



FACULTAD DE FILOLOGÍA

TESIS DOCTORAL

**TÍTULO: A gesture-based approach to teaching English  
as a Second Language.**

**AUTOR: Michael Alan Bilbrough**

**DIRECTORA: Dra. Gloria Álvarez-Benito**

Fecha:

VºBº del Tutor:

Firma:

Firmado: Dra. Gloria Álvarez Benito

For Maria and Angela, their love, support and endless patience.

“We write things down so we don’t have to remember .”

(The late Dave Willis – at least, I seem to remember him saying that – perhaps I shouldn’t have written it down! He was concerned with language learning, of course, not shopping lists.)

This quote in loving memory of my father: English teacher and Shakespeare scholar.

“I cannot too much muse

Such shapes, such gesture and such sound, expressing,

Although they want the use of tongue, a kind

Of excellent dumb discourse.”

(William Shakespeare, *The Tempest*, III, 3.)



**A gesture-based approach to teaching English as  
a Second Language.**

**Autor: Michael Alan Bilbrough**

**Tutora: Gloria Álvarez-Benito**

**Febrero 2017**



## **Acknowledgements.**

My many and very special thanks to María de Gracia, the headmistress of *CEIP Pedro Primero*, for her belief in this project and her coordinating and encouragement which helped the smooth running of the experimental English course. A well-deserved thanks also to the various teachers and staff, whose patience I tried time and again asking for favours, interrupting classes at inappropriate times for testing and interviews. I am especially indebted to my group of experimental course students, who stepped forward as unwitting guinea pigs to participate in what must have initially seemed a rather crazy way to learn English. For their enthusiasm, vibrant energy and willingness to put aside traditional classroom practices and attempt something new, I am grateful. Finally, a heartfelt thanks and eternal gratitude to my tutor and guide, Dra. Gloria Álvarez Benito at Seville University, for her acceptance to take on board a doctoral thesis project of not the most conventional nature, her unerring judgement and unwavering and constant support throughout and ability to boost morale when my energies were flagging and fuel a conviction that what I was doing was of value.

## INDEX

Abbreviations and new terminology used in this thesis.	viii
<b>1. INTRODUCTION.</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1. Distinguishing between tool and methodology.	1
1.2. Specific experiment objectives.	3
<b>2. STATE OF THE ART.</b>	<b>5</b>
2.1. Gesture, imagery, memory and language acquisition – a preamble.	5
2.2. Imagery, body, memory, recall and learning – a brief historical synopsis.	7
2.3. Classical memory systems revisited.	14
2.4. Manipulation and motoric imagery.	22
2.5. Gestures and learning.	26
2.6. Four significant SL teaching approaches: TPR, Co-grammatical Gestures, the Silent Way and AIM.	34
2.7. English language teaching in Spain.	55
<b>3. METHODS.</b>	<b>67</b>
3.1. Course set-up.	67
3.2. Classroom management and methodology.	73
<b>4. THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS PERTAINING TO GESTUREWAY.</b>	<b>87</b>
4.1. Basic concepts and nomenclature.	88
4.2. Established language acquisition approaches relevant to GW.	96
4.3. The role of text in language learning and GW.	105
4.4. Alternative means to present and elicit L2 – fluctuating and constant conceptual pegs.	111

5. RESULTS.	118
5.1. Test evaluation considerations and design.	118
5.2. The pilot test.	119
5.3. The written pre-test.	122
5.4. The speaking pre-test.	126
5.5. The written and listening post-test.	134
5.6. The communicative areas of the post-test – results analysis.	139
5.7. Speaking post-test.	147
5.8. A qualitative assessment of the Gesture Way course.	163
6. CONCLUSIONS.	186
REFERENCES.	195
ANNEXES.	207
Annexe 1. Categories of GW artificial gestures.	207
Annexe 2. Enrolment and authorisation letters between TR and parents.	229
Annexe 3. Selected correspondence, TR and <i>Pedro Primero</i> .	232
Annexe 4. Selected correspondence, TR and parents.	234
Annexe 5. Official agreement of collaboration.	237
Annexe 6. Liability insurance policy taken out for duration of course.	242
Annexe 7. Pilot test versions.	244
Annexe 8. Pre-test written and speaking materials and marking sheet.	246
Annexe 9. Listening, reading and writing post-test.	259
Annexe 10. Post-test speaking.	265
Annexe 11. Examples of story materials used for gesturing.	266
Annexe 12. Student diploma for course completion.	275

