir with an encircling running track, and an outdoor amphitheater, called the Delacorte Theater, which hosts the "Shakespeare in the Park" summer festivals. Indoor attractions include Belvedere Castle with its nature center, the Swedish Cottage Marionette Theatre, and the historic Carousel. In addition there are numerous major and minor grassy areas, some of which are used for informal or team sports, some are set aside as quiet areas, and there are a number of enclosed playgrounds for children. The park has its own wildlife and also serves as an oasis for migrating birds, especially in the fall and the spring, making it an attraction for bird watchers. Central Park has been a National Historic Landmark since 1963.

Tourism - West Coast

Napa Valley, California features more than three hundred wineries and grows many different grape varieties including Cabernet Sauvignon, Chardonnay, Merlot, Zinfandel, and other popular varieties. The combination of Mediterranean climate, geography and geology of the valley are conducive to growing quality wine grapes. Napa Valley is visited by as many as five million people each year,

making it the second most popular tourist destination in California, only after Disneyland.

San Francisco, California: is part of the San Francisco Bay Area megalopolis, which is home to more than 7.2 million people. It is a popular international tourist destination famous for its landmarks, including:

- *The San Francisco Bay Bridge:* is a multi-structure toll bridge complex that spans San Francisco Bay and links the California cities of Oakland and San Francisco, as part of Interstate 80. It carries approximately 270,000 vehicles per day. A replacement for the original bridge is being constructed to be resistant to the earthquakes and to the demanding Bay Area public.

- *Golden Gate Bridge:* is a suspension bridge spanning the Golden Gate, the opening of the San Francisco Bay onto the Pacific Ocean. It had the longest suspension bridge span in the world when it was completed in 1937. Since its completion, the span length has been surpassed by eight other bridges. It still has the second longest suspension bridge main span in the United States, after the Verrazano-Narrows Bridge in New York City.

- *Alcatraz Island* is a small island located in the middle of San Francisco Bay in California. It served as a lighthouse, then a military fortification, then a military prison followed by a federal prison until 1963. It became a national recreation area in 1972. Nowadays, the island is a historic site operated by the National Park Service as part of the Golden Gate National Recreation Area and is open to tours.

- *The San Francisco cable car* is the world's last permanently operational manually-operated cable car system. The San Francisco cable cars are one of two moving National Historic Landmarks, along with Mystic Seaport Museum's steamship SABINO. While the cable cars are used to a certain extent by commuters, their small service area and premium fares for single rides make them more of a tourist attraction.

- *Port of San Francisco - Ferry Building* is located at the foot of Market Street on the Embarcadero where many of the city's parades, political rallies and special events begin. Built in 1898, the structure was damaged in the 1906 and 1989 earthquakes. Its famous clock tower greets all those who enter San Francisco from the east. The facility still serves as a working port for people taking the Golden Gate Ferry from other parts of the Bay Area. The marketplace is

housed in the Grand Nave of the building featuring a variety of specialty food shops.

- *Union Square* is a plaza located in downtown San Francisco, California. Its name stems from the fact that the area was once used for rallies and support for the Union Army during the Civil War. Today, this one-block plaza and nearby area is one of the largest collection of department stores, upscale boutiques, tourist trinket shops, art galleries, and salons in the Western United States, which makes Union Square a major tourist draw, a vital, cosmopolitan place and one of the world's premier shopping districts.

North - American public schools

Most of the North-American population attends public schools. It is normally split up into three stages:

1. primary (elementary) school (kindergarten to 4th or 5th or 6th grade),
2. junior high ("intermediate" or "middle") school (5th or 6th or 7th to 8th or 9th),
3. high school (9th or 10th to 12th).

Some Junior High Schools (Intermediate Schools) contain 7th to 9th grades or 7th and 8th, in which case the High School is 10th to 12th or 9th to 12th respectively. The middle school format is increasing in popularity, in which the Elementary School contains kindergarten through 5th grade and the Middle School contains 6th through 8th grade. In addition, some elementary schools are splitting into two levels, sometimes in separate buildings: Primary (usually K-2) and Intermediate (3-4 or 3-5). Some middle schools consist of only 7th and 8th grades. The K-8 format is also an emerging popular concept, in which students may attend only two schools for all of their K-12 education. Many charter schools feature the K-8 format in which all primary grades are housed in one section of the school while the traditional junior high school aged students are housed in another section of the school.

In the United States, institutions of higher education (Community colleges, state colleges, and state universities) that are operated and subsidized by U.S. states are also referred to as "public." However, unlike public secondary schools, public universities charge tuition, though these fees are usually much lower than

those charged by private universities, particularly for "in-state" students. The public universities and colleges are available to all citizens regardless of income level.

Public-school education is provided mainly by local governments, with control and funding coming from three levels: federal, state, and local. The first tax-supported public school in America was in Dedham, Massachusetts.

Studies – Colleges

County College of Morris (also known as CCM) is a two-year, public community college in Randolph Township, New Jersey, serving Morris County, New Jersey. The college currently offers 87 degree and certificate programs. The student body consists of more than 8,500 undergraduate students. CCM was founded in 1965. In addition to its adult services, CCM also has a robust summer camp program for middle and high school students. This includes courses in rocketry to astronomy's as well as rigorous academic material in math, science, and history.

- *Manhattanville College* is a private, coeducational liberal arts college located in Purchase, New York. Its mission is to "educate students to become ethically and socially responsible leaders for the global community." Today approximately 1700 undergraduate students attend Manhattanville. Renowned for its commitment to diversity, its students come from 70 countries and 40 states. In accordance with the college's Portfolio System, which is the nation's oldest such system, graduate candidates must present a freshman year assessment essay; a study plan outlining all course work counted toward the degree; a program evaluation essay, as well as a personal evaluation of the course; and specific examples of work in writing and research.

- *College of Saint Elizabeth* is a private Roman Catholic, four-year, liberal arts college for women located in Morristown and Florham Park, New Jersey. The college was founded in 1899 by the Sisters of Charity of Saint Elizabeth. The oldest women's college in New Jersey is also one of the first Catholic colleges in the United States to award degrees to women.

- *Raritan Valley Community College* is an accredited, coeducational, two-year, public, community college located in North Branch, New Jersey. It offers

Associate's degree programs leading to an Associate of Arts, Associate of Science or an Associate of Applied Science, as well as certificate programs and continuing education courses. The college was founded in the late 1965 as "Somerset County College". It was given its present name in 1987, when it became the county college for Hunterdon County as well as its home of Somerset County. It was the first community college in New Jersey to be sponsored by two different counties.

Studies – Universities

Drew University is a private university located in Madison, New Jersey. Originally established as the Drew Theological Seminary in 1867, the university later expanded to include an undergraduate liberal arts college in 1928 and commenced a program of graduate studies in 1955. Drew University maintains a combined undergraduate and graduate enrollment of approximately 2,500 students, with the majority living on-campus. While Drew is affiliated with the United Methodist Church, it makes no religious demands on its students. Many of the Theological School's students and faculty are United Methodist, and the History and Archives Commission of the United Methodist Church is housed on campus.

Harvard University is a private university in Cambridge, Massachusetts. Founded in 1636 by the colonial Massachusetts legislature, Harvard is the oldest institution of higher learning in the United States. It is also the first and oldest corporation in North America. Initially called "New College" or "the college at New Towne", the institution was named *Harvard College* on March 13, 1639, after a young clergyman named John Harvard who left to the College his library of four hundred books and around £750 (which was half of his estate). The earliest known official reference to Harvard as a "university" occurs in the new Massachusetts Constitution of 1780. During his 40-year tenure as Harvard president (1869-1909), Charles William Eliot radically transformed Harvard into the pattern of the modern research university. The Harvard model influenced American education nationally, at both college and secondary levels.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology is a private university located in Cambridge, Massachusetts. MIT has five schools and one college, containing 32

academic departments, with a strong emphasis on scientific and technological research. MIT was founded by William Barton Rogers in 1861 in response to the increasing industrialization of the United States. As a federally funded research and development center during World War II, MIT scientists developed defense-related technologies that would later become integral to computers, radar, and inertial guidance. After the war, MIT's reputation expanded beyond its core competencies in science and engineering into the social sciences including economics, linguistics, political science, and management.

Yale University is a private university in New Haven, Connecticut, founded in 1701 as the Collegiate School. It is the third-oldest institution of higher education in the country. Particularly well-known are its undergraduate school, Yale College, and the Yale Law School, each of which has produced a number of U.S. presidents and foreign heads of state. Also notable is the Yale School of Drama, which has produced many prominent Hollywood and Broadway actors and writers, as well as the art, divinity, forestry and environment, music, medical, management, nursing, and architecture schools. The university has more than a dozen libraries that hold a total of 12.5 million volumes (the second-largest university library system). Yale is organized as a non-profit organization.

Princeton University is a private coeducational research university located in Princeton, New Jersey. Originally founded in 1746 at Elizabeth, New Jersey as the College of New Jersey, it moved to Princeton in 1756 and was renamed "Princeton University" in 1896. It was the fourth institution of higher education in the U.S. to conduct classes. The university, unlike most American universities that were founded at the same time, did not have an official religious affiliation. At one time, it had close ties to the Presbyterian Church, but today it is nonsectarian and makes no religious demands of its students. Though Princeton University has traditionally focused on undergraduate education, almost two thousand five hundred graduate students are enrolled and the university is renowned as a world-class research institution.

Columbia University is a private university located in the borough of Manhattan, in New York City. The institution was established as King's College by the Church of England, receiving a Royal Charter in 1754 from George II of Great Britain. It was the first college established in New York, and the fifth college established in the Thirteen Colonies. After the American Revolution it was briefly

chartered as a New York State entity from 1784-1787, however the university now operates under a 1787 charter that places the institution under a private board of trustees. United States Presidents Theodore Roosevelt and Franklin D. Roosevelt studied law at Columbia.

Museums

The American Museum of Natural History (AMNH), located in Manhattan, New York, is one of the largest museums in the world. It comprises 25 interconnected buildings that house 46 permanent exhibition halls, research laboratories, and its renowned library. The museum was founded in 1869 before the construction of the present complex. The collections contain over 32 million specimens of which only a small fraction can be displayed at any given time. It has also extensive anthropological collections: Asian Peoples, Pacific Peoples, Man in Africa, Native Americans in the United States collections, general Native American collections, and collections from Mexico and Central America. The museum has a scientific staff of more than 200, and sponsors over 100 special field expeditions each year.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art is an art museum located on the eastern edge of Central Park in New York City. It was opened on February 20, 1872, and was originally located at 681 Fifth Avenue. The current building was designated a National Historic Landmark in 1986. Nowadays, the *Met* measures almost a quarter mile long, more than 20 times the size of the original 1880 building. The museum has a permanent collection containing more than two million works of art, divided into nineteen curatorial departments. The Great Hall Represented in the permanent collection are works of art from classical antiquity and Ancient Egypt, paintings and sculptures from nearly all the European masters, and an extensive collection of American and modern art.

Whitney Museum of American Art often referred shows one of the most important collections of 20th century American art. Also located in New York City, the Whitney's permanent collection contains more than 18,000 works in a wide variety of media. The museum places a particular emphasis on exhibiting the work of living artists for its collection as well as maintaining an extensive permanent collection containing many important pieces from the first half of the century.

Madame Tussauds Museum is a famous wax museum with branches in a number of major cities, such as Amsterdam, Berlin, Las Vegas, New York City, Hong Kong, Shanghai and Washington DC. It was set up by wax sculptor Marie Tussaud. Wax figures at Tussauds include historical and royal figures, film stars, sports stars and famous murderers. Known as "Madame Tussauds" museums (no apostrophe), they are owned by a leisure company called Merlin Entertainments.

The Museum of Modern Art (MoMA) is an art museum located in Midtown Manhattan in New York City. It has been singularly important in developing and collecting modernist art, and is often identified as the most influential museum of modern art in the world. The museum's collection offers an overview of modern and contemporary art, including works of architecture and design, drawings, painting, sculpture, photography, prints, illustrated books, film, and electronic media. MoMA's library and archives hold over 300,000 books, artist books, and periodicals, as well as individual files on more than 70,000 artists.

The Solomon R. Guggenheim Museum was founded in 1937 as a modern art museum located on the Upper East Side in New York City. It is the best-known of several museums owned and/or operated by the Solomon R. Guggenheim Foundation. The main part of the building is a very unusual shape, and was designed by Frank Lloyd Wright.

The Brooklyn Museum located in the New York City borough of Brooklyn, is the second-largest art museum in New York City, and one of the largest in the United States. One of the premier art institutions in the world, its permanent collection includes more than one-and-a-half million objects, from ancient Egyptian masterpieces to contemporary art, and the art of many other cultures. Located in Central Brooklyn, it is co-located with the Brooklyn Botanic Garden, Mount Prospect Park, and the Central Branch of the Brooklyn Public Library.

The San Francisco Museum of Modern Art (SFMOMA) is a modern art museum located in San Francisco, California. It opened in 1935 under founding director Dr. Grace Morley, as the first museum on the West Coast devoted solely to 20th-century art. For its first sixty years, the museum occupied upper floors of the War Memorial Veterans Building in the Civic Center. In a major transformation and expansion, in 1995 the museum moved to its current location adjacent to Yerba Buena Gardens. Annually, the museum hosts more than twenty exhibitions and over three hundred educational programs. Recently, the museum has

undergone changes in their web presence, adding a blog where visitors and staff can discuss the goings on at the museum or art in general. Also available on-line is a digital library so that the permanent collection can be accessed and seen from anywhere in the world.

The San Jose Museum of Art is an art museum in downtown San Jose, California. Founded in 1969, the museum hosts a large permanent collection emphasizing West Coast artists of the 20th and 21st century. The collection includes more than 2,000 works in a variety of media, including sculpture, paintings, prints, digital media, photographs, and drawings.

The Tech Museum of Innovation is a museum located in downtown San Jose, California. Focusing on technology and its effects, *The Tech* serves as an important educational and cultural resource for tourists and local residents alike. Planning began in 1978 by members of the Junior league of Palo Alto and later assistance by the San Jose Junior league. The museum is composed of three floors: the ground floor has the main entrance, a gift shop and cafe, the Imax theater, a recreational area, Segway and other robotic demos and the upper level and lower level are filled with four major theme galleries: Communication, Exploration, Innovation and Life Tech.

The National Air and Space Museum (NASM) is a museum in Washington, D.C. It maintains the largest collection of aircraft and spacecraft in the world. It is also a vital center for research into the history, science, and technology of aviation and spaceflight, as well as planetary science and terrestrial geology and geophysics. Almost all space and aircraft on display are originals or backup crafts to the originals. The National Air and Space Museum is widely considered one of Washington's most significant works of modern architecture. The museum, built by Gilbane Building Company, was finished in 1976. The west glass wall of the building is used for the installation of airplanes, functioning as a giant door.

The National Museum of Natural History is a museum located on the National Mall in Washington, D.C. The museum's collections total over 125 million specimens of plants, animals, fossils, minerals, rocks, meteorites, and human cultural artifacts. The museum was established in 1910, with its building designed by Hornblower & Marshall. It was designed in the neoclassical architectural style, was the first constructed on the north side of the National Mall as part of the 1901 McMillan Commission plan.

The National Museum of the Marine Corps is the new historical museum of the United States Marine Corps. It is located in Quantico, Virginia. The museum had its grand opening on November 10, 2006. The museum is a tribute to the U.S. Marines who have served their country since 1775.

Conclusion

It is impossible to describe a so great experience and a so rich place in just a couple of pages. This work is actually a stimulus for teachers to seek a cultural knowledge to bring to class, because we don't want our students to learn an empty language - something that has no meaning for them. We want them to find a good reason to learn and it can be related to music, history, culture, or just curiosity.

References

NOLT, Steven M. (1992). *A History of the Amish*, Intercourse: Good Books.

ROSENZWEIG, Roy & BLACKMAR, Elizabeth. (1992). *The Park and the People: a History of Central Park*, New York: Cornell University Press.

The Colonial Williamsburg Foundation, (2007). *The Official Guide to America's Historic Triangle*, Williamsburg: Colonial Williamsburg.

Jamestown Festival. Available on: <http://www.jamestown2007.org/>. Last access: Sep. 1st, 2008.

Lincoln Center. Available on: <http://www.lincolncenter.org/>. Last access: Sep. 24th, 2008.

The Shakespeare Theatre of New Jersey. Available on: <http://www.shakespearenj.org/>. Last access: Sep. 24th, 2008.

Yerba Buena Gardens. Available on: <http://www.yerbabuenagardens.com/>. Last access: Sep. 24th, 2008.

Harvard University. Available on: <http://www.harvard.edu/>. Last access: Sep. 24th, 2008.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Available on: <http://web.mit.edu/>. Last access: Sep. 24th, 2008.

Yale University. Available on: <http://www.yale.edu/>. Last access: Sep. 24th, 2008.

Princeton University. Available on: <http://www.princeton.edu/main/>. Last access: Sep. 24th, 2008.

Newport Mansions. Available on: <http://www.newportmansions.org/>. Last access: Sep. 24th, 2008.

County College of Morris. Available on: <http://www.ccm.edu/>. Last access: Sep. 1st, 2008.

Manhattanville College. Available on: <http://www.manhattanville.edu/>. Last access: Sep. 1st, 2008.

The Poe Museum. Available on: <http://www.poemuseum.org/>. Last access: Sep. 24th, 2008.

American Museum of Natural History. Available on: <http://www.amnh.org/>. Last access: Sep. 1st, 2008.

National Air and Space Museum. Available on: <http://www.nasm.si.edu/>. Last access: Sep. 1st, 2008.

Guggenheim Museum. Available on: <http://www.guggenheim.org/>. Last access: Sep. 1st, 2008.

Brooklyn Museum. Available on: <http://www.brooklynmuseum.org/>. Last access: Sep. 1st, 2008.

The National Museum of the Marine Corps. Available on: <http://www.usmcmuseum.org/index.asp>. Last access: Sep. 24th, 2008.

The Tech. Available on: <http://www.thetech.org/>. Last access: Sep. 24th, 2008.

Madame Tussauds Museum. Available on: <http://www.madame-tussauds.com/>. Last access: Sep. 24th, 2008.

American Library Association. Available on: <http://www.ala.org/>. Last access: Sep. 1st, 2008.

Teaching children and their languages

Janice Aquini

Abstract

Knowledge of two or more languages has been shown to result in specific brain benefits like (among others) enhanced creativity and flexibility and improved literacy skills.

Young children are forever busy – busy being readers, writers, speakers, listeners, musicians, dancers, painters... These are their natural occupations. And it is from these activities that they develop the basic foundations necessary for literacy.

Keywords: Bilingualism, children, benefits.

Knowing more than one language is more important today than ever before. Whether it's English, Spanish, French, Korean or one of the other six thousand languages of the world, parents and teachers are increasingly drawn to the lifelong academic, social, cultural, and intellectual advantages that come with learning an additional language.

The advantage that comes with bilingualism is a valuable resource for everyone. This “edge” is evident not only through tests of intelligence and academic ability, but also in children's enhanced creativity, self-esteem, cross-cultural understanding, and future jobs opportunities, among other things.

Why are two languages better than one?

For children, advanced knowledge of two languages has been shown to result in specific brain benefits, like enhanced creativity and flexibility, increased test scores, and improved literacy skills, as well as social advantages such as greater cross-cultural understanding, adaptability, and increased competitiveness on the job market down the line.

Many of us intuitively grasp that knowing more than one language makes us smarter in some way. This intuition is supported by lots of research. Part of the bilingual advantage is that bilinguals tend to outperform monolinguals on many different sorts of tests.

People with advanced knowledge of more than one language seem to be more creative.

“How is creativity measured?” You may be wondering – it seems like pretty abstract concept.

“How many ways could you use an empty water bottle?”

On these kinds of tests, bilinguals tend to produce **more** answers and also **more creative** answers. For the question above, most of us would come up with the obvious answer (filling it with water), but bilinguals are more likely to produce something like

“filling it with sand and making a paperweight”.

Something about knowing more than one language seems to make children both **more creative** and what researchers describe as **more mentally flexible**.

This kind of creativity is increasingly important in today’s world and can translate into success in school and in life!

Bilingual children are more sensitive to the fact that language is a system that can be analysed or played with.

Metalinguistic awareness is what allows us to appreciate many types of jokes, puns, and metaphors and it’s also linked to important academic skills, including learning to read.

Bilingual children are more likely than monolingual children to recognize that it’s possible for one object to have two names. It also allows them to recognize linguistic ambiguities sooner than monolinguals. Because they know two languages, bilinguals are much more sophisticated than monolinguals in terms of understanding something very important about how language works.

Metalinguistic awareness is something that teachers often try to foster, because its connection to test scores and literacy.

Bilingual children have specific advantages over monolingual ones, particularly in areas like

- metalinguistic awareness,
- creativity,

→ the ability to control linguistic processing.

However, I need to point out a few things:

1) while these advantages are important, bilingualism doesn't influence **every** aspect of cognition ;

2) findings about bilingual advantages generally apply to children who have advanced proficiency in the two languages. I am not talking about children who have grasped simple skills like how to count to five and say hello and goodbye in another language. Very occasional exposure to a second language (for example, half an hour of TV or a short class once a week) is probably not enough for significant language learning and the associate advantages to take hold.

3) Children's exposure to books and other literacy materials play an important role.

Raising your child to be bilingual potentially impacts not only your child's individual success and happiness, but also the greater community.

Many of the qualities we value for our children and students, such as awareness and understanding of other people and cultures, the ability to make friendships across social lines, and the skills necessary for creative problem-solving, in fact are cultivated by bilingualism.

Language and Culture

Introducing children to a second language also introduces them to a second culture.

Researchers have argued that culture and language are inextricably linked, with some even claiming that the language(s) we speak strongly influence the ways we think. Languages have different ways of categorizing and organizing information through their grammars and vocabularies. These language differences potentially shape the way we view the world.

Since our language can shape the way we think about and represent things, children who learn two languages also learn that different people have different views of phenomena in the world.

Bilingual children have an advantage in that it is easier for them to understand that one perspective is not better or worse than another, only different.

Bilingualism provides an educational and career edge

There is no question that knowing more than one language provides an edge in both education and career achievement, more than ever before. In today's competitive academic environment, we're looking to give our children that additional edge. Meanwhile, global developments continue to increase the demand for bilingual professionals.

Why not prepare our children for it?

If your children are still in diapers, the job market probably seems pretty far off. Still, it's worth keeping in mind that multilingual professionals are increasingly in demand.

This trend toward multilingualism is noticeable in all types of schools. The number of elementary schools offering immersion education programs in the USA has dramatically increased in recent years. In many cities, at the most competitive schools, education is often conducted ***entirely in a foreign language***.

This picture is very different from the one that most of today's parents encountered as teenagers, when two years of introductory high school French or Spanish were considered standard and sufficient.

Within our increasingly globalized world, our children will need a second language **much earlier** and at a **much higher level of competence** than we could have imagined twenty years ago.

Given this need, it makes sense to give our children this educational and career advantage by starting young.

Clearly, there are many reasons why some parents/teachers might want their children/students to speak more than one language.

- Bilingualism will enhance creativity.
- The children can understand more about other cultures.
- Bilingualism might help my child/student learn to read more easily.
- Bilingualism is essential for living in a multicultural, multilingual world.
- The children can make friends across cultural lines.

- Bilingualism will help the children /students academically.

Myths and misconceptions about learning a second language

1) Only bilingual parents can raise bilingual children

Many of us assume that bilingual parents raise bilingual children and monolingual parents bring up monolingual children. End of the story.

While this seems logical enough at first glance, in fact, it's not true.

Decades of research and mountains of data tell us that bilingual parents most definitely **do not** always raise bilingual children.

The history of immigration within the USA tells us this story as well. Immigrants arrive often speaking only the language of their native country, the children of these immigrants are generally bilingual in that heritage language and in English, and the grandchildren of these immigrants are most often monolingual in English.

If bilingual parents always raised bilingual children there would be many hundreds of thousands of US citizens who also speak German, Italian, Polish and many, many other languages!!!

The truth is that raising bilingual children takes planning, effort and dedication, even for parents who are bilingual themselves

2) I'm too late!!! You have to start very early for second language learning or you will miss the boat.

While age plays a role in second language learning, it's simply not true that the **only time** you can learn a second language is when you're very young because many older children and some adults do achieve very high proficiency even though they began to learn their second language after puberty.

Some researchers argue that other factors, like motivation and anxiety levels, as well as the amount and type of exposure to the new language that children and adults receive, are critical.

The children and adults have very different language learning opportunities. For example, the language children need to use socially is much less complicated

(playing tag versus talking about world events). And because children are used to making mistakes at everything and because many of them are naturally quite talkative, they are usually less anxious about making mistakes in the second language. So, the nature of children's environment mean they are able to dive into second language learning, trying out the new forms right away and often making rapid progress.

In short, although younger learners have advantages in specific areas, the window for learning a second language never completely closes. There are some advantages to starting very young, but older children can also reach high levels of success in the second language.

The question of when it's best for a child to start learning another language – at birth, early in childhood, or later on in childhood – can be a tough one.

Some parents and teachers may get confused with this myth that “younger is always better”, that young children soak up new languages like thirsty little sponges and older children's language-soaking abilities are more like chunks of petrified wood.

While it's certainly true that when children learn a second language during early childhood they often end up with much better accents than kids who begin learning a language in high school or college, young children do not have an advantage over older children in every way.

I strongly believe (based on lots of research evidence) that it's never too late or too early to learn another language, **NOW** is the right time for your children to learn a second language, no matter what age they are.

Children at different ages approach language learning in their own ways for a variety of reasons, including their personalities, aptitudes, identities, and levels of social and emotional development. Being aware of these different factors can also help you (parents and teachers) make decisions early on, set realistic goals, and then encourage and motivate children in sensitive, individualized ways throughout the process of learning another language.

3) It's important to correct errors as soon as they appear in grammar and vocabulary (to prevent forming bad habits)

Errors are a natural and expected part of language learning. This is obvious to parents because all children make mistakes in learning to talk.

Parents instinctively know that they **can not** and **should not** correct each and every error their children make. Their children's confidence might suffer. They might be less motivated to talk.

Today, most researchers and teachers agree that error correction should be done selectively, and in ways that help learners to notice and discover what is needed for their second language development without their motivation and confidence being negatively affected.

Constantly correcting errors can do more harm than good.

4) Exposing my child to two languages means she will be a late talker.

One of the most common misconceptions about early language learning is that it will result in language delay. Why is this belief so prevalent? Probably because there is a great deal of variation in the ages at which children begin to speak.

Research with thousands of children tells us it's normal for a child to begin to utter her first words as early as 8 months or as late as 16 months of age. There is no scientific evidence to show that hearing two, three or more languages leads to delays or disorders in language acquisition. Monolingual and bilingual children begin to babble, to say their first words, and to speak their first two- and three-word mini-sentences at about the same time.

Learning two languages is not a cause of language delay.

5) Mixing languages is a sign of confusion and languages must stay separate

The main concern from some parents/teachers is that young children might not be aware of the presence of two different language systems or able to understand that two different words can refer to the same concept.

Results of decades of carefully conducted research point to the fact that young children distinguish early on between their two languages.

Mixing languages is a normal phase of bilingual language development.

All children move beyond this phase.

Many studies have shown that children are very sensitive to the unspoken rules about which language should be spoken to whom and when. Children do this **without** any explicit help or teaching from parents or teachers.

Parents and teachers should focus on the quality and quantity of input children receive in each language.

Most children go through a period of language mixing. It's normal.

6) Television, DVDs, and edutainment, like talking toys, are great ways to pick up some languages.

Teachers and parents today have a wide variety of language-teaching materials to choose from, ranging from tapes, DVDs, and computer programs to trilingual toys.

To our minds, not only were we exposing our children to valuable foreign language input, possibly making them brainier, but we also got a few moments to check our e-mail and have a hot shower.

However, after a while, we may start wondering:

“What kinds of language learning can take place through television?”

Research with very young children tells us that even small amounts of foreign language exposure can help children hear tiny distinctions in the sound system of a language.

But to be effective, this exposure must be with a real human being, and not a DVD, TV program or a computer game.

These edutainment devices can not substitute for a real person and real interaction.

Parents and teachers of older children can feel more comfortable about using DVDs and the like to support their language learning goals for their children.

Older children, especially those who can read the subtitles or who know a bit of the language already, do seem to learn some language through these fun and enjoyable programs.

Creating an optimal second language learning environment for your children

→ Have fun with the language. Encourage puns, riddles, jokes, and cartoons in the second language.

→ Read with your child in the language or have your child read to you. For older children, encourage them to choose favorite books and then read and discuss them together.

→ Find children who speak the target language for your child to play and interact with. Make these language dates fun!

→ Get newspapers and magazines in the foreign language and discuss the headlines.

→ Have a regular activity in the target language (such as cooking a certain dish together).

→ Find some music or an artist you both like and listen to them regularly, discussing what's there.

→ Every week, find a new activity (a movie, for example) that involves the second language.

→ Encourage your child to find second language pen pals (key-pals).

→ Be enthusiastic and positive about learning the language. Minimize stress.

→ Don't put too much emphasis on having a perfect outcome.

Nowadays, there are intense pressures on parents and children to get into good schools, pass every test and be "the best". However, in relation to second language learning, instead of comparing the child with others, we have to value the child as he or she is:

a unique individual – and a unique language learner !!!

Leveraging individual differences for language learning

➤ Keep a scrapbook to document some language milestones in your child's early years.

➤ Ask your child (depending on the age) to help you make a scrapbook about her favorite activities or ask her to draw pictures of herself speaking her different languages

(What's she doing when she uses each language? How does she feel?)

➤ Taping your child can provide you with a priceless keepsake, and can also be a way to encourage shy kids to talk (they like hearing their own voices).

➤ Talk with the teachers about your child's learning preferences. What strengths have been identified?

➤ Some researchers have referred to language learners as auditory, visual, kinaesthetic, and tactile, Think about your child from this perspective.

➤ Think about what you can learn about your child from his or her language use. Note what kinds of expressions he/she uses frequently and consider the reasons why. What new activities, games or learning environment may help expand his/her abilities?

REFERENCES

BAUER, D. J., GOLDFIELD, B.A. & REZNICK, J. S. (2002). Alternative approaches to analysing individual differences in the rate of early vocabulary development. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 23, 313-335.

BIALYSTOK, E. (2001). *Bilingualism in Development*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

BRUCK, M., & GENESEE, F. (1995) Phonological awareness in young second language learners. *Journal of Child Language*, 22, 307-324.

CUMMINS, J. (1978a) Bilingualism and the development of metalinguistic awareness, *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 9, 131-149.

EVIATAR, Z. , & IBRAHAM, R. (2000). Bilingual is as bilingual does: Metalinguistic abilities of Arabic-speaking children. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 21, 451-471.

GOLDFIELD, B.A., & SNOW, C.E., (2004) Individual differences in language development. In: GLEASON, J. B. *The development of language*, Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 315-346.

GOPNIK, A., & CHOI, S. (1990) Do linguistic differences lead to cognitive differences? A cross-linguistic study of semantic and cognitive development. *First Language*, 10, 199-215.

HARLEY, B. & HART, D. (1997) Language aptitude and second language proficiency in classroom learners of different starting ages. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*.19, 379-400.

PEARSON, B. Z., FERNANDEZ, M.C., & OLLER, D.K. (1993) Lexical development in bilingual infants and toddlers: comparison to monolingual norms, *Language learning*, 43, 93-120.

SLOBIN, D.I.(1994) Crosslinguistic aspect of child language acquisition. *Sophia working papers in linguistics*, 35, 45-51.

SNOW, C. & Hoefnagel-Höhle, (1977) M. Age differences in the pronunciation of foreign sounds. *Language and Speech*, 20, 357-365.

What goes on in the language classroom and how it may affect learning

Maerli Tasca Appelt

Regina Bastos

Serviço Nacional de Aprendizagem Comercial (SENAC/RS)

Anelise Burmeister

Centro Universitário Ritter dos Reis – UniRitter. Faculdade de Educação, Curso de Letras.

Anelise Friedrichs

Centro Universitário Ritter dos Reis – UniRitter. Faculdade de Educação, Curso de Letras.

Abstract

This paper summarizes three studies conducted as part of a graduate course program. They focus on what goes on in the language classroom and how it may affect language learning. In the first part, it reports on what teachers say and compares it with what they do based on the review of classroom practice reports. The second part compares observations of teachers that conduct conversation activities following a textbook or only using topics of interest of the students, and discusses whether the type of interaction promoted by teachers facilitates learning. The third part discusses the use of L1 in the L2 class using data generated in class observations and interviews with teachers and students. The three studies, conducted in collaboration with the same supervising professor, contribute to building a language learning database and draw attention to the importance of actual class observation.

Keywords: language class, interaction, language teachers.

What actually goes on in the language classroom, together with definitions of what language learning means, has been pointed out as the preferential focus of attention to understand how success may be achieved in learning another language in regular schools (HALL, 1997, 2000; BURMEISTER, 2005). Recent

studies in language learning have emphasized the importance of observing what goes on in the interaction between teachers and students, how participation is established, how language is used. This article is made up of a collection of studies conducted in a graduate course on language teaching. One of the focuses of the course was the discussion of classroom interaction and how it might affect learning. This paper focuses on several questions that remain unresolved in our practice: what might make students interested and participative in language classes; what role teachers play in promoting interaction and the possible effect of adopting a textbook or not; what balance there should be between the use of L1 and L2 in the classroom. The first study, *Lack of student interest in regular English classes: analysis of practice reports*, discusses what teachers say and what they do based on the review of classroom practice reports. In *Teachers' role in speaking activities in a language classroom*, teachers that conduct conversation activities following a textbook or only using topics of interest of the students are compared according to observations of actual classes. Finally, in *Using the first language in foreign language classes: Risk of benefit for language learning?*, the use of L1 in the L2 class is discussed using data generated in class observations and interviews with teacher and students. The three studies stress the importance of understanding beliefs and actions, and of using actual class observation in the discussion of language education.