## **Abbreviations and new terminology used in this thesis.**

**ADHD** - Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder.

**CV** - Number of different verbs (except *be*) used correctly in the pre- and post-tests.

**CP(E)** – Complete Production (Environment). This refers to L2 production without any controlled language assistance or at most minimal prompts such as required for L2 classroom situations.

**DSLII** – Direct Student Language Interaction. A dynamic where learners are actively engaged in fully communicative L2 tasks involving holistic language. DSLII excludes tasks such as discrete item and written cloze exercise tasks, rote learning, repetition, etc..

**EA** – Error Analysis.

**GW** – GestureWay. A methodology based on input-based learning but where input and eliciting of L2 is provided by an artificial gesture code.

**L1 and L2** – mother tongue and second language or foreign language respectively.<sup>1</sup>

**PP(E)** – Partial Production (Environment). The unique controlled environment brought about during Silent Sign that assists learners in L2 production.

**Silent Sign** – The technique in GW where the teacher elicits spoken language from learners through the silent input of hand gestures.

**TPR** – Total Physical Response. Language teaching tool developed by James Asher comprising the use of actions.

**TR** – Teacher Researcher. The teaching and researching role the author of this thesis carries out during the experimental course.

---

<sup>1</sup> The terms “foreign language” and “second language” are often used with reference to different language learning contexts in the literature. In this thesis no particular context is intended other than simply L2.



## **1. INTRODUCTION.**

This thesis will evaluate the influence of a second language learning teaching tool which comprises input of artificial gestures to enhance and accelerate L2 English input in the classroom. The purpose of this gesture tool is to offer learners greater exposure to the new language for more rapid, effective acquisition. The target experimental group is a class of Spanish primary school children. Results from the experiment will provide quantitative data regarding modifications in learners' L2 interlanguage and structure knowledge before and after an academic year's course of English classes where this tool is employed. As this tool is relatively new and designed by the author of this thesis, a description of its nature and functioning in the classroom will also be provided. Furthermore, a qualitative analysis will comment on the observations made while implementing the tool and the learners' reactions and adaptation to its novel dynamic.

### **1.1. Distinguishing between tool and methodology.**

The author of this thesis (from herein referred to as "the author", "examiner" and "Teacher Researcher" or "TR") employs the word "tool" with reference to the artificial gesture code under test in the experiment and not "methodology". In the past, "methodology" has centred on assessing the quantities of form instruction preferable for effective L2 acquisition or learning. The Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audiolingual Method, the Natural Approach and others all assume a certain emphasis, either greater or lesser, on the degree of teaching of form, grammar, notional and functional language. "Method" has always meant explorations of these variables in the English language classroom ranging from full explicit grammar and structure input moving right across the spectrum to an absence of explicit structure teaching. As the full range, from extensive form instruction approaches (for example, Grammar-Translation

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

Method, Audiolingual Method) through to the opposite extreme, an almost complete avoidance of explicit grammar teaching (for example, Krashen's Natural Approach) has been explored and analysed exhaustively in earlier research, a study of "method" in this context is not intended here.