Part 1 - Possible reasons for lack of interest in regular English classes based on analysis of practice reports

Observations and experience show us that students are not motivated or interested in language classes in many regular schools (PERIN, 2003). To explore data that may help us to understand what goes on in the language classroom, 11 teaching practice reports were analyzed to find descriptions of class environment, teaching method, students and teachers' actions. The analysis focused on the Introduction, Description of School, and Classroom Observation sections of each report. Recurrent observations were tabulated, and the analysis of data suggested the division of situations into two groups: reports in which the student teacher observed that students showed some type of interest in English classes; and

those where no interest was reported or reports indicated that students expressed dislike and dissatisfaction with any of the class elements.

Most reports described classes in which text translations, grammar explanations, exercises out of any meaningful context, and use of dictionaries were usual or the only activities. There were practically no opportunities for students to create or participate in class.

However, most teachers were reported to say that they used a “communicative approach” in class, although no further explanations of what they believed to be “communicative” were reported. Teachers might be unaware of what communicative principles are or how to apply them in class, but are aware that they are expected to use some type of communicative teaching.

The type of activities may be one of the reasons for students’ lack of interest or participation. Student teachers’ reports indicated that schools did not seem to be a place of learning and change, but only a place of reproduction, of what we may call traditional school classes (BURMEISTER, 2005; KELLER, 2004).

Student teachers taught differently, brought different materials to class, or just followed different routines. Students’ evaluations at the end of the practice showed that the classes taught by student teachers made them happier and more interested in English.

In one of the schools, the regular teacher was not graduated¹, and students in this case also showed interest and liked to participate, which suggests that a closer contact with graduating courses may be beneficial. It may be that different types of support and development opportunities made available for regular schoolteachers may improve the quality of classroom participation and interaction. College language teacher preparation courses, therefore, may have an important role to play in improving regular school classes.

¹ Language undergraduate students may be hired to work for our state schools in what is called a temporary contract.

Part 2 - Teachers' role in speaking activities in a language classroom

This study focused on how teachers worked with speaking activities in textbooks and with activities suggested by the teachers themselves. It also discusses whether teachers' interference and type of participation during classes promoted positive interactions.

This qualitative explanatory study was conducted as a review of the literature and case study. Classroom environment and atmosphere were analyzed according to teachers' talks and activities proposed. Language patterns were classified, when possible, as initiation-response-evaluation (IRE) (Cazden, 1988) or revoicing (O'Connors & Anderson). In addition, instances of scaffolding (WOOD, BRUNER & ROSS, 1976) were also noted.

Data were recorded during two classes at two Conversational English Courses in Porto Alegre, one private and one public. Along with the recordings, we observed one class in the private school and two classes in the public school. The private school teacher used a textbook for speaking activities; the public school teacher proposed speaking activities without using a textbook.

Interactive language patterns were classified according to instances of IRE, revoicing, and scaffolding. IRE is defined as teacher initiation (I) followed by a student reply (R), which is followed by an evaluation of this reply (E) by the teacher (Cazden, 1988). IRE has several implications: teachers do most of the talking in class, as they are in charge of two thirds of the interaction; interactions have an evaluative character, as students may only provide a right or wrong answer; students do not initiate interaction or ask spontaneous questions. The teacher holds the power to validate any student answer. The most frequent terms used by teachers in the third turn are "good", "yes", "OK", "that's right" (SEEDHOUSE, 2001). Revoicing is explained by Chapin, O'Connor and Anderson (2003) as a tool that teachers may use to continue the interaction with students, to clarify what students want to say and help other students to participate and follow along. According to O'Connor and Michaels (1993), it is a strategy to promote powerful class participation, contrary to what may be expected when the prevalent pattern is IRE. In revoicing, the teacher restates, that is, revoices what students say and encourages them to continue talking, which, thus, promotes opportunities for further interaction. Scaffolding, based on Vygotsky principles of learning

(WOOD, BRUNER & ROSS, 1976), may take place when teachers or students with a higher level of proficiency help those that are not yet able to perform the proposed activities independently.

In the private school class, the relationship between the teacher and the students seemed to be friendly, helpful and trustful, and students seemed to trust the teacher very much. Some of the attitudes seemed to promote a positive atmosphere and interaction. Students had a chance to write down their answers before offering them to the whole class, which is seen as helpful to build student confidence (TSUI, 2003). Also, peer support was clear in the help provided to each other, and teachers answered students' questions whenever necessary to fulfill the gaps in students' knowledge. Boys participated a little more than girls. IRE was the most frequent participation pattern, but some situations showed a revoicing pattern. Teacher's communication seemed to be effective and students were active participants. The activities in the textbook seemed to be meaningful: topics were related to real life and lead students to discussion (AUERBACH, 2000).

In the public school class, a highly interactive atmosphere between the teacher and the students was observed. The students also seemed to trust the teacher very much and to enjoy participating in class activities. They did not write down their answers before offering them to the whole class, but peer support was also evident. In addition, the teacher sometimes corrected students at times when students did not follow "the norm", according to his explanation. The teacher communication with students was clear, and activities were meaningful in that students were challenged to speak using their own resources. Participation of boys and girls was balanced. Revoicing was seen during all observations, and no situations of IRE were seen.

Although observation material and opportunities were scarce to analyze the advantages and disadvantages of different teacher roles, both teachers seemed to fulfill the expectations related to speaking activities, either found in the textbook or suggested by the teacher. They both promoted positive interactions among students, contributed to a friendly relationship between teacher and students, and thus created the conditions for an effective learning atmosphere in the classroom.

Part 3 - Using the first language in foreign language classes: Risk of benefit for language learning?

According to Larrea (2002), “the question of whether or not to use students’ first language in the foreign language class is an issue that is as old as the teaching of a second language itself.” This study was carried out to contribute to the discussion of this issue and to identify teachers and students use of L1 and L2 during conversational activities in a context where all students and teachers share the same mother tongue.

The analysis followed the principles suggested by Vivian Cook (2001) in his article *Using the first language in the classroom* (The Canadian Modern Language Review, vol. 57, no. 3, March, 2001). Cook divides learner goals into two broad categories: external goals, which are related to how learners would like to use the language outside the classroom and which are focused on in most language programs; and internal goals, which are related to the learner’s mental development of learning strategies. Cook suggests that dealing with the students’ first language as a support for the foreign language learning will help the development of more reliable users of the target language.

Two groups from different schools were analyzed. School A adopts an audio lingual method and School B, a communicative approach. Four research tools were used to generate data: class observation, interview with students and teachers, two semi-structured questionnaires, and a table (Table 1) built to compare teachers and students statements about the topic with their statements about the way that they performed during the class.

Class observations showed that the teachers’ attitudes changed according to the method used to teach the target language. In the lower advanced class in School A, in which an audio-lingual approach was followed, the teacher insisted on the use of L2 as the exclusive means of communication, continuously interrupted students to correct every word or expression that was “incorrect” or used in an appropriate context, and used different performances to explain the meaning of words to avoid L1. However, the teacher switched codes to talk about personal past event; students chose L1 to talk about their own lives, to argue about the issue presented in class, and to keep talking about their conversation tasks. In the intermediate class in School B, the teacher used the target language

most of the time; translating some English words into Portuguese as a last resort after attempting to explain their meanings by means of paraphrases in English. The teacher corrected the students by recasting, that is, by repeating what they said in the “correct” way without interrupting the flow of conversation. Students used L2 during pair work, but as they approached the end of their tasks, they switched to L1. When the teacher asked them to talk about projects that they had carried out, all students started talking in English, but switched to Portuguese in the middle of the conversation.

Students from both groups made it clear that they expected their teachers to have enough knowledge and ability to explain the usage of English not only during the class time, but also to give support in experiences outside the classroom. They also showed a high interest in learning vocabulary and how to use it in real contexts, but felt uncomfortable when teachers tried to make them understand the meanings without using their L1 as a preferred tool in this process, maybe because many English words do not have an easy equivalent in Portuguese.

This study on the use of the L1 in the foreign language classroom showed that some students responded positively to L1 use. However, some discrepancies exist concerning the occasions when L1 should be used. Some of these differences may be accounted for by students' different levels of L2 proficiency, although not enough evidence was found to reach this conclusion. Nevertheless, most of the students emphasized that the translation of some words and complex ideas helped them to learn another language, in this case, English. In general, students preferred greater or exclusive use of English in the classroom, and believed that Portuguese should be used only when necessary to help them to learn English better.

The data generated in this case study suggests that students' and teachers' perceptions about the use of L1 in L2 classes should be further investigated and compared with how they actually perform in class. Many questions remain open, primarily as to how and when the use of L1 in the L2 class interferes or promotes foreign language learning.

Table 1

Teacher and students' answers compared with attitudes observed in the first and second groups

Responses and observations	School # 1	School # 2
How much L1 the teacher believes should be used in the English class:	A little	A lot
How often the teacher really used the first language during the class:	Never	Rarely
How much L1 the students believe should be used in the English class:	A little	A little
How often the students really used the first language during the class:	Frequently	Frequently

Final considerations

The scope and purpose of these studies were not to find definitive answers to students' interest, participation, and use of L1 or L2 by both students and teachers, but to add information to our knowledge base and to support further discussions about these topics. We found that students' interest seemed to be greater when the teacher was still in close contact with graduating courses, which may suggest that support from other teachers, future teachers, or supervisors may be helpful. The use of a textbook or not did not seem to affect students' interest in the activities. The prevalence of a one of the interaction patterns did not seem to make a difference in atmosphere and interaction, which is in disagreement with several other studies (see, for example, SCHLATTER et al., 2004) and suggests that the analysis was affected by uncontrolled factors or was not extensive enough. The investigation about the use of L1 and L2 confirms that what people believe about language learning is not always what they actually do in the classroom, and draws attention to the fact that we have to use a complex approach to analyzing what goes on in the classroom when dealing with perceptions and observations. Future studies should continue investigations about what actually goes on in an L2 classroom, particularly how teachers' talks and actions help to reproduce power structures or whether they participate in their students' language learning by co-constructing knowledge.

References

AUERBACH, E. (2000). Creating participatory leaning communities: Paradoxes and possibilities. In. J. K. Hall and W. Egginton (eds.), *The sociopolitics of English language teaching*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters. p. 143-164.

BURMEISTER, Anelise Teixeira. (2005) *O Trabalho Colaborativo na Aula de Língua Estrangeira numa Escola Pública de Ensino Médio*. 124 p. Dissertação (Mestrado) – Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul. Instituto de Letras. Programa de Pós-Graduação em Letras. Porto Alegre, RS.

CAZDEN, Courtney. (1988) *Classroom Discourse: The language of teaching and learning*. Portsmouth, NH : Heinemann.

COOK, Vivian. (2001) Using the first language in the classroom. *The Canadian Modern Language Review / Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*. Vol.57, no. 3. p.402-423

DONATO, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In: LANTOLF, J. &. APPEL, G. *Vygotskian approaches to second language research*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation, pp. 33-56.

GARCEZ, Pedro M. (2006) A organização da fala-em-interação na sala de aula: controle social, reprodução de conhecimento, construção conjunta de conhecimento. *Caleidoscópio*, São Leopoldo: Unisinos, vol. 4, n. 1, p. 66-80, jan./abr.

HALL, Joan Kelly. (1993) The role of oral practices in accomplishment o four everyday lives: The sociocultural dimension of interaction with implications for the learning of another language. *Applied Linguistics*, vol.14 (2). p.145-232.

HALL, J. K. (1997). A consideration of SLA as a theory of practice: A response to Firth and Wagner. *The Modern Language Journal*, 81(iii). p. 301-306.

HALL, J. K., VERPLAETSE, L. S. (2000). The development of second and foreign language learning through classroom interaction. In HALL, J. K., VERPLAETSE, L. S. *Second and foreign language learning through classroom interaction* (eds.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. p. 1-20.

HALL, Joan Kelly. (2001) *Methods for teaching foreign languages: creating a community of learners in the classroom*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall. 273 p.

KELLER, T. M. G. (2004). *Aula de língua estrangeira: Uma microecologia das ações*. Passo Fundo, Brasil: UPF Editora.

LARREA, Edgar. (2002) Should we (or should we not) use L1 in the communicative English classroom? *APPROACH A Journal for English Language Teaching in Cuba*. ALC Asociación de Linguistas de Cuba. Available from

http://idiomas.up.edu.pe/idiomas_ingles/go_beyond_nuevo.php?pid=7 Retrieved on February 28, 2008.

MCCORMICK, D. E.; DONATO, R. (2000) Teacher questions as scaffolded assistance in an ESL classroom. In HALL, J. K.; VERPLAETSE, L. S. *Second and foreign language learning through classroom interaction* (eds.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, p. 183-201.

O'CONNOR, M. C.; MICHAEL, S. (1993) Aligning academic task and participation status through revoicing: analysis of a classroom discourse strategy. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, 24(4), p. 318-335.

O'CONNOR, M. C. & MICHAEL, S. (1996) Shifting participant frameworks: orchestrating thinking practices in group discussion. In: Hicks (ed.). *Discourse, learning and schooling*. New York: New York University Press, p. 63-103.

PERIN, J.O.R. (2003) Ensino/aprendizagem de língua inglesa em escola pública: um estudo etnográfico. *Acta Scientiarum: human and social sciences*. Maringá, v. 25, n. 1, p. 113-118.

SCHLATTER, Margarete; GARCEZ, Pedro; SCARAMUCCI, Matilde V. R. (2004) *O Papel da Interação na pesquisa sobre aquisição e uso de língua estrangeira: implicações para o ensino e para a avaliação*. Letras de Hoje, PUCRS, 39(3), p. 345-378.

SCHWEERS, C. William Jr. L1 in the L2 classroom. (1999) *English Teaching Forum*. Vol.37, no.2. From <http://exchanges.state.gov/forum/vols/vol37/no2/p6.htm> Retrieved February 28, 2008.

SEEDHOUSE, Paul. (2001) The case of the Missing "No": The Relationship between Pedagogy and Interaction. In: ELLIS, Rod. *Form-Focused Instruction and Second Language Learning*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishers, p. 347-385.

TSUI, Amy B. M. (2003) *Understanding expertise in English: case studies of ESL teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 308 p.

VYGOTSKY, L. S. (1987) *Thought and Language*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press. (Original work published in 1934)

WOOD, D., BRUNER, G. S., ROSS, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 17, 89-100

Teaching English to children: what's going on here?

Cristiane Maria Schnack¹

Cristiane Ely Lemke

Aline Jaeger

Instituição Evangélica de Novo Hamburgo – Unidade Oswaldo Cruz

Universidade do Vale do Rio dos Sinos

Abstract

The following paper aims at reviewing some of the key concepts presented during the Teaching English to Children Forum, which took place during the APIRS Convention. From the beginning on, the Forum was thought as an opportunity for teachers to discuss the possible links between current research on teaching English to children and real classroom work. In this paper, we 1) discuss this link and try to make explicit the ways we have experienced that teaching English to children works; 2) bring to discussion how important (and challenging!) it is for us to be aware of the theoretical concepts that guide our practice (and not just our beliefs). As a result, we may see that the great issue for us is about what 'teaching' means to each of us, teachers.

Palavras-chave: teaching English to children, learning, narratives.

Desde o ano de 2006 e mais organizadamente a partir de 2007, um grupo de professoras, sob a liderança da Profa. Dra. Ana Zilles, organizou encontros periódicos com o intuito de discutir questões vinculadas ao ensino de Língua Inglesa para crianças. Desde o princípio, o norte do grupo foi discutir, a partir de leituras afins, o processo real de sala de aula. Ao trocarmos experiências vividas ou conhecidas, o grupo passa a lidar com uma questão delicada: as aulas de Língua Inglesa acontecem com uma periodicidade e uma abordagem que passam ao largo daquilo que pesquisas na área demonstram ser importantes. Aulas

¹ Em virtude de este ser um trabalho colaborativo, optamos por observar a seqüência de autoria com relação à seção do artigo sobre a qual cada uma possui maior responsabilidade, e não com relação à maior ou menor participação no artigo. Estamos, as três, plenamente envolvidas com o propósito do artigo.

semanais com duração de 45 minutos e abordagens metodológicas que privilegiam a aquisição de vocábulos desconexos da realidade são uma síntese do funcionamento do que chamamos de 'aulas de Língua Inglesa'.

O trabalho do grupo, a partir de então, foi levantar mais questionamentos, inclusive o questionamento sobre o porquê ensinamos (ou queremos ensinar) Língua Inglesa para crianças. O que se viu foi uma incessante busca por respostas talvez não postas anteriormente, até que se percebeu a necessidade de um espaço mais consolidado e organizado para tais discussões, amparadas sempre em dois pilares: leituras teórico-metodológicas e dados de sala de aula. Organizamos, então, dois cursos de extensão sobre o ensino de Língua Inglesa para crianças na UNISINOS, onde tornou-se possível vislumbrar um novo cenário para o ensino de Língua Inglesa: a Língua Inglesa pode fazer parte do currículo de escolas de educação infantil na medida em que faz parte, ou seja, inclui-se e torna-se uma das vivências do currículo de educação infantil.

Acreditando que essas discussões poderiam ser ampliadas, buscamos parceria com a APIRS, esperando organizar uma área em franca expansão. Nosso objetivo foi, e continua sendo, dar voz àqueles que trabalham com crianças e não se sentem desafiados com a responsabilidade posta. Nesse sentido, agradecemos a APIRS pelo pronto acolhimento de nossas inquietações e pela parceria tão imediata. Acreditamos ser essa parceria que possibilitará avanços no ensino de Língua Inglesa para crianças.

Poder dar resposta a grandes verdades propagadas e consolidadas, como 'quanto mais cedo melhor', 'as crianças não conseguem concentrar-se por muito tempo', 'as crianças adoram aprender', 'as crianças não têm medo de errar e de se expôr' é nosso maior desafio. Poderíamos elencar outros, já listados em outros momentos, mas optamos por iniciar desafiando-nos enquanto professoras de Língua Inglesa. Na medida em que esse não é um desafio fácil de ser alcançado, até porque essas 'verdades' já estão amplamente disseminadas, esperamos que ao menos possamos questioná-las e, aos poucos, torná-las 'verdades parciais' que dependem de uma análise contextual.

Para podermos refletir sobre as 'verdades' citadas, a discussão aqui propõe primeiro uma discussão sobre o que possa ser aprendido em Língua Inglesa e em seguida uma discussão sobre as narrativas em aulas de Língua Inglesa.

Esses dois eixos de discussão foram os eixos que nortearam o Fórum de Ensino de Língua Inglesa para Crianças, que aconteceu durante a Convenção de 2008 da APIRS. O Fórum seguiu, cronológica e teoricamente, as discussões que foram originadas durante a mesa redonda coordenada pela Profa. Dra. Ana Maria Zilles (UNISINOS). O artigo, então, é dividido em duas seções: 'Atividade em Língua Inglesa ou Sobre Língua Inglesa: onde está o X da questão', e 'Contando histórias...em inglês!'. Da mesma forma como aconteceu durante o fórum, a primeira seção é apresentada por Cristiane M.Schnack e a segunda seção é apresentada por Cristiane Lemke e Aline Jaeger. É importante ressaltar que, em momentos que se realizam relatos sobre sala de aula, usa-se conhecimento próprio de sala de aula, ou seja, não se busca asserções generalizadas sobre como se dá uma aula de Língua Inglesa. O que se propõe, aqui, é uma possibilidade de olhar para a sala de aula, possibilitada pelas vivências que cada uma de nós pode acessar. Algumas dessas vivências nos foram relatadas por professoras que participaram de uma das edições do curso de Língua Inglesa para Crianças.

'Atividade em Língua Inglesa ou Sobre Língua Inglesa: onde está o X da questão'

Essa seção é uma provocação, um convite à reflexão. Parto de algumas falas que são ditas e repetidas em momentos escolares, sejam eles conselhos de classe, conversas de professoras² durante o intervalo ou mesmo em momentos de encontros de professores de Língua Inglesa para refletir sobre o quanto das avaliações que fazemos sobre nossos alunos reflete nossa perspectiva sobre o que seja uma aula de Língua Inglesa. O conteúdo dessas falas pode ser resumido em: 'Aceitamos que um aluno aprendeu quando repete a fala da professora, participa verbalmente, na língua alvo, das atividades propostas pela professora, faz uso de seu conhecimento sobre a língua sempre que solicitado.'

Será mesmo assim?

² Utilizo o termo feminino, professoras, uma vez que o público que fez parte dessa discussão inicial constituir-se essencialmente de professoras.

E se a criança não estiver participando 'verbalmente na língua alvo', isso é motivo o suficiente para dizer que não está havendo aprendizado? Trago um momento escolar para refletirmos, em um momento em que a professora, sentada com as crianças em círculo no chão, mostra algumas folhas coloridas e pergunta para as crianças:

Teacher: What color is this?

Student: Amarelo.

Teacher: Ok. Yellow.

O que diríamos sobre a situação vivenciada acima? Embora não seja objetivo discutirmos analiticamente essa situação, penso que ela é pertinente para formularmos alguns questionamentos: 1) houve aprendizado nessa situação? 2) o que queremos e no que acreditamos em nossas aulas de Língua Inglesa?

Partindo da idéia de Ochs e Schieffelin (2001) de que socializar-se é um processo que ocorre tanto através da língua quanto para o uso da língua, poderíamos dizer que o contexto de aulas de Língua Inglesa são momentos para as crianças aprenderem tanto o que se espera que aconteça em uma aula tanto o que se necessita para participar da aula. Em síntese, a criança é socializada tanto na expectativa da professora, como na situação acima, de que o aluno responda em Inglês as perguntas da professora quanto na expectativa de que ele saiba as cores para poder dar a resposta 'esperada'.

A partir daí, poderemos pensar que nossas aulas, mesmo em momentos em que a criança não será capaz de produzir a resposta esperada em Língua Inglesa, ela estará aprendendo sobre o que significa a Língua Inglesa e, por conseqüência, o que significa 'língua'.

Nesse ponto encontra-se nosso desafio: transformar em prática pedagógica o que acreditamos ser 'língua' e, acima de tudo, o que significa 'uma criança aprendendo essa língua'.

Nos documentos oficiais, como os PCNs, já encontramos a definição de que "...na aprendizagem de línguas, o que se tem a aprender é também, imediatamente, o uso do conhecimento, ou seja, o que se aprende e o seu uso devem vir juntos no processo de ensinar e aprender línguas." Além disso, o Referencial Curricular da Educação Infantil, Vol. 03, contribui com a idéia de que "as crianças têm ritmos próprios e a conquista de suas capacidades lingüísticas

se dá em tempos diferenciados, sendo que a condição de falar com fluência, de produzir frases completas e inteiras provém de participação em atos de linguagem.”

Compreender que esses atos de linguagem são momentos não da criança, mas da interação estabelecida entre os participantes da aula, é poder compreender que a criança não irá produzir nada que não seja parcialmente compartilhado com seu ou sua interagente. A partir de então, poderemos discutir que, se adotamos uma postura de pergunta pela professora e resposta pelo aluno como tônica de nossas aulas, dificilmente estaremos oportunizando que essa criança aproprie-se de outras maneiras de organização de atividades, cuja estrutura pode ser definida como estrutura de participação (Goodwin, 2001).

A partir daí, trago a proposta de Rocha e Silva (2007), que ressaltam que atividades organizadas histórico e culturalmente podem ser consideradas como ‘potentes propulsores’ da aprendizagem, visto que já fazem parte do universo infantil. Brincadeiras, cantigas e histórias são exemplos desse universo de atividades infantis significadas cultural e historicamente. Sendo assim, porque não apostar em promover o desenvolvimento pleno das crianças através das práticas discursivas, ou dos gêneros, que fazem parte de sua cultura?

Brincar com as crianças, sem necessariamente esperar delas, a todo o instante, uma palavra em Língua Inglesa que preencha a lacuna, pode ser tão ou mais instrutivo em termos de processo de socialização da linguagem do que uma aula em que cada criança responde a perguntas isoladas sobre cores, por exemplo. Se esse brincar pode ser em Língua Inglesa? Por que não, na medida em que a criança já conhece a organização social da atividade, conhece as expectativas que caracterizam a participação de cada interagente? Pensemos nisso.

Em outro momento escolar, nos deparamos com a seguinte situação:

Você está ensinando cores para as crianças, e um aluno, de 4 anos, vem até você e diz: “Tia, preciso, preciso ir no banheiro.”

Você responde:

- () “Pode ir.”
- () “Pode ir.”, e pede que alguém o acompanhe.
- () “Agora não. Vamos terminar o trabalhinho.”
- () nenhuma das anteriores (n.d.a.)

Se você respondeu “n.d.a.” é provável que tenha utilizado a Língua Inglesa para responder a ele.

ACERTEI ? ESTA é a aula. Não as cores. NESTE momento, tornou-se relevante esta interação entre você, representante da Língua Inglesa, e a criança.

‘Teacher, can I go to the bathroom?’ pode ser uma boa opção de “resposta”, que poderá oportunizar uma seqüência interacional relevante para ambos.

É preciso não perder de vista que as cores também são importantes, como o são outros grupos semânticos e lexicais. Mas o questionamento que permanece é: Quando a criança “aprendeu” as cores, o que vai fazer com esse conhecimento? Quando a criança “aprendeu” as partes do seu corpo, o que vai fazer com esse conhecimento? Quando a criança “aprendeu” os números, o que vai fazer com esse conhecimento?

Tanto para ‘ensinar’ cores quanto para ‘ensinar’ como pedir para ir ao banheiro em Inglês são momentos em que a professora usa de instrução *sobre* a língua. Buscamos responder ao questionamento do título, o X da questão não parece estar tanto na dicotomia ‘aula em Inglês’ ou ‘aula em Português’, senão no questionamento sobre o que buscamos em nossas aulas de Língua Inglesa. Se buscarmos uma socialização das crianças em práticas que fazem parte de seu contexto de vida, como as cantigas de roda, as histórias infantis, como apontado por Rocha e Silva (2007), teremos mais espaço para viver as aulas de Língua Inglesa com as crianças. Se buscarmos uma socialização das crianças em práticas que fazem parte do ‘imaginário’ da professora de o que seja uma aula instrucional, teremos que dedicar uma maior parte de nossas aulas buscando perceber se a criança *já* repete as cores, *já* identifica os números em Inglês e *já* nomeia as partes do corpo em inglês.

Aqui, não se busca um ou outro, mas busca-se compreender que um faz parte do outro, que um está a serviço do outro. Compreender que talvez o aprendizado real das cores, por exemplo, esteja atrelado a um contexto em que as cores são genuinamente importantes para essa criança, e que não esteja a serviço do cumprimento de uma etapa que, acredita-se, faça parte do aprendizado de uma língua, qual seja, aprender as cores na língua alvo.

Em suma, o que se busca dizer é que, enquanto professoras de língua inglesa, devemos poder respeitar de tal modo o universo infantil que o

aprendizado puramente formal da língua não seja soberano ao aprendizado do uso dessa língua alvo. Que possamos vivenciar o universo infantil, sem deixarmos de oportunizar momentos instrucionais.

Contando histórias... em inglês!

Muitas vezes as pessoas se espantam quando falamos que contamos histórias para nossos alunos em inglês. Quase que de imediato vem a pergunta: “Mas eles entendem?” A resposta, também de imediato: “Sim, com certeza, muito mais do que as pessoas imaginam.” Ouvir e participar de uma leitura de histórias são atividades que, normalmente, fazem parte da vida das crianças, tanto em casa quanto na escola. É um evento significativo e real de aprendizagem e prazer, que não foca somente no aprendizado da língua em si, mas também nos possibilita a discussão e reflexão sobre os mais variados temas. Assim, através das histórias, trazemos o mundo para a sala de aula.

Mas por que contar histórias? Falemos um pouco sobre os propósitos de se contar histórias em sala de aula de língua estrangeira. Wajnryb (2007) salienta os valores morais, culturais, didáticos, de entretenimento, enfim, e mostra a história como um meio de ensinar e aprender. Apresenta também o papel das histórias como meio de ensinar língua, especificamente uma segunda língua, já que a língua em si é o material do qual uma história é feita. No caso da língua estrangeira, podemos estar fazendo as duas coisas ao mesmo tempo: temos a chance de ensinar a língua em si e de contribuir com a aprendizagem de valores, culturas, entre outros aspectos, através da língua em que a história está sendo contada.

A autora (op. cit.) ainda faz uma relação com as condições de aprendizagem postuladas por Willis (1996), mostrando que todas as características essenciais defendidas por esta autora para a aquisição da linguagem estão presentes em uma contação de história. Conforme Willis (1996 apud Wajnryb, 2007, p. 6), “o que é essencial é que o aprendiz tenha exposição à língua acessível, tenha oportunidade de usar a língua e tenha a motivação para aprender”. Através do texto em si os alunos estão sendo expostos à língua e entra aqui, mais uma vez, o papel do professor, que deve ser capaz de levar em consideração o seu interlocutor e fazer os ajustes necessários para sua

compreensão, mas, ao mesmo tempo, não facilitar demais, evitando que a tarefa se torne muito simples e sem nenhum desafio. Levar o seu interlocutor em conta não significa contar a história em português e misturar algumas palavras em inglês, de maneira alguma. Se a história é em inglês, será contada nessa língua. O que se pode sim é fazer uso de gestos, repetições, entonação diferente para palavras-chave, exploração das figuras, esclarecimento de algum vocabulário importante para a compreensão, etc., para que os alunos contem com outros subsídios além do oral para o entendimento das histórias. Wajnryb (op. cit.) também levanta a questão sobre contar ou ler a história, chamando a atenção para o fato de que, ao contar, podemos fazer esses ajustes necessários, sejam na fala, através de iniciação de reparo e outros elementos que se manifestam durante as interações lingüísticas, o que acaba não acontecendo durante a leitura.

O uso da língua, também essencial para a aquisição, também pode ser desenvolvido durante, antes ou após a contação. A exploração da história e mesmo a interação que acontece durante a contação já são oportunidades para se usar a língua. O último, mas não menos importante elemento apontado por Willis (1996), a motivação, explica-se por si mesmo. As histórias captam nossa atenção, fazem-nos viajar por um mundo de fantasias e estão presentes diariamente em nossas vidas. A fim de reforçar o que recém destacamos, voltamo-nos a Wajnryb (2007, p. 8): “usar histórias na sala de aula é tanto uma maneira natural de ensinar coisas em geral quanto uma maneira particularmente eficaz de ensinar língua”.

Importante também refletirmos sobre a maneira que contamos essas histórias e o tipo de perguntas e reflexões que surgem através delas para que o uso de histórias em sala de aula não se resume a explorar vocábulos. Heath (2001) mostra em sua pesquisa sobre as rotinas de contação de histórias nas famílias, alguns tipos de atividades e perguntas freqüentemente feitas pelos pais. Uma das práticas que as crianças normalmente aprendem durante esses momentos são as atividades de nomeação ou etiquetagem (*labeling*), quando respondem a perguntas como “O que é isto?”, “Quem é aquele?”, por exemplo. Outro estágio seria o de *what-questions*, em que as crianças respondem a perguntas referentes ao que está acontecendo na história. Essas perguntas são também freqüentes na escola. De acordo com a autora (op. cit.), é importante que

as perguntas feitas possam passar para os estágios de *reason-explanation* (explicações sobre o motivo) e *affective commentaries* (comentários afetivos), pois permitem que as crianças sejam incentivadas a pensar no motivo (ou motivos) pelo qual um determinado acontecimento ocorreu na história e nas suas conseqüências, em mudanças se um aspecto fosse modificado ou acontecesse de forma diferente. Além disso, é necessário, como reforça Heath (op. cit.), motivar os alunos a refletir sobre sua opinião em relação à história, já que esses dois últimos estágios são, em muitos casos, pouco explorados tanto em casa quanto na escola.

Tão importante quanto o tipo de perguntas que fazemos aos nossos alunos é a abertura e oportunidade que damos a eles para que façam suas perguntas e comentários e se sintam participantes desse momento tão rico. Que nossa contação possa ser mais um momento de falar *com* as crianças, como diz Blok (1999), do que de falar *para* as crianças, fazendo-as co-contadoras dessa história, num tipo de leitura mais interativo do que passivo.

Além do fato de que ouvir histórias é muitas vezes prazeroso e emocionante e que o momento de contar histórias é da mesma forma rico e estimulante, como podemos explorar e trabalhar com histórias com as crianças em sala de aula? Por onde começamos? O que podemos fazer? Que aspectos devemos privilegiar? Será mesmo possível trabalharmos com histórias?

Quando comentamos sobre esses momentos de histórias e os projetos que muitas vezes desenvolvemos a partir delas, uma nova pergunta aparece: “Quantos períodos por semana vocês tem?” Vem então a nossa pergunta: “Será que esse é realmente o fator crucial para podermos trabalhar com histórias?” Pensamos que não. É claro que 30 minutos semanais com as crianças está longe de ser o ideal, porém não entraremos nesse mérito de discussão aqui. O que estamos propondo são projetos que possam ser desenvolvidos a partir das histórias contadas em sala de aula e que possibilitem o aprendizado da língua em questão, assim como os aspectos sociais e culturais que envolvem o aprendizado de qualquer língua.