A tool, on the other hand, in the hands of a skilled practitioner, may be manipulated and need not follow the bounds of a fixed methodology but can be flexible and adaptable to more than one methodological environment. However, there is necessarily a working juxtaposition between tool and mode of use. Naturally, one designs a tool with a mode in mind: one that its creator initially believed would obtain the desired results. The rationale behind the mode of implementation of this tool is to offer learners exposure to these gestures, their meanings and practice of the utterances of the English words associated with them. Some two thousand of the most common words in the English language can be conveyed through these artificial gestures. These are high-frequency words, an acquisition of which has been deemed necessary for beginner and elementary learners of English for general communicative competence (Schmitt 2000, Nation 2001).

A good tool may transcend the original expectations placed upon it. It can offer possibilities and benefits not wholly envisaged even by its creator at the time of conception. In fact, at some point, the need will arise to stand back and assess the tool's true implications and attempt to describe them. In this case, the task will be twofold. Firstly, to provide an analysis of the advantages to the learners' L2 acquisition hitherto not witnessed before its employment and secondly, to synthesise and describe any underlying processes involved which can be categorised into pre-existing methodological brackets (of which there are many in the FL teaching literature). The

methodological categorisation, the procedures underpinning the way this gesture code tool is employed in the classroom, has been called GestureWay (GW).

### **1.2. Specific experiment objectives.**

GW will be introduced into the L2 English language over one academic year of English language instruction to a class of Spanish nine-year olds. Comment and analysis will be carried out on the resulting findings and didactic dynamic. The thesis experiment will evaluate GW by empirical study in the two following ways.

1) There will be a quantitative study to analyse the effects of GW on student language acquisition and learning of English compared with relatively more explicit grammar-based mainstream approaches received by the peer control group over the same period. Especial consideration will be given to the development of fluency skills such as story-writing and story-telling tasks in English and learner communicative ability. This study will include pre-tests and post-tests (oral and written) of both the experimental and a control group.

2) An observational, principally qualitative account from analyses of video recordings taken of the experimental group during the course. Examples of observations and analyses to be discussed will be following.

- Learners' response to and acceptance of language instruction via gesture input as an alternative to previous styles of English language teaching they have received.
- The teacher/researcher's (TR) capacity to input language through gesture with comment on input velocity rates and the effectiveness of learner comprehension of gestures and the quality and quantity of learner utterances while gesturing.

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

- Learner ability to interpret gestures and their morphemic and semantic nature in the choral context intended.
- Comment on the potential for progressive English language acquisition through GW usage.
- Comment on whether class size (number of students) should be considered an influencing factor on GW effectiveness.

## **2. STATE OF THE ART.**

This section explores the history, comment and research of memory systems, visual and kinaesthetic didactic technique in pedagogy where the author believes there may be a relationship with second language acquisition and GW. How much of this material offered here is directly relevant to the GW tool under study will be debated later. It is easy to see significance in so many different theories and practices yet by embracing several the researcher may dilute the usefulness of the analysis. At the same time it may be foolish to dismiss certain bodies of thought, denying the existence of other influences, in order to boast a full and clear understanding and proffer a concrete description of the theoretical underpinnings.

### **2.1. Gesture, imagery, memory and language acquisition – a preamble.**

It is difficult to regard the qualities of gesture without assuming there exist associations with imagery. A hand gesture is motoric but also visually sensorial. An image may be physically motionless but often brimming with movement and kinaesthetic energy when contemplated in the mind. Likewise, if gestures are motoric, then they extend beyond the hands and arms to the whole body and the whole being. To discuss the role of gesture in language learning requires an exploration of the visual and the corporeal and how their manipulation assists the learner in acquiring language and developing the language skill. However, are the motives for seeking recourse to the visual and the motoric about a quest for memory enhancement for language learning? Indeed, is the acquisition of language about memory? It is tempting to believe memory of considerable consequence. Without recall there can be no language output. Yet, where memory of language is conceived through active memorisation (that awkward sub-division of memory), controversy arises regarding classroom practices such as repetition and rote learning of L2 words and phrases. On the other hand, the inclusion of

imagery and motorics in L2 instruction to enhance memory has often been considered instrumental in achieving improved results in learner language development. Notwithstanding, are memorisation and memory such vital players in learning the skills required to communicate effectively in a foreign language? The process of skill acquisition is presumably an internal, personalised effort and perfected through practice bearing little relation to consciously committing data to memory. Considerations about acquisition lead one into discussion on how language should be treated in the classroom; whether seeking memory/memorisation techniques for our learners is so critical. The teacher yearns for those wonderfully natural acquisition processes involved in mother tongue learning, functioning concurrent with a capacity to internalise language without the conscious awareness of memory. Harnessing such power for the English language classroom has always long frustrated the teacher for its elusiveness.