Pensem o caso mais crítico: aulas uma vez por semana durante 20-30 minutos. O que temos visto acontecer são professores bem intencionados que, semanalmente, preparam aulas de diferentes assuntos para dar conta de um número maior de conteúdos e assuntos. Ou seja, para ensinar mais. Uma

semana falam sobre animais, na semana seguinte cores, depois partes do corpo, etc... Sempre cuidando para ensinar em uma seqüência de dificuldade crescente. Muitas vezes o professor se encontra exausto de tanto preparar aulas sem ligações, sem continuidade e sente-se frustrado por perceber que palavras ensinadas na semana anterior já foram esquecidas por seus alunos. Será que mais palavras é melhor? Será que o foco são as palavras, o vocabulário solto?

É possível sim trabalhamos com vocabulário (não negamos a importância das crianças conhecerem e nomearem os objetos), desde que seja com sentido, significativo para as crianças que estão aprendendo e para nós que criamos as atividades.

Bom, falamos em histórias, vamos partir delas então. Pensamos que seja possível e muito relevante criar projetos de estudos a partir das mais diferentes histórias. Permitir que um projeto inicie pelo interesse das crianças sobre alguma história é também sempre interessante. Um livro encontrado na sala, na biblioteca, ou até mesmo de uma variedade trazida por vocês. Também é claro que o projeto já possa estar em andamento quando você se lembrar de alguma história legal para contar.

É interessante também criar a parceria com a professora da turma para expandir o projeto não somente durante as aulas de língua inglesa, mas também para as aulas de língua materna. O projeto pode partir de algo que a turma esteja estudando com a professora e assim traçar relação com alguma história ou assunto na língua inglesa. O que propomos é ir além da história. Contamos a história e a agora o que fazemos?

Uma história de final de tarde sobre as aventuras de rodas soltas caindo uma ladeira chamada de "Runaway Wheels" gerou um projeto de física em uma turma de crianças de 5 anos. Além de colocarem suas expectativas a respeito de qual roda chegaria mais rápido no fim da ladeira e realizar a experiência com rodas de verdade, decidiram pesquisar sobre os diferentes meios de transportes. A partir de então, músicas, jogos, brincadeiras e atividades envolvendo meios de transportes e como cada um se locomovia pela cidade, foi o tópico de meses de trabalho.

Outra história, essa sobre uma moeda e compras em um parque de diversões, iniciou um projeto de comidas que culminou em uma feira em uma turma de primeira série com crianças de 6 anos. A história "Only a Nickel"

proporcionou a discussão sobre dinheiro, contagem, jogos matemáticos, além das atividades de comida e a feira que envolvia muito engajamento dos alunos, além do uso da língua necessária para essas atividades. Esse projeto também foi desenvolvido ao longo de várias semanas.

Esses são alguns exemplos de desdobramentos de projetos a partir de histórias. O que privilegiamos em cada projeto? Bom, aquilo que se torna relevante e necessário. Se for necessário ensinar algo que a princípio não consta nos conteúdos dessa série, mas mostrou-se necessário para a realização de alguma atividade ou as crianças demonstraram interesse, então se ensina. As atividades envolvem sim, muitas vezes, aprender palavras que são necessárias para a realização das atividades, mas são palavras contextualizadas e que são acompanhadas de estruturas importantes para a participação em determinada tarefa.

Pensamos que, trazendo histórias para nossa sala de aula, podemos tornar a aprendizagem mais significativa e o ensinar mais prazeroso e não tão frenético.

Algumas Palavras Finais

Ao longo do artigo, uma retomada dos pontos principais discutidos durante o Teaching English to Young Children Forum, esperamos ter podido pontuar a necessidade de: 1) acreditar-se que as crianças podem ir além dos conteúdos lingüísticos encapsulados em itens lexicais, 2) criar-se um espaço propício para o aprendizado no sentido de tornar a língua alvo não apenas fim em si mesmo, mas também o meio através do qual a criança tem acesso a outras atividades de seu universo infantil, e 3) compreender-se que o processo de aprendizagem de uma Língua não ser um processo linear mensurável, em que todos os aprendizes cumprem as mesmas etapas ao mesmo tempo. Ao fim e ao cabo, acreditamos que trabalhar com o ensino Língua Inglesa para crianças está muito mais no ouvir as necessidades e interesses que as crianças nos mostram e explorar com elas o universo infantil...em Inglês. Boa aula para cada uma de nós!

Referências Bibliográficas

BLOK, Henk. Reading to Young Children in Educational Settings: A Meta-Analysis of Recent Research. *Language Learning: a journal of research in language studies*, Malden, v. 49, n. 2, p. 343 – 371, abr./ jun. 1999.

CLARK, H. Language Use. In: CLARK, Herbert. *Using Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. p. 3-25, 2003.

GOODWIN, M. Participation. In: DURANTI, A. (ed.) *Key Terms in Language and Culture*. Malden: Blackwell Publishers Inc. p. 172 – 175, 2001.

HEATH, Shirley Brice. What no bedtime stories mean: narrative skills at home and school. In: DURANTI, A. (Org.) *Linguistic Anthropology: a reader*. Oxford: Blackwell. p. 318-342, 2001.

OCHS, E.; SCHIEFFELIN, B.. Language Acquisition and Socialization: Three Developmental Stories and their Implications. In: DURANTI, Alessandro (Org.). *Linguistic Anthropology: a Reader*. Massachussets: Blackwell Publishers, 2001. p. 263 - 301.

Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais – Língua Estrangeira. Ministério da Educação, 1998.

Referencial Nacional Curricular para Educação Infantil. Ministério da Educação, 1998.

ROCHA, C.; SILVA, K. O Ensino de Inglês para Crianças através dos Gêneros Discursivos: Breves Considerações. *New Routes in ELT*, v. Jan 07, p.30-31, 2007.

WILLIS, Jane. *A framework for task-based learning*. England: Addison Wesley Longman Limited, 1996.

WAJNRYB, Ruth. *Stories*. 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2007.

English as a Lingua Franca

vs.

Brazilian EFL classrooms

Patrícia Linck Berto

Faculdade de Letras – Universidade de Lisboa

Abstract

This paper sets out to contrast the current status of English worldwide and in Brazil with what actually happens inside Brazilian classrooms, with the aim of bringing out certain topics of English as a Lingua Franca in Brazil.

It is divided into an introduction and three parts; in the first one we identify the current status of English as a global language, discuss the reasons that have brought English to work in an international context, and clarify the concepts of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). In the second part, we set the situation of English in Brazil and, finally, we compare it with the contents we have been teaching in our EFL classrooms posing several questions about our students' communication needs, and assessing the heavy emphasis on some standard grammar points that may have no influence in intelligibility in the use of English in our globalization times.

Keywords: English as a Lingua Franca, Brazilian, Teacher.

Introduction

We, speakers of English all around the world, are being able to witness to the naked eye the changes which the English language has been going through both in linguistic and communicative terms. English is, nowadays, more than just another foreign language to be learned, it is THE foreign language to be learned. That is, English is the language we need to use and understand in any international situation, such as participating in conferences, reading scientific papers, and traveling, even if that situation is not held by native speakers or in native speakers' countries. These changes have brought millions of people

worldwide to learn the language, and this is leading the English language to even bigger and more complex changes. This paper aims at exploring the current status of English both worldwide and in Brazil, while raising some questions concerning the way the teaching of English is held in our country and how it could adjust in order to accompany the changes this language is undergoing.

1

1.1 Current status of English worldwide

English is now the world's language. Not only has it become the language used by native speakers among themselves and by non natives to talk and understand these native speakers, but also the language used by any person in the world who wishes to communicate with a larger number of people. English, as we see it today, can be related to as a GLOBAL language.

But what has brought English to this status? Why not any other language, such as German, Russian, or, even, Portuguese? There are some specific aspects in the history of this language that can explain its current importance, and they can be listed as follows:

The language of the British Empire (up to the 19th century):

By this time, English was the most powerful colonial language, as the British Empire had taken the English language around the globe³, consolidating it as the world language, present in all continents, and “creating ‘a language on which the sun never sets’”(Graddol, 1997: 6).

Britain was also the most powerful and important nation, both culturally and economically, within the Industrial Revolution, which gave English even more status, and helped its fast spread around the globe.

³ During the 1st Diaspora, the British settled in places such as the US, Australia and New Zealand, where English is spoken as a first language, and in the 2nd Diaspora in places such as India and Singapore, where English is spoken as a second language.

USA and English in the 20th century:

In the 20th century, the USA became the world's main economy, which maintained English as the language of the top nations. The USA appeared at this period holding the world's political, economical, cultural and technological power, and this was another factor for preserving and promoting the English language throughout the world.

The following Crystal's quotation defines in very few words the causes that have brought English to be what it is now.

“A language has traditionally become an international language for one chief reason: the power of its people – especially their political and military power. (...)

But international language dominance is not solely the result of military might. It may take a military powerful nation to establish a language, but it takes an economically powerful one to maintain and expand it.”

(Crystal, 2005: 9/10)

There is no doubt that the English language has always been in the right place at the right time.

Once having listed the causes above, we introduce the consequences that this current status of English around the world has brought to it, which are the reasons for the main current changes in the language. These consequences are the following:

Number and type of speakers

Not only is the English language spoken by its native speakers, but also by second and foreign language speakers all over the world. With the necessity towards learning English which has been exposed in the above introduction, more and more people have been pursuing to become speakers of this language or to make sure that their kids will become speakers of the language to have more and better opportunities in life. Due to that, the number of foreign and second language speakers of English has overcome the number of native speakers: only one in every four speakers of English can be considered a native speaker. According to Crystal, the numbers are:

- Native speakers: about 400 million
- Second language speakers: about 400 million

- Foreign language speakers: about 700 million.

It is important to add that the number of second and foreign language speakers is probably bigger, as it is difficult to come to an exact number. Apart from that, estimates concerning the world's demography say that there is a higher probability of an increase in the number of non-native speakers of English since the population growth in the countries where English is used as a native language is slowing.

Language owners?

Modiano (1999) and Crystal (2005), among others, have pointed out that English is now the language of no specific nation or group of speakers, but the language of every person, nation or group who speaks it and uses it in the 'global village'.

"In the global village, English is public domain".

(Modiano, 1999: 27)

"Indeed, if there is one predictable consequence of a language becoming a global language, it is that nobody owns it anymore. Or rather, everyone who has learned it now owns it – 'has a share of it' might be more accurate – and has the right to use it in the way they want."

(Crystal, 2005: 2/3)

As such, English is developing new vocabulary, new grammar rules and new pronunciation in order to fit the needs of the international speaker, and for that reason it is being shaped by its great number of non-native speakers as much or even more than by its native speakers. Taking all these aspects into account we may ask ourselves who really owns the language.

Development of new 'varieties'

This 'shaping' of the language, which we discussed in the last paragraph, is leading the English language to develop new varieties. The first of these varieties are the ones used in countries such as India and Singapore, where English has suffered a nativization, that is, it was shaped in order to fit the needs of those people in those countries in the post colonial period. Nativization can also be

related to a need to express the identity of these peoples through the English language, to make it become their language as well.

There is a new variety that is currently emerging which can be called **'World English'**. It differs from the first ones in its representatives, who are the traditionally called foreign speakers of English. These speakers, who need to contact people from all different language backgrounds, find in the English language the solution for their problems, that is, they can communicate via English. Since in these kinds of international communication the number of native speakers is significantly smaller, foreign speakers also shape the language in order to simplify communication. Their objective is to get their message through. Besides causing this "simplification", as these speakers are also influenced by their mother tongues, they make some changes when speaking the language. What is funny concerning this, though, is that we are not aware of the specific cause of this change in the language:

"It is not always clear whether a new feature arises as a result of transference from a contrasting feature in a local contact language or is a general property of English foreign-language learning."

(Crystal, 2005: 157).

Several studies are being held concerning this so called World English, and several different names have been given to it, such as English as an International Language, and English as a Lingua Franca. The next step of this paper is to develop a bit more on the topic of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF).

1.2 English as a Lingua Franca

ELF, as has been mentioned, lies into the category of 'World English', that is, it is one variety developed through the use of English by foreign speakers. Seidlhofer (2005: 339) defines it as being the "communication in English between speakers with different first languages."

This variety differs from the native variety Standard English, mainly in its idea of 'good' use of the language, which considers mutual intelligibility its basic and critical criterion, that is, getting your message through for a majority of the population is what truly matters in ELF. This variety also considers adaptability to different social contexts and the ability to negotiate meaning as two very important

conditions to being a 'good' speaker of English, contrasting to Standard English, which considers a 'good' speaker the one who can use 'correctly' all the norms of the native speaker. That is, ELF has a greater "tolerance of diversity" (Seidlhofer, 2006: 44) within international contexts.

"That, one could argue, is the characteristic of a 'competent language user': not the ability to speak and write according to the rules of the academy ..., but the adaptability to select those forms of accuracy and those forms of appropriateness that are called for in a given social context of use. This form of competence is precisely the competence of the 'intercultural' speaker."

(Kramsch, 1998: 27)

This area has been of interest to many researchers, especially Jennifer Jenkins and Barbara Seidlhofer, who have been compiling data to create respectively a phonological and a lexicogrammatical corpus of this variety, in order to find systematic forms within it that are unproblematic in ELF interactions. However, their objective is not to develop a new monolithic variety and to come up with a set of prescriptive rules:

"Although ELF researchers seek to identify frequently and systematically used forms that differ from inner circle⁴ forms without causing communication problems ..., their purpose is not to describe and codify a single ELF variety. (...) ELF researchers do not believe any such monolithic variety of English does or ever will exist. Rather, they believe that anyone participating in international communication needs to be familiar with, and have in their linguistic repertoire for use, as and when appropriate, certain forms (phonological, lexicogrammatical, etc.) that are widely used and widely intelligible across groups of English speakers from different first language backgrounds. This is why accommodation is so highly valued in ELF research."

(Jenkins, 2006a 161)

Summing up, what for so long has been considered an error according to native speakers' norms could, in fact, be considered 'correct' regarding local forms of English, mutual intelligibility and ELF.

⁴ Inner circle refers to Kachru's concentric circles (1985), which is represented by the countries where English is spoken as a first language.

Current status of English in Brazil

Brazil is one of the countries which are part of Kachru's (1985) Expanding Circle, that is, it is a country where English is considered a foreign language. Even though English is around us by means of movies, songs, advertising, and so on, Brazilians are still taught English basically through formal education in schools or English courses, where the teaching of this foreign language is based on native standards, pursuing native-like proficiency.

In his paper *The educational role and status of English in Brazil*, Bohn (2003) presents a complete outline of the Brazilian scenario for English Language Teaching (ELT). The first thing he talks about is the unsatisfactory and inadequate English education offered both in private and public educational systems in Brazil, where a regular classroom may have from 35 to 60 students and there is neither a methodology to be followed nor materials or sequences. This problem leads people to look for this kind of education in private institutions which are specialized on ELT (English courses), but which are a privilege of a minority of the population that can afford it.

Bohn (2003) also discusses some points of Brazilian legislature regarding ELT, the PCNs – *Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais*, which “insist on the notion that language is a social practice” (Bohn, 2003: 167), and that actually suggest some objectives towards language teaching that transcend the traditional view. As an example, the PCNs recommend for ELT a focus on “global comprehension [and on] meanings expressed rather than on correction of form” (Bohn, 2003: figure 1, p. 167). However, he affirms that, in spite of what is stated on this document, ELT seems to have had no impact, continuing to be “based on old notions of linguistic knowledge” and “traditional definitions of language” (Bohn, 2003: 168).

Due to these continuous problems regarding ELT in Brazil, Bohn makes the following suggestion concerning Teacher Education:

“Teacher education can best prepare language teaching professionals by developing their ability to engage in dialogue instead of instruction; to produce meaning instead of translating; to amalgamate FL and mother tongue instead of contrasting; to work in companionship instead of

determining knowledge to be memorized. With this flexibility and unpredictability, teaching and learning may become a worthwhile, attractive and adventurous experience.”

(Bohn, 2003: 170/171)

Friedrich (2000) also presents a paper regarding English in Brazil, though, while Bohn (2003) only describes the scenario, she introduces the functions of English in Brazil by means of a questionnaire answered by Brazilian learners of English concerning their attitudes towards the language. The results of this questionnaire corroborate the definition of language and the principles of language teaching proposed by the Brazilian PCNs.

First, it has been recognized that English in Brazil is used mainly for professional and traveling purposes, that is, Brazilian students are willing to be able to speak English in order to engage in international communication as a whole and have better opportunities in life. Second, Friedrich (2000) in her survey has also shown that, for Brazilian students, English is considered a practical language, that is, being a good speaker of a language means being able to communicate in it fluently, but not necessarily accurately regarding both grammar and accent. Therefore, Brazilian students want to learn English, but they are not willing to “give up their regional or national accent and identity [to] embrace a foreign, homogenized reference” (Bohn, 2003: 163).