Then there must be reflection on that fundamental which indeed is inextricably related to foreign language learning in the classroom, so extensively debated in research papers over the past decades: the degree of explicit grammar and structure teaching that should be adopted. This is clearly a well-researched area in the literature yet, confusingly and frustratingly, one that large proportion of the empirical experimentation has not been able to throw much light upon.

The following accounts do not necessarily fully parallel the author's own beliefs but offer relevant insights into the issues under discussion. Many may offer an important bearing if not uniquely responsible for language acquisition. They all, however, appear allied to the workings of the GW technique under study in this thesis. Furthermore, they provide food for conceptual thought pertaining to the three areas, mentioned above, which can be considered foundation stones in second language study: memory, acquisition and skills development.

## 2.2. Imagery, body, memory, recall and learning – a brief historical synopsis.

Attitudes and beliefs among scholars and researchers on the importance of imagery in memory and recall fluctuated over the twentieth century yet if we delve further back in time, the practice of “artificial memory” and its association with imagery and corporal movement appears to have been favoured over millennia.

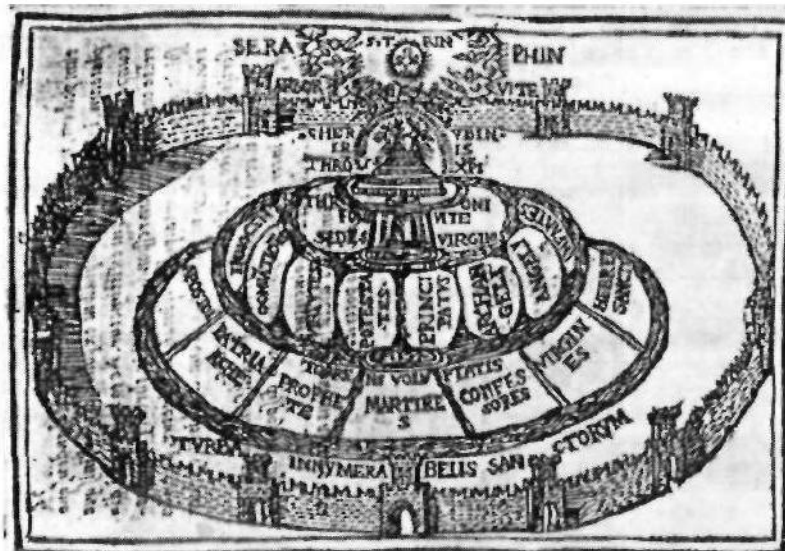


Figure 1. Paradise as artificial memory (Yates 1966:129) The importance of “*loci*” in memory from Cosmas Rosscllius, *Thesaurus Artificiose Memoriae*, Venice 1579.

In times of antiquity, the Roman philosopher and orator, Cicero, once said: “For what is the memory of things and words? What further is invention? Assuredly nothing can be apprehended even in God of greater value than this... Therefore the soul is, as I say, divine...” (Yates 1966:67). In classical times, there was much emphasis on the memory ability among renowned politicians, prominent orators and scholars, who, when delivering a speech were required to comment, argue and counterattack their listeners’ interjections. Knowledge at one’s fingertips, therefore, was seen as a great virtue (Wikipedia/memoria). This intense devotion to human memory qualities in classical history meant a reverence of memory skills and what they could achieve. There was a division between “natural memory” and “artificial memory”: “...engrafted in our minds, born simultaneously with thought. The artificial memory is a memory

strengthened or confirmed by training” (Yates 1966:5). It is significant to note how memory accomplishments in history have been passed on down through the ages. The following were noted by the Elder Pliny in his Natural History:

The Persian ruler Cyrus the Great (seventh century) knew all the names of the men in his army; the Roman general, Lucius Scipio ‘the names of all the Roman people’; Mithridates of Pontus (third century) knew the languages of all the twenty-two nationalities in his domains; the Greek philosopher, Charmadas (second century) learnt the contents of all the volumes in his huge library (Yates 1966:41).

Simonides, a sixth century BC Greek poet and philosopher, is held to have invented the precepts of the art of artificial memory. He was present at a splendid banquet of celebrities and when he left momentarily to attend to visitors the building collapsed and crushed to death all the other guests. Such was the mutilation of the bodies that no relative could recognise the remains. Simonides, however, was able to identify each and every guest by remembering where they had been sitting. From this experience came the concept of (*in locis illustribus*), the association of places with items to be memorised (*species rerum*). Therefore, “art of memory” has been attributed to Simonides of Ceos and his realisation that by making mental images of subjects within an ordered set of places “so that the order of the places will preserve the order of the things, and the images of the things will denote the things themselves” (Cicero, *De oratore*, in Yates 1966:2).

The most significant work on artificial memory dating back to classical times is the memory section of *Ad Herennium*. Yates informs us: “An immense weight of history presses on the memory section of *Ad Herennium*. It is drawing on Greek sources of memory teaching, probably in Greek treatises on rhetoric all of which are lost. [...] Its role as the transmitter of the classical art to the Middle Ages and the Renaissance is also of unique importance” (1966:5).



A picture of the “artificial memory” technique was explained by Quintilian’s *Institutio Oratorio* drawn from the *Ad Herennium*. It was clearly a method for orators so that they were able to deliver long speeches without *notae* and not forget the order they had planned to deliver their addresses. To use this mnemonic, Yates paraphrases Quintilian:

[...] a building is to be remembered, as spacious and varied a one as possible, the forecourt, the living room, bedrooms, and parlours, not omitting statues and other ornaments with which the rooms are decorated. The images by which the speech is to be remembered are then placed in imagination on the places which have been memorised in the building. This done, as soon as the memory of the facts requires to be revived, all these places are visited in turn and the various deposits demanded of their custodians (1966:3).

Then the *Ad Herennium* itself tells us: “For the places are very much like wax tablets or papyrus, the images like the letters, the arrangement and disposition of the images like the script, and the delivery is like the reading.” Then there is a detailed section regarding the nature of the images to be used in artificial memory.

Now nature herself teaches us what we should do. When we see in every day life things that are petty, ordinary, and banal, we generally fail to remember them, because the mind is not being stirred by anything novel or marvellous. But if we see or hear something exceptionally base, dishonourable, unusual, great, unbelievable, or ridiculous, that we are likely to remember for a long time [...] We ought, then, to set up images of a kind that can adhere longest in memory. And we shall do so if we establish similitudes as striking as possible... (*Ad Herennium* in Yates 1966:10).

Yates points out that the underlying principles of “artificial memory” require “impressions of almost incredible intensity”. This observation was taken from Cicero who claimed that “[...] the keenest of all our senses is the sense of sight, and that consequently perceptions received by the ears or by reflexion can be most easily retained if they are also conveyed to our minds by the mediation of the eyes” (*De oratore* in Yates 1966:4).

Interestingly, it was the thirteenth century Dominican monk, theologian and philosopher, St Thomas Aquinas, who extended the precepts of artificial memory to later centuries of scholars. The earliest clear reference we have to St Thomas and his

beliefs on artificial memory are laid down in a *summa* of similitudes for the use of preachers by Giovanni di San Gimignano (*Summa de exemplis ac similitudinibus rerum*) in the fourteenth century. He writes:

There are four things which help a man to remember well. The first is that he should dispose those things which he wishes to remember in a certain order. The second is that he should adhere to them with affection. The third is that he should reduce them to unusual similitudes. The fourth is that he should repeat them with frequent meditation (in Yates 1966:85).

Around the year 1306, the Florentine artist and architect, Giotto di Bondone, broke the medieval mould and moved into the Renaissance with his dramatic frescoes of virtues and vices. He drew “all his figures and their postures according to nature” (Wikipedia/Giotto). Yates strongly suggests that by the way the figures stand out from their backgrounds “owe[s] something to memory”. Yates tells us that the dramatic character of the images suggested by Cicero would have strongly appealed to the genius of Giotto: “the movement of Charity [...] the frenzied gestures of constancy”. The sense of depth in the frescoes, light and dark, their standing out from their “*loci*” reflect the “striking features of classical memories”. By following these rules Giotto believed he was following the classical rules for creating memorable images (Yates:66).



Figure 2. From left to right: Charity, Inconstancy, Wrath, Desperation.  
Frescoes by Giotto, Arena Capella, Padua.

Johannes Romberch, a Dominican monk from the sixteenth century published a treatise on memory in 1533. He states, with reference to Cicero and Thomas Aquinas, that “spiritual and simple intentions slip easily from the soul [unless they are linked with certain] corporeal similitudes” (Romberch in Yates 1966:74). Yates explains “This manuscript also shows plans of memory rooms, marked with five places, four in the corners and one in the centre, on which images are to be memorised” (1966:109). These places tended to be abbeys, their courtyards, libraries and chapels. The images, preferably in human form, said Romberch, should be striking and impacting and he makes considerable reference to Thomas on similitudes. However, if we fail to have many illustrations depicting these similitudes it is because of the belief that “we have to construct our own” (1966:117).



Figure 3. Human Image on a Memory Locus. From Romberch, *Congestorium artificiosae memoriae*, ed. of 1533 (Yates 1966:118).

One of the cases where artificial memory illustrations are shown in a work appears in this same treatise by Romberch. It depicts the use of “visual alphabets” and explains aspects of one of the liberal arts: grammar. We see the symbolic figure of *Gramatica* with her usual accompaniments of the ladder and scalpel. On or around her

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

are a series of letters, each of which refer to a visual alphabet, one of birds the other of household and craftsman's tools. Romberch explains that the image helps scholars remember the answer to the question regarding whether grammar is a particular or common science. The word "predication" is recalled by the bird held in her hand (P for *pica* – woodpecker). The term *applicatio*, by the *aquila* (eagle). *Continentia*, is shown spelt with four letters across her chest using the visual alphabet of tools. There are other symbols she holds from the alphabet reminding the student of other relevant concepts connected to this topic. Yates concludes that Romberch believed that these embellished images including letters from visual alphabets rather than ordinary writing were "undoubtedly being used as a memory image" (1966:120).



Figure 4. *Congestorium Artificiose Memorie* and example of a Visual Alphabet, ed. of Venice, 1533 in Yates 1966:112-113.

In 1658, Comenius published his *Orbis Sensualism Pictus*. This was the first illustrated children's language learning textbook or encyclopaedia with copperplate and woodcut prints of a contemporary account of the world from nature to professions, tools, institutions and astronomy. It also included a visual alphabet. Yates suggests it

was based on an artificial memory work by the Italian philosopher Campanella and his *City of the Sun* (*Citta del sole*) “that Utopia of astral magic [...] of the city on which the whole world of the creation and of man and his activities was represented in images dependent on the central causal images” (1966:377). This suggests the author’s knowledge of classical artificial memory. Comenius’s *Orbis Pictus* was used in Germany as a staple school textbook for over a hundred years. Interestingly, these illustrated books for learning which are so common in our present day appear to have origins (as do illustrated alphabet books) which reach back over the centuries as part of complex artificial memory systems where imagery played a major role.