It is clear, then, that Brazilians are slowly walking toward the direction of English as a Lingua Franca instead of Standard English lexicogrammatical and phonological aspects.

3

Discussion and Final Considerations

Once having stated both the status of English worldwide and in Brazil, in addition to the concepts of ELF, I wish to propose here some topics which will work as food for thought for further discussions of ELT. The first question proposed is:

I. Do the contents that we have been focusing on match our students' needs?

This interrogation brings into question the points expressed by the students on Friedrich's (2000) research versus what actually happens in Brazilian classrooms of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), such as:

- *Emphasis on grammar correctness vs. To communicate fluently but not necessarily accurately*
- *Translation of texts vs. English as a practical language*
- *Excessive use of written and grammatical tasks vs. Necessity to engage on international communication*

Following, we have the second question:

II. Is it worth putting such heavy emphasis on some standard grammar/pronunciation points that may have no influence on intelligibility in the use of English as a Lingua Franca?

This question suggests that other points could make more sense inside a classroom, having in mind that a language is a social practice, than basing our classrooms on concepts of grammar and pronunciation that may not affect communication. At this point, I quote some of these aspects that have been already studied in Jenkins (2006b) and Seidlhofer (2006), proving that they do not interfere on comprehension on ELF:

- **Jenkins' Lingua Franca Core** (summary from Jenkins (2006b))

The Lingua Franca Core (LFC):

1. Consonant sounds except for substitutions of 'th' and of dark //
2. Aspiration after word-initial /p/, /t/ and /k/
3. Avoidance of consonant deletion in consonant clusters

Non-core features:

1. Certain consonants (LFC nº 1)
2. Weak forms
3. Word stress

- **Seidlhofer (The Vienna Corpus):** aspects of grammar which have no influence in international intelligibility (from Prodromou (2006))

1. Simple present 3rd person –s omitted: *he look very sad*
2. Omission of article: *Our countries have signed agreement*
3. *Who* and *which* as interchangeable
4. Using *isn't it?* as a universal tag

Once English teachers are aware of these unproblematic features of the language, it might become easier for them to select what is more important to really focus inside the classroom. Finally, the third question is:

III. Wouldn't it be more relevant to focus on more conversational and clear cut points of the language?

This last question aims at instigating teachers' curiosity on this topic, and triggering them to research more on the topic and actually introduce it to their classrooms. As a suggestion, I introduce the following topics:

- *Teach the grammar but focus on meaning, dialogue, role plays and points which will be really necessary for a student to be able to communicate internationally.*
- *Spend time on things that will really matter concerning English as a practical language and give more opportunity for students who will not have the chance to enroll in a private language course.*

Again, due to the fact that our intention is simply to explore and discuss these topics, we are not giving any ready answers or results. Our aim is exclusively to bring out this topic of ELF in Brazil and to trigger further thoughts on English teachers about it. Further work on this area is already taking place, and should be helpful as a supplement to bringing more concrete answers and enhancing everything that has been stated in this article.

4 References

BOHN, H. I. (2003) The Educational Role and Status of English in Brazil. *World Englishes* 22 (2), p. 159–172.

CRYSTAL, D. (2005). *English as a Global Language*. 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

FRIEDRICH, P. (2000). English in Brazil: functions and attitudes. *World Englishes* 19 (2), p. 215–223.

GRADDOL, D. (1997). *The future of English?* London: The British Council.

JENKINS, J. (2006a). Current Perspectives on Teaching World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca. *TESOL Quarterly* 40 (1), p. 157-181.

JENKINS, J. (2006b). Global Intelligibility and Local Diversity: Possibility or Paradox?. In: Rudby, R. & Saraceni, M. (eds). P. 32-39.

KACHRU, B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the outer circle. In R. Quirk and H. Widdowson (eds.), *English in the world: Teaching and learning the language and literatures*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, p. 11-36.

KRAMSCH, C. (1998). The privilege of the intercultural speaker. In: Byram, M. and Fleming, M. (eds): *Language Learning in Intercultural Perspective: Approaches through drama and ethnography*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, p. 16-31.

PRODROMOU, L. (2006). Defining the 'Successful Bilingual Speaker' of English. In: Rudby, R. & Saraceni, M. (eds). P. 51-70.

RUDBY, R. & Saraceni, M. (eds) (2006). *English in the world: Global Roles, Global Rules*. London/New York: Continuum.

SEIDLHOFER, B. (2005). English as a Lingua Franca. *ELT Journal* 59, p. 339-341.

SEIDLHOFER, B. (2006). English as a Lingua Franca in the Expanding Circle: What it isn't. In: Rudby, R. & Saraceni, M. (eds): *English in the world: Global Roles, Global Rules*. London/New York: Continuum, p. 40-50.

Integrating English reading comprehension to Chemistry concepts: an interdisciplinary project to High School students

Athany Gutierrez¹

Abstract

According to the PCNs, the school subjects should be taught in an integrated way. They are not isolated concepts, but share some principles and should be analyzed together in order to solve a common and concrete problem. Considering that, by the end of the Secondary Education, students need to be able to use the knowledge they have acquired and apply it to solve a concrete problem and/or to analyze situations from different perspectives. Keeping this in mind, we found it interesting to work with the history and evolution of the periodic table throughout a text, and the periodic table itself. This enhances learners to develop reading strategies in English and helps them become active, fluent readers as well as to know the history of the periodic table and his creators, including the analysis of technical vocabulary and the origin of the chemical elements.

Keywords: PCNs, interdisciplinarity, reading strategies, comprehension.

1 Introduction

This paper aims to present a project developed in 2007 with secondary learners. This work was elaborated by me and the Chemistry teacher of the school I work for. Our primary purpose was to improve our students' reading abilities through texts regarding contents they study in Chemistry. In order to prove the effectiveness of our idea, our foundations are based on the assumptions stated by the National Curriculum Parameters for Secondary Education and theories of

¹ The author holds a degree in *Letras* by *Universidade de Caxias do Sul*. She has also post graduated from the same institution in English Language and Teaching. She is currently teaching English to secondary students at CETEC – Veranópolis. She would like to thank to Ana Claudia Faria for her support and cooperative work on this project.

foreign language teaching and learning as well, such as BROWN's reading strategies and SHEPPARD & STOLLER's Project Work. This work describes carefully the theoretical support we relied on and also how the project was designed and conducted.

2 Literature Review

The social and political scenario of Brazil nowadays lays a fundamental role on education. Throughout elementary school, learners develop basic knowledge and competences which will be deepened and consolidated on secondary school. At this stage, learners will be provided general training, the development of the ability to research, seek out information, analyze it and select it, as well as the competence to learn, create and formulate hypotheses to deal with a concrete problem. This is what the National Curriculum Parameters for Secondary Education state – “the role of education as an element of social development” (BRASIL, p.5), in order to develop well-prepared citizens to live and interact in a democracy context.

Doing so, the Ministry of Education (with the help of the Secretariat), has grouped school disciplines into areas that share a given subject of study. They are the Human Sciences and Related Technologies, the Natural Sciences and Related Technologies and the Languages, Codes and Related Technologies. The intention is to promote communication more easily among the related subjects and also the chance for teachers to develop an interdisciplinary approach (BRASIL, p.9)

The concept of interdisciplinary is viewed from a relational perspective. It is a form of dialogue and cooperation among the disciplines in a coordinated action. It has to be implemented in schools in an organized and articulated way in order to reach a common objective. Its effectiveness is worth application whether the pedagogical objectives have been previously designed and pre established by the school community (CARLOS, p.4). This way, learners became aware of the integration among concepts and different knowledge and as a consequence, they start to be more motivated to study and work with the projects they are proposed, which help to make them see a reason to study, especially if the contents have a practical applicability in their lives.

Interdisciplinarity may also involve the notion of an approach called Project Work. According to Sheppard & Stoller (1995), a project work involves multi-tasking activities which focus on a theme of interest rather than specific tasks. It creates a need for communication among participants and provides meaningful practice in realistic situations. These ideas are in perfect accordance to the competences the PCNs affirm to be necessary for secondary learners, because they focus on the learners themselves and make them work together in order to solving a problem.

BROWN (2000, p. 299) states that every reading activity is like a guessing game. Learners must infer meanings, decide what to retain and what not to retain, and move on through a risk-taking process. The role of the teacher is to provide several text genres and “teach” students how to best read them, identifying conventions and rules for its manifestations and help them to develop strategies for extracting necessary meaning from them. Teachers must leave learners aware of the differences between reading a text in their first language and in a foreign language. Brown (p.306) suggests some strategies in order to reach a successful reading in English: (1) identifying the purpose in reading – students need to be clear about what and why they are reading certain piece of text; (2) skim the text using efficient silent reading techniques – learners do not need to pronounce each other for themselves nor understand each word separately, unless one word is crucial to global understanding; (3) skim the text for the main ideas; (4) scan the reading passage for details, without reading through the whole text; (4) use mapping and clustering to build up the meaning of the text; (5) guess and take risks about things you’re not certain – meaning of words, parts of speech, implied meanings; (6) analyze vocabulary – look for processes of word formation (suffixes, prefixes, roots); (7) distinguish between literal and implied meaning; (8) capitalize on discourse markers to process relationships – conjunctions and connectors that establish different connections among sentences (addition, sequence, contrast, explanation). All these techniques can be divided into pre-reading, during-reading and after-reading and may vary according to the level we teach.

Above all, this article and the project itself help learners increase an ability that lacks nowadays – functional illiteracy. There are several recent studies (FONTANA, 2001; RIBEIRO, VÓVIO & MOURA, 2002; ZAPPONE, 2003) that reveal the incapability of individuals (including university students as well) of

reading but not understanding the meaning of what is being read. Reading is a necessary skill – we read a lot of different texts everyday, ranging from academic to non-academic formats. The simple act of buying medicine and reading the instructions of use in order to know what the medication is for is an example that stands for a type of everyday reading. When people go up and down the streets they have to be able to understand the signs they see everywhere – street lights, store announcements, schedules, etc. Furthermore, there are also the academic texts, which require a different vocabulary and language knowledge and a higher level of comprehension. These aspects were considered when planning the project. The readings students were about to do are all pedagogical texts, even though they include some unknown vocabulary and specific language related to the subject of Chemistry.

3 The Project

I work in a secondary school in *Veranópolis*. It is a small school, totaling at about ninety students. Each classroom contains around twenty five, thirty students. Most of these learners come from a private elementary school nearby and have been in touch with English since kindergarten. Also, a great proportion has studied English in language schools and has an intermediate knowledge of the language. This integrated project is yearly applied to first graders, and suffers adaptations according to its purposes, characteristics of the target public and the evaluation done by teachers and students.

The main idea of this project is to integrate the subjects to make learners realize that different pieces of knowledge can be grouped together. The Chemistry teacher and I wanted our students to develop the ability of making connections among different knowledge, read and understand a text in English and at the same time “cover” some of the contents of Chemistry for the term. So the idea was to read in English to understand in Chemistry. It is interesting because it is like a Chemistry class taught in English – and the students have felt that!

The steps and the whole planning of the project are based on some worksheets (see attachments) we provided and group discussions. The steps are these that follow: (a) warm up and motivation to the project; (b) working with the

periodic table in English; (c) working with a text about the history and evolution of the periodic table and (d) self-evaluation and evaluation of the project.

a) Warm-up: the Chemistry teacher and I went together to the classroom and didn't tell students why. They were all very curious. We asked them to split up in small groups (2, 3 students each) and talk about (in their first language) the following questions (that we wrote on the board):

- Qual a importância da Química nas suas vidas? Onde vocês podem encontrar a química presente no seu dia-a-dia?
- Qual a importância do Inglês nas suas vidas? Onde vocês podem encontrar o inglês presente no seu dia-a-dia?
- Vocês usarão os conhecimentos de Química no seu futuro? E os de inglês? Como? Por quê?
- De que forma pode haver uma ligação entre essas duas disciplinas?

Students answers vary from "A gente encontra química em tudo existe, porque tudo é feito de misturas de vários materiais", "Inglês, fora da aula, eu vejo só em música e filme", or "Ah, pra mim química vai ser bem importante porque eu quero fazer engenharia química no vestibular"; also, "Meu pai sempre diz que eu vou ganhar mais num emprego se eu souber inglês". Even though showing some difficulty to answer the last question, students were able to find some links. Some of the answers were: "Sim, eu não sei!", "Só se a gente ler um texto de química em inglês", "Profe, tem alguém da química que veio dos EUA, Canadá...?". From the students' answers, we proposed the project and explained what it was all about – what abilities to develop in both subjects, the pieces of information they have to be able to understand and what we expect them to know, in general, by the end of the project. All the activities listed below were given in the English and Chemistry classes during three weeks, and when possible, both teachers were present in the class.

b) Part I – the periodic table: each student receives a copy of the periodic table (attachment 1). The exercises about it are divided in the following steps:

- Pre reading/warm up: teacher ask a question to the whole group (to warn them about the importance of the periodic table): "Qual a importância de um sistema de classificação, como por exemplo uma lista telefônica ou a tabela periódica?"

- Skimming (oral collective questions):
 1. Qual a suporte textual dessa tabela? De onde ela foi retirada?
 2. Como cada elemento da tabela está organizado, de acordo com a legenda?
- Scanning (written questions, to be done rather individually or in pairs):

Comprehension

1. Qual a instituição que regulariza a nomenclatura da tabela periódica?
2. Como saber se o nome dos elementos e outras informações da tabela foram escritas em inglês britânico ou americano? Qual a informação que o texto fornece sobre isso?
3. Como está organizada a informação no verso da tabela periódica? Que tipo de informação é essa?
4. Quais são as indicações de impressão da tabela?
5. Quando conectado à Internet, que ferramenta de estudo apresenta-se disponível?
6. O que o leitor pode fazer para conseguir atualizações da tabela periódica?
7. Quais são as duas condições de uso da tabela periódica?

Language & vocabulary

1. Qual nível de linguagem é utilizado nesse texto? Forneça exemplos.
2. Em que outros textos é adequado usar linguagem formal e linguagem informal?
3. As palavras em inglês possuem múltiplos significados, de acordo com o contexto em que aparecem. Utilize as estratégias que achar adequadas (pesquisa no dicionário ou dedução pela frase) para escrever a tradução adequada dos termos sublinhados no texto.
4. Em inglês, os adjetivos precedem os substantivos. Por exemplo, “um carro novo” diz-se “a new car”. Encontre 3 pares adjetivo-substantivo no texto e traduza-os.

5. Há um grupo de palavras em inglês que são conhecidas como transparentes ou cognatas, devido a sua semelhança de escrita com a língua portuguesa (transportation, solution). Isso deve-se à sua origem latina. Sublinhe no texto todas as cognatas que encontrar.
6. A nomenclatura moderna dos elementos químicos da tabela periódica, usando as primeiras letras de seus nomes em latim o grego foi proposta pelo químico sueco Berzelius. Alguns dos principais metais que usamos estão relacionados a seguir com seu nome original. Preencha a tabela com seus nomes em inglês e português.

Símbolo	Nome original	Inglês	Português	Símbolo	Nome original	Inglês	Português
<i>Fe</i>	Ferrum	Iron	Ferro	<i>Pb</i>			
<i>Cu</i>				<i>Hg</i>			
<i>K</i>				<i>Ag</i>			
<i>Na</i>				<i>Sn</i>			
<i>Au</i>				<i>W</i>			

Students are given some time to work on the questions and the teachers monitor while they're working. After that, all the questions are corrected and discussed.

- c) The text about the history of the periodic table – this text is divided into two parts: introduction and personalities related to the periodic table. Firstly, students receive the introduction of the text to work with (attachment 2) and read it to do the following exercises.

Pre reading

- 1) A primeira parte da leitura contém um título e um subtítulo. Baseados neles, que informações você acha que vai contrar na introdução?

Reading

2) Escreva V (verdadeiro) ou F (falso). Saiba justificar suas respostas.

- () O uso da tabela periódica está restrito à sala de aula.
- () O critério para organização dos elementos químicos foi encontrar semelhanças entre eles.
- () O primeiro critério proposto por Mendeleev foi suficiente.
- () Mais de cem tentativas foram feitas até chegar-se à tabela periódica atual.
- () A teoria de Aristóteles relacionada à tabela periódica não estava certa.
- () Hennig Brand foi a primeira pessoa a fazer o esboço da tabela periódica.
- () Ele fez um experimento com urina até chegar à descoberta do fósforo.
- () Robert Boyle fez um experimento com urina até chegar à descoberta do fósforo.
- () 47 elementos foram descobertos até o início do século XIX.

Then, students are split up into pairs. The teacher writes on the board some names (Antoine-Laurent Lavoisier, Alexandre-Emile Béguyer de Chancourtouis, John Newlands, Dmitri Ivanovich Mendelejev, Henry Moseley and Glenn T. Seaborg). They are invited to go to the laboratory to search general information about them and take notes. After some time, they receive a worksheet with paragraphs with no titles (attachment 3) and they have to label the correct names (mentioned above) to the right information.

Finally, still in pairs, students have to complete a chart, summarizing the main contributors and contributions given to the final-version of the periodic table we have nowadays:

Date	Contributor	Contribution	Comment

After filling in this part, the classroom is arranged in a big circle to report what notes they have taken and share ideas about the comprehension of the text and the topics required in the exercise.

As a *follow-up exercise*: after a series of activities that help students build the meaning of the text, we thought that an individual, specific but very simple exercise would be good to check students' scanning ability in reading. So, some questions are handed in to students to be done as homework. The questions are:

1. Qual propriedade do átomo Chancourtouis utilizou para organizar as espécies químicas?
2. Qual semelhança Newlands verificou entre os elementos químicos? Como sua teoria foi aceita na época pela comunidade científica?
3. A tabela periódica de Mendeleev teve grande aceitação na comunidade científica. Descreva sua importância.
4. Qual a diferença entre os critérios para a organização da tabela periódica proposta por Mendeleev e os utilizados na organização da tabela periódica atual?
5. Qual foi a contribuição dada por Moseley à lei periódica, que fundamenta o princípio de organização da atual tabela periódica?
6. Qual parte da tabela foi proposta por Seaborg?

d) The questions are corrected and again discussed in the whole class. Then it is time to revise what we have done so far and check whether the objectives of the project have been achieved or not, and what can be done different next time. Students complete individually the following chart:

Check the most appropriate box according to the statements and your performance and opinions about the project.				
	I totally agree	I partially agree	I disagree	I don't know
I have understood the texts in English according to the exercises done.				
I have understood how the idea of the periodic table originated and some of the changes until the modern version.				
I have learned new information about important people who influenced on the creation of the periodic table.				
I have been able to do some Chemistry exercises using the periodic table in English.				
I have developed some reading strategies that will help me reading and understanding other texts in English.				
I have been aware of the Latin influence on the English language and have used the cognate words to help me building the meaning of what I read.				
I have enjoyed this integrated activity and I would like to work with similar projects in the future.				
I think the activities proposed were difficult, even though I did all of them.				
Comments?				

In its first edition, in 2007, the project was welcomed by the students. They were all motivated and involved with the activities. As I mentioned in the beginning

of this article, most of them come from an elementary school that work through projects, so learners were sort of used to work with this approach. Anyway, it has been a very rewarding experience and, so to speak, I could say that the objectives have been accomplished.

5 Final Remarks

The concept of interdisciplinarity is well-known in the education field. Teachers are aware about it and may recognize its importance for the personal and intellectual development of the students. The National Curriculum Parameters for Secondary Education is an important document that will surely guide educators to organize their school year regarding the necessary abilities and competences the learners need to develop. If we go back to the Brazilian Constitution of 1988, it is said that education “is a right for all, a duty of the State and of the family, and is to be promoted with the collaboration of society, with the objective of fully developing the person, preparing the individual for the exercise of citizenship and qualifying him/her for work”. It is in agreement with the PCNs, especially when it talks about “fully development”. The idea of integration is completely considerable – the time were subjects were taught with no connections has gone. These are all the main points of this article, as an attempt to demonstrate a simple project done and that has worked out, putting into practice the regulations and objectives stated by the Ministry of Education. Moreover, it has focused on one of the lacking abilities of Brazilian students – reading and understanding pieces of text. Then it comes to our minds the notion of ‘functionally illiterate people’, the ones who can decode the letters and read words, but are incapable of comprehend the meaning of words together. Taking this into account, we found relevant to work with reading strategies, fundamentally important for learners to achieve the literacy they are required nowadays. Within this project, learners had the chance to read, research, discuss, analyze, ask, summarize, select, share and acquire new knowledge both in English and Chemistry. Besides this, ideas such as collaborative group work, initiative and autonomy were also considered while going through this project. All we can affirm is that project work really works, students feel motivated to learn and not only develop a series of abilities and knowledge designed by the teachers,

according to the purposes of their subjects, but also the more broad competences suggested by the National Curriculum Parameters.

6 References

BRASIL. Ministry of Education. Federal Government. *National Curriculum Parameters. Secondary Education.* Available in: <http://portal.mec.gov.br/seb/arquivos/pdf/pcning.pdf>, accessed on 5-24-08.

BRASIL. Senado Federal. Secretaria Especial de Editoração e Publicações. Subsecretaria de Edições Técnicas. *Constituição da República Federativa do Brasil.* Brasília, 2003.

BROWN, Douglas. *Teaching by Principles. An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy.* New York: Longman, 2001.

CARLOS, J. G. *Interdisciplinaridade no Ensino Médio: desafios e potencialidades.* Available in: <http://www.miniweb.com.br/Educadores/artigos/pdf/interdisciplinaridade.pdf>, accessed on 06-07-08.

FONTANA, N.M. *Variação no Desempenho em Leitura de Universitários.* Available in: http://www.unisc.br/cursos/pos_graduacao/mestrado/letras/anais_2coloquio/variacao_desempenho_leitura_universitarios.pdf, accessed on 6-14-08.

RIBEIRO, V.M.; VÓVIO, C.M.; MOURA, M.P. *Letramento no Brasil: alguns resultados do indicador nacional de analfabetismo funcional.* Available in: <http://www.scielo.br/pdf/es/v23n81/13931.pdf>, accessed on 6-16-08.

SHEPPARD, K.; STOLLER, F.L. *Guidelines for the Integration of Student Projects into ESP Classrooms.* Available in: <http://exchanges.state.gov/forum/vols/vol33/no2/p10.htm>, accessed on 5-24-08.

ZAPPONE, M.H.Y. *Leitura e Escrita no Brasil.* IN: RIBEIRO, V.M. (org). *Letramento no Brasil: reflexões a partir do INAF 2001.* São Paulo: Global, 2003.

English as an international language: a study of the case of Brazil

Carina Silva Fragozo

Abstract

This article describes the process of the spread of English, presenting both historical and cultural explanations for that. It explains the presence of English in Brazil, and presents evidence for the fact that in Brazil, besides being considered a practical tool for international communication, English is perceived as a symbol of status and modernity.

Keywords: World Englishes, Expanding circle, English in Brazil.

1 Introduction

The role of English as the present international language is unquestioned. English is now considered a global language, not only because there is a great number of native speakers of English, but because various countries around the world use this language, giving it a special role (Crystal 1997, p.3).

As Jenkins (2003, p.2) remarks, in the last four centuries the number of English speakers increased from five to seven million to something between one-and-a-half and two billion. English is now spoken in almost every country in the world, mainly by non-native speakers.

As to the historical reasons why English has the importance it has today, Crystal (1997, p. 53) emphasizes two main facts. The first is the dominance of the British Empire of the 19th century, and the second is the powerful economic position that the United States has nowadays. It was the power of the British Empire that established the status English has today, but it is the North American economic supremacy that keeps English in the role of a global language.

English began to have an important status during the Industrial Revolution, when most of the advances in industry and transportation were of British origin (Crystal 1997, p. 71). In the nineteenth century, new words were required by the new technologies and science. As it was Britain that had the power at that time,

the ones who were out of the country and were interested in these innovations had to learn English.

By the end of the century, the United States had surpassed British economy, and by 1900 English had become the “dominant language of global politics and economy” (Crystal 1997, p. 76). After World War II, the United States’ influence on the world increased significantly, and so far it seems it will not stop. With the American dominance, the future influence of English was certain.

Nowadays, English is the main language used in international relations. Crystal (1997, p. 80) states that 85% of international organizations use English as a means of communication. Besides, today one does not need to know German to read Kafka. for instance. Knowing English is enough, since most of the books have an English translation. Graddol (2000) states that English is the most used language for book publication: “over 60 countries publish titles in English” (p.9).

English is also the language of tourism, being commonly used as an inter-language among those who speak different languages. Graddol (2006, p. 29) remarks that “international tourism is growing, but the proportion of encounters involving a native English speaker is declining”. This means that although English is the language of tourism, most international communication does not involve a native speaker of English.

Although the purpose of this work is to talk about the present role of English in the world, it is interesting to take a look at what researchers are foreseeing for the language. With the great economic power that China is developing nowadays, there is a growing feeling that Mandarin is the future global language, and that English will start losing its position. In his study about the future of English, Graddol (2006) proposes that in 2050 China will be in the first position in the ranking of the world economy, and the United States will be in the second place. This could mean that English is likely to lose its space as a global language; considering Crystal’s words presented above, however, the greatest reason that makes a global language is its “special place” in various countries. Currently, English holds this global place, and we know that it is not just the American economic power that keeps English as an international language. There are many other cultural aspects, such as the Hollywood movie industry, popular music, and the media (Crystal 1997), that influence people to use and to keep contact with English. It is a fact that English may compete with Mandarin as a language for

international business, but it is hard to imagine Brazilians reading Mandarin translations of French books, or a German talking to an American through Mandarin in the near future.

As we see it, English is still the international language, and will keep its position for some time. But, as Crystal (1997, p. 113) states: “linguistic history shows us repeatedly that it is wise to be cautious, when making predictions about the future of a language”. Therefore, this article leaves the discussion to other scholars¹.

2 The kinds of English speakers and the concentric circles

In order to classify the kinds of English speakers, authors like Barber (2002), Crystal (1997), Graddol (2000) and Jenkins (2003) present the following categorization, which is very common in the literature: Speakers of English as a Native Language (ENL), Speakers of English as a Second Language (ESL) and Speakers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

Speakers of **English as a Native Language** are the ones who have English as a mother tongue, that is, mainly people from the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. **English as a Second Language** is the language adopted by a country with the purpose of having an official role. In this case, English is used for communication by the government, by the media, and in the educational system, complementing the first (or native) language of a country. English has the official role in countries like Ghana, Nigeria and India. Finally, **English as Foreign Language** is the English that has no official status in a country. “A Brazilian or a German learning English learns it as a foreign language: it will not be used for communicating with other Brazilians or other Germans, but only with foreigners” (Barber 2002, p.238).

The American linguist Kachru² proposes his own taxonomy for the different kinds of speakers of English in the world, which can be found in Crystal (1997),

¹ For more information about the future of English, see Graddol 2000 and 2006, and Crystal 1997 (113-139).

² KACHRU, Braj. B. (1985). *Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: the English language in the outer circle*. In R. Quirk and H.G. Widdowson (eds) *English in the World*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Graddol (2000), Jenkins (2003) and Friedrich (2001), for example. He divides them into three circles: the inner, the outer and the expanding circles. In fact, these are just different names for the three groups of speakers mentioned above. The *inner* circle refers to the group of native speakers, the *outer* circle to speakers of English as a second language and the *expanding* circle, which is the one that really matters in this research, includes the countries where English is spoken as a foreign language.

2.1 English in the expanding Circle

Understanding the development of English in countries of the expanding circle is essential for comprehending the spread of English worldwide, and many authors have already started talking about the future role of speakers of this circle. Graddol (2000) states that “the main areas of development in the use and form of English will undoubtedly come from non-native speakers” (p. 5). He concludes that in the future non-native speakers of English will be more numerous than first-language speakers “and will decide the global future of the language” (p.10). The fact is that the future of English is not in the hands of its native speakers, but in the large group of its non-native speakers.

It is not easy to define the number of speakers of English in the expanding circle. It may vary drastically, according to what is considered a speaker of English as a foreign language. Crystal (1997, p. 61) explains that if we consider only the ones who have a native or native-like command of English, we will end up with the total of 670 million people. On the other hand, if we consider speakers of English the ones who are not fluent, but have a ‘reasonable competence’ of the language, we will have the huge total of 1,800 million. For him, a middle-term estimate would be 1,200-1,500 million. We can visualize the condition of the three circles with the approximate number of speakers in the following illustration:

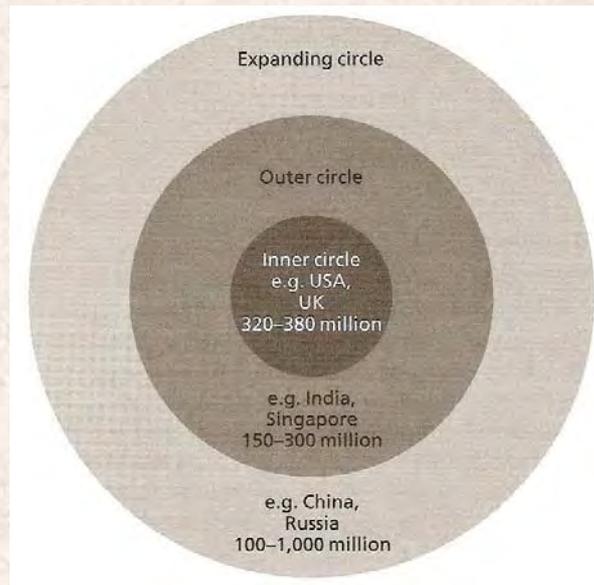


Figure 1: “The three ‘circles’ of English”. (Crystal 1997, p. 54)

We should consider that Crystal presented these numbers ten years ago, but they are still very significant. The high estimates of the number of speakers in the expanding circle was already much superior to the speakers of the inner and outer circles. No new estimates were found, but it is possible to infer that the growth of the expanding circle has not stopped, and so far will continue to do so. Therefore, understanding the role of English in countries of the expanding circle is essential to comprehend the spread of English as a whole.

It is important to mention that Kachru’s framework is not a perfect model, seeing that the distinctions between the three circles are becoming gradually more imprecise. Graddol (2006, p. 110) says that “there is an increasing need to distinguish between proficiencies in English, rather than a speaker’s bilingual status”. He comments that Kachru himself admits that the inner circle would be better considered as “the group of highly proficient speakers of English – those who have ‘functional nativeness’ regardless of how they learned or use the language” (p. 110). In the same way, instead of having speakers of English as a foreign language in the expanding circle, we would have the group of people with low proficiency in the language. Thus, instead of dividing the speakers according to nativeness, the proper classification would be related to proficiency.

Even though this new representation can be more suitable for the present linguistic reality, it is still an abstract way of classifying the English speakers. Being proficient or not depends on what one considers being more or less proficient.

Taking into consideration that Graddol's proposal is very recent, and that it is as abstract as Kachru's 1985 framework, this work will remain based on the 1985 model.

3 English in Brazil

Although English has no official role in Brazil, it is present in the country. Still, as Friedrich (2001, p. 146) points out, this presence is not uniform: "Brazil has several countries within one, and has a developed, a developing and an underdeveloped nation all under one roof". Because of this, linguistic studies in Brazil must be careful, since the reality in the South can totally differ from the North, for instance.

Based on this, Friedrich (2001) proposes that certain revisions in Kachru's framework are necessary to explain the case of Brazil. Although she considers the framework a practical way of analyzing the language, the linguist suggests that Brazil is not totally part of the expanding circle. She thinks that part of the country should be out of Kachru's model:

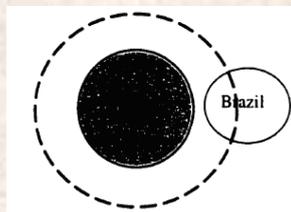


Figure 2: Brazil and its relation to the Expanding Circle. (Friedrich 2001, p. 147)

As we can see in Figure 2, most of the country is out of the model. It means that, although English is a reality in Brazil, few people have access to it. Usually only the upper classes have opportunities to keep contact with the language.

3.1 The functions of English in Brazil

There are different kinds of uses of English in Brazil. They vary from the most needless to the most useful ones. Although few Brazilians are fluent in English, the language and the American culture are present in Brazilian's lives, as we will see in this section.

In order to explain the functions of English in Brazil, Friedrich (2001, p: 82) makes use of Kachru's functional framework. He divides them into four types: instrumental, interpersonal, imaginative and regulative. As the regulative function has to do with the countries of the inner and the outer circles, where English has an official role, and this article is concerned with a country from the expanding circle, no explanations of this function will be necessary. Thus, in the next three sections, we will study the three kinds of functions of English in Brazil.

3.1.1 Instrumental Function

The instrumental function, as Kachru says, has to do with the educational system of a country. In Brazil, foreign language teaching is mandatory from the 5th grade on, according to the *Lei de Diretrizes e Bases* (Cury, 2004), established in 1996. The Ministry of Education does not decide that English is the foreign language taught, being the choice up to each school. Yet, it is "the predominant foreign language in the country" (Friedrich 2001, p.83).

There are many English courses and private teachers in the country, but still few Brazilians are proficient in the language. Sometimes it is hard to understand the reason why Brazilian students finish High School with only some (or no) notion of the English language. If they start studying English in the fifth grade, it means that until they finish High School they have had English classes for six years. It is evident that there is a fault in the educational system of English teaching in Brazil.

For us to understand the present situation of English teaching in Brazil, it is relevant to take a look in the History of English teaching in the country, so that we can try to relate the past with the present.

English started to be taught in Brazil in the 19th century, with the decree of July 22nd, 1809, signed by the Prince of Portugal Dom João VI, who had recently come to Brazil (Oliveira 1999, p. 24). The decree established the creation of two new subjects in schools: English and French, for the instruction of the people. Making a connection with what has already been said in this paper, we see that the 19th century was a time of great power of the British Empire. Brazil was, then, beginning to perceive the importance of learning English for practical purposes, since the language would be required for international trade.

As Oliveira (1999) observes, although the creation of the two new subjects had the same purpose (to instruct the people), it seems that it worked only for French, which was the international language that time. While English was just a complementary subject at school until the 1820's, French was mandatory to enter university. French would remain a significant foreign language in Brazil until the 1950's but, as we see, English began to have its importance in the 19th century.

From 1840 to 1889, English teaching remained inclined to practical uses, based on reading and translating texts written in English. These were the abilities required in preparatory exams of the academies (Oliveira 1999, p.166).

After the Second World War (1939-45) the United States became the great cultural and economic influence in the world, putting French aside and fixing English as the international language. This resulted in an impulse of English teaching in Brazil, but only in the 1960's the "proliferation" of private English courses started to happen (Schüz, 1999).

As to public schools, the legislation of the first half of the twentieth century already emphasized the practical aspects of learning a foreign language. However, as there was little time dedicated to the teaching of foreign languages and few prepared teachers, the practical nature of knowing a foreign language was not applied. This resulted in uninteresting classes based on grammar exercises and memorization of rules (BRASIL 1999).

Little by little, teachers started to notice that metalinguistic knowledge of English does not make students able to communicate, and recently started to think about integrating the English classes with other subjects, so that it would be more meaningful. However, many teachers still keep on repeating grammar topics year after year, and the more students memorize rules, the less they learn to *use* the language. Furthermore, the average number of students in class is from thirty to fifty, which makes language teaching a hard task. There is also the fact that the salaries intended to teachers of public schools are low, which may demotivate these professionals. Still, we must not presume that all the English teachers in Brazil are unprepared or unwilling to change this situation, as many teachers really fight to improve the foreign language teaching.

The consequence of this deficiency in Brazilian regular schools is the ongoing transference of their role to private English courses. Thus, one who really needs to learn English has to enroll in a private course, since schools do not

provide the appropriate learning. The emergence of private English courses could be the solution for the ones who want to learn to speak English fluently, but those courses are usually expensive, and just the middle and upper classes have access to them. Thus, the ineffective language teaching in regular schools together with the expensiveness of private English courses partially explain the small number of English speakers in Brazil. Another point is that most Brazilians have little contact with other English speakers, a fact that reduces their opportunities to practice the language orally.

The place of English language teaching in Brazil is, therefore, varied. Although English is a present fact in the country, a great portion of the population has never had the opportunity to study the language. Another portion has English at school, but the great number of students in class, plus other factors already mentioned, hamper successful learning. A third part of the population, which is actually a minority, has the opportunity to pay for a private English course and is able get an effective learning.

3.1.2 Interpersonal Function

The interpersonal function is, for Kachru:

Performed in two senses: first as a link language between speakers of various (mutually unintelligible) languages and dialects in linguistic and culturally pluralistic societies: and second by providing a code that symbolizes modernization and elitism. (p.58 apud Friedrich 2001, p.85)

These two aspects are present in Brazil: English is used as a link language mainly for international business and is perceived as a prestige language. The explanation for the use of English for international relations is very similar to other countries in the world: English is used as a contact language among those who do not speak Portuguese. It can be applied to people who use the language for business relations, to the ones who travel abroad and to international tourism (Friedrich 2001, p.85).

The most interesting aspect of the interpersonal function in Brazil is, however, the role of English as a symbol of elitism. Kachru³ (1992b, p.396 apud Friedrich 2000, p. 216) considers the social attitude toward English the main reason why people in remote parts of the world study the language. In order to understand the attitudes of both the learning and the sociolinguistic reality of English in Brazil, Friedrich (2000) developed a survey with 190 adult learners of English in a private language course in São Paulo. Among other conclusions, most of the respondents indicated that people who know English have more job opportunities and advantages in areas of study. Most surprisingly, many interviewees associated knowing English with having status and being intelligent. One of the conclusions is that although learners emphasize the functionality of English, they make a relation between English speakers and status.

This research is only one instance of how Brazilians perceive English as “a means of social ascension” (Friedrich 2000, p.222). Thonus (1992) arrives at similar conclusions in her research about English names in Brazil. She explains that traditional Brazilian names are sharing their space with those influenced by English.

She collected the data for her study in Cartório Cajuru, which is an official registry in the state of Paraná. She analyzed only male names, and made an oral questionnaire on the streets of Paraná, in order to know what people thought about those names. Thonus concluded that some Brazilians think that English names are a reflex of the parents’ desire for their children to be someone in the world. Other people think that naming children with English names is ridiculous and unnecessary. The fact is that being pompous, ridiculous or unnecessary, the rather large number of “English” names in Brazil demonstrates the influence of the language in our culture and a certain wish to imitate modern American culture (Thonus 1992, p.187).

The interpersonal function is represented in Brazil, then, both by using English as a means of international communication and as a symbol of modernization and status. In the next section, more instances of the use of English as a sign of prestige will be presented through the innovative function.

³ KACHRU, Braj. B. Models for non-native Englishes. In *The Other Tongue: English across cultures*. (2nd edn). Edited by Braj B. Kachru. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1992b, p. 355-65.

3.1.3 Innovative Function

The innovative function, as Kachru writes, refers to the uses of English in literary genres. Friedrich (2001, p.86) explains:

Because many expanding circle countries do not have a literature in English of their own, other realms of creative use of English can fulfill this function: be it music composed in English, lexical borrowings or even is creative use in advertising and the media.

Possibly because of the mixture of races that compose the Brazilian population and because of its admiration to the United States (which comes since the time when Brazil was dreaming of independence), Brazil is very open to “the new, the different and the foreign” (Friedrich 2001, p.62). As a result, the country is also open for language spread.

Through history, we can find many instances of English words that were loaned to Portuguese. Some of them are so natural and totally incorporated to the Portuguese lexicon that we do not even notice their English origin, like *coquetel* (cocktail), *futebol* (football), *sanduíche* (sandwich) and *vagão* (wagon) (Rodríguez, [2002?]).

The way these terms are incorporated to Portuguese varies a lot. In most cases the pronunciation and sometimes the meaning becomes different from English. The difference in sound is obviously due to the fact that the English and the Portuguese sound systems are not the same. The noun *scanner*, for example, is used in Portuguese to refer to a machine used to convert documents into digital data, just like in English. The pronunciation, however, is not English like; it was adapted to the Portuguese phonetic system, and is pronounced in most Portuguese dialects [is'kaner]. This noun derived the verb *escanear*, which was totally adapted to Portuguese. Portuguese also borrowed the word *shampoo*, which had its spelling adapted to *xampú* and maintained its original meaning. The word *shopping* kept the original spelling, but changed its meaning to what we call in English *shopping mall*.

In many cases, English words are borrowed by Portuguese because of a certain linguistic lack, as for example: *background*, *feedback*, *fitness*, *impeachment*, *marketing*, and many others. In general, it is difficult to translate

these words into Portuguese, and Portuguese speakers tend to “improvise” their pronunciation.

In other cases, even with no linguistic need, English words are borrowed by Portuguese, like *fast-food* (*lanche rápido*), *high tech* (*alta tecnologia*), *hot-dog* (*cachorro quente*), *pub* (*bar*). This kind of words usually begins to be used by the media, and later people start saying them. They might be used because they represent fashion and status (Rodríguez [2002?]).

The media (the internet, radio, TV, etc.) is probably one of the greatest influences in language spread. The Internet is highly responsible for the spread of English. In Brazil, the number of Internet users is constantly increasing and, consequently, the contact with English may increase, as well.

A large number of youths and young adults regularly listen to English in popular music. It is possible to listen to songs performed by artists from the inner circle, in the most varied music genres, in many radio stations of the country. Brazilians also have contact with English when they go to the movies, as the majority of films are subtitled. Only the ones intended for children are dubbed.

Most Brazilians have a TV at home, and this is also a means of contact with English. Cable TV gives access to various English speaking news, sports and movie channels. However, most of the population has only access to satellite TV, in which most American and British films and TV series are transmitted dubbed.

The use of English words in Brazilian advertisements is frequent, and sometimes apparently pointless. Takashi⁴ (1997, p.12 apud Friedrich 2001, p.100) argues that loan words are used as a means for catching the audience’s attention, especially in advertising and brand naming.

Rajagopalan (2003, p.95) calls our attention to an advertisement found in a famous daily newspaper from São Paulo (he does not mention its name), for a luxurious apartment building under construction: “Cool, trendie, descolado, intenso, frenético, insider. O glamour pós-moderno, o culto ao lifestyle.” The ad is an interesting example of the influence of English in advertisements in Brazil, which happens in many other expanding circle countries, as well. The idea of the

⁴ Takashi, K. Japanese bilingual brand names. *English Today*, Cambridge University Press, v. 52, issue 12, p. 12-16, 1997.

ad could easily be expressed in Portuguese, but still it shows a mix of Portuguese and English words.

Thonus⁵ (1991, apud Friedrich 2001, p.102) investigated the use of English words in advertising and brand naming in Brazil, and came up with interesting conclusions. She analyzed the yellow pages of seven Brazilian capitals: Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, Manaus, Brasília, Belém, Recife and Porto Alegre. It was Rio de Janeiro that had the largest number of entries in English: 9,75%, still a small number. More significant than the number of entries are the kinds of English use, though.

Thonus divides the kinds of borrowings into two groups. The first one refers to the conscious use of English as in a pet shop called *Hotdog*. The important aspect in this group is that the English use is considered appropriate to the kind of service being advertised.

Based on Thonus' research, which she made sixteen years ago, this work presents a list of ads found in the yellow pages of the phone list *Listel 2007*, from Porto Alegre. With a brief look at the phone list, it was possible to find many examples of English business names. Here is a selection of 5. Many mix English words with Portuguese ones, but they still make sense. Most of them present the English name followed by the description of the service in Portuguese: *Batcar – oficina mecânica*, for example.

Table 1: Ads found in the phone list *Listel 2007*, from Porto Alegre.

Business name	Service	Comments
Batcar	Mechanic	From the movie <i>Batman</i> .
Celebrity Eventos	Organization of events	
Couro design store	Leather shop: sofas, rugs...	<i>Couro</i> = leather
Homem company	Clothes for men	<i>Homem</i> = man
Magic Image	Print shop	

Source: Elaborated by the author (2007).

⁵ Thonus, Terese. Englishization of business names in Brazil. *World Englishes*, Oxford, v. 10, issue 1, p. 65-74,1991.

The other group of advertisements proposed by Thonus contains “clippings that sound like English or even are English words but do not intuitively fit the business or brand they represent” (Friedrich 2001, p.103). Thonus gives the example of *Master Limp*, a cleaning company. *Limp* is a clipping of the Portuguese verb *limpar* (to clean), which has nothing to do with the English word.

In the same phone list mentioned before, it was also possible to find some examples for this phenomenon: *Body secrets'*, a beauty salon, shows the inappropriate use of the apostrophe, which should be after *body*, to indicate that the secrets belong to the body. The use of the apostrophe, by the way, is very present in Brazilian business names, like in *Duda's Kar*. Another example is a pet shop called *Dog Chick*. The intention was probably to say something like *Chic Dog*, as there is the Portuguese adjective *chique* that means *chic*. A third example is a refrigeration store called *Elity*. This is the typical pseudo-English spelling, similar to the ones we saw in the names of people.

A beauty salon with the name of *One Beauty* is also an interesting example. When asked about her intention with the English name, the owner said she means something like “beauty comes first”. As we see, people often do not really know English, but still use it. A common habit is to look up words in the dictionary and write them the way they understand.

Just like in the examples of people's names, English business and brand-naming are clearly a symbol of prestige. Thonus says that English naming is “mainly a resource to attract Brazilian ‘every-person’, rather than the international community” (Friedrich 2001, p.104). Friedrich goes on saying that most Brazilians are attracted and used to English business and brand names. She concludes that in some cases “the association of English and prestige can be what first introduces the lexical item in the language, but what keeps it there is its fast incorporation to the local lexicon, so to speak” (p.104-105).

The main aspects of the innovative function in Brazil are, thus, loan words and business names. The reasons for borrowing words from English, as we saw, vary from linguistic lack to a certain admiration for what is foreign. The same happens in advertisements. Although in most cases there is no need for using English words, people do it and are used to it. This confirms what was said in the previous section: even though Brazilians agree with the functionality of English, they relate the language with status and prestige.

4 Final Considerations

The main goal of this article was to show the great influence that English has in the world nowadays, and the role of the language in an expanding circle country. It showed that, according to Graddol (2000) and Crystal (1997), for instance, the future of English is not in the hands of its native speakers, but in the non-native speakers' ones. That is why it was relevant to study the presence of the language in Brazil, which belongs to the expanding circle.

This article explained how English achieved the position it has nowadays, making both a historical and a cultural study of the spread of English. We saw that Mandarin might be the successor of English as an international language, but it is still impossible to be sure about this. After that, we studied the different types of English speakers, and concluded that Kachru's framework of the concentric circles is still a practical way of analyzing them.

The spread of English has brought the language to most countries of the world, including Brazil. Although the language is present in the country, few Brazilians are able to communicate in English effectively. This can be explained by the deficiencies in the Brazilian educational system, but can also mean that Brazilians are not aware of the importance of learning a foreign language yet.

REFERENCES

BARBER, Charles (2002).. *The English Language: A Historical introduction*. Cambridge: CUP.

BRASIL, Ministério da Educação, Secretaria de Educação Média e Tecnológica (1999). *Parâmetros curriculares nacionais, códigos e suas tecnologias*. Língua estrangeira moderna. Brasília: MEC, 1999. p. 49-63.

CRYSTAL, David (1997). *English as a Global Language*. Cambridge: CUP.

CURY, Carlos Roberto (2004). *Lei de Diretrizes e Bases da Educação (Lei 9.394/96)*. 8th ed. Rio de Janeiro: DP&A.

FRIEDRICH, Patrícia M (2001). *A Sociolinguistic Profile of English in Brazil: Issues of Imperialism, Dominance and Empowerment*. Dissertation (Doctor of Philosophy). Purdue University. Available at: <http://docs.lib.purdue.edu/dissertations/AAI3037567/>. Retrieved on: Sep. 2nd, 2007.

_____ (2000) English in Brazil: functions and attitudes. *World Englishes*, Oxford, v. 19, issue 2, p. 215-223. Available at: <http://www.blackwell-synergy.com/doi/abs/10.1111/1467-971X.00170>. Retrieved on: Aug. 7th, 2007.

GRADDOL, David.(2000) *The Future of English?* London: The British Council. Available at: <http://www.britishcouncil.org/learning-research-futureofenglish.htm>. Retrieved on: Jun 6th, 2007.

GRADDOL, David (2006). *English Next*. London: The British Council. Available at: <http://www.britishcouncil.org/learning-research-englishnext.htm>. Retrieved on Oct. 24th, 2007.

JENKINS, Jennifer (2003). *World Englishes*. A resource book for students. Routledge English language introductions. London and New York.

RAJAGOPALAN, Kanavillil (2003). The ambivalent role of English in Brazilian politics. *World Englishes*, Oxford, v. 22, issue 2, p. 91-101. Available at: <http://www.blackwell-synergy.com/doi/abs/10.1111/1467-971X.00281>. Retrieved on: Oct. 20th, 2007.

SCHÜTZ, Ricardo (1999). *Uma rápida história do ensino de línguas no Brasil*. Santa Cruz do Sul. Available at: <http://www.sk.com.br/sk-perg9.html#284>. Retrieved on: Oct. 9th, 2007.

OLIVEIRA, Luis Eduardo Meneses de (1999). *A Historiografia Brasileira da Literatura Inglesa: uma história do ensino de inglês no Brasil (1809-1951)*. Thesis (Masters in Literary Theory). Unicamp, Campinas. Available at: <http://www.unicamp.br/iel/memoria/projetos/teses.html>. Retrieved on: Oct. 9th, 2007.

RODRÍGUEZ, Alfredo Maceira [2000?]. *Empréstimos lexicais recentes do inglês para o português do Brasil*. Rio de Janeiro. Available at: <http://www.filologia.org.br/anais/anais%20III%20CNLF%2054.html>. Retrieved on: Oct. 15th, 2007.

THONUS, Terese (2001). Anderson, Maicon and Thyago: “English” names in Brazil. *American Speech*, Durham, v. 67, issue 2, p. 175-189.