On the one hand, Comenius saw his work as simply being more attractive visually: “[...] to entice witty children to it [...]. For it is apparent that children (even from their infancy almost) are delighted with Pictures” (1658:XV). On the other hand, he also makes references that reveal knowledge of the classical artificial memory teachings:

This same little book will serve to stir up the Attention [...] and even to be sharpened more and more [...] For the senses [...] doth not yet raise up itself to an abstracted contemplation of things evermore seek their own objects and if they be away, they grow dull [...] when their objects are present, they grow merry [...] (Comenius 1658:XV).

Also significantly, “the very looking upon the thing pictured suggesting the name of the thing” (1658:XVI). Comenius also encourages children to imitate the pictures by hand. This is supposedly a reference to drawing and to add colour to the then colourless engravings of the book.

Finally, there is an interesting reference in the preface from the translator and Latin teacher, Charles Hoole, of the same era: “To all judicious and industrial school-masters” (Hoole in Comenius 1658:XX). He states, “If we could make our words as legible to children as pictures are, their information therefrom would be quickened and

surer. But so we cannot do, though we must do what we can” (Hoole in Comenius 1658:XXVII).

The descriptions in this brief history on artificial memory appear relevant to the implementation of an artificial gesture code in the classroom for the purposes of the facilitating memory in an L2 classroom. The allusions to fixed *loci* and their contribution to memory by associations with “similitudes” could easily be paralleled with fixed (constant) artificial gestures and their connection to a word meaning. The reference to the importance of similitudes of movement and that they should be “striking and impacting” (such as the Giotto frescoes) seems to favour the idea of gesture as a memory reference. The final comments by Comenius and Hoole come tantalisingly close to approximating the possible role of such a gesture tool and what it could achieve in language teaching. To make “our words as legible to children as pictures are” is a significant phrase calling across the centuries for a solution to the difficulties of text to aid learners in recalling words. In modern times such memory techniques or very similar strategies would be explored once more but this time applying rigorous research and modern experimentation techniques.

### **2.3. Classical memory systems revisited.**

During the first part of the twentieth century, paradoxically considering the devotion to imagery in artificial memory across the ages, imagery lost its prominent role. In 1913, Watson, “the father of behaviourism”, rejected the importance of imagery; an idea taken not just from experimental evidence but also from philosophical beliefs (Paivio 1969:241). Watson assured us: “Imagery becomes a mental luxury (even if it really exists) without any functional significance whatever [...] I should throw out imagery altogether and attempt to show that practically all natural thought goes on in terms of sensori-motor processes in the larynx...” (Watson 1913:160). He suggested

that we only need to resort to “stimulus and response, in terms of habit formation, habit integrations and the like. [...] Those time-honored relics of philosophical speculation need trouble the student of behavior as little as they trouble the student of physics” (1913:160).

Other psychologists of the first half of the twentieth century adhered to this view that memory is aided by “implicit [verbal] associates as mediators of stimulus-response.” As words are objective and manageable, they are not compatible with images that are subjective and inferential (Paivio 1969:242).

This irreconcilable view regarding words and images as mediators in thought and memory eventually began to undergo a demise. In 1965, Deese made the point that implicit verbal processing is on a par with the processing of imagery and that the former is no less inferential than the latter (Deese 1965). As Paivio expresses it: “one’s verbal response could just as logically be mediated by a ‘mental picture’ as by ‘mental words’” (1969:242). The view of the importance of imagery as a possible mediator took on fresh impetus and was combined with criticism of the traditional behaviourist stance by psychologists such as Bower 1967, Bugelski, Kidd & Segman 1968, Smith and Noble 1965, Rohwer 1966, Wood 1967.

Paivio’s article explains the results of a number of experiments with images and memory. Most of this work centres on the relationship between combined images (paired associates) which bring about recall. In practice, one system Paivio quotes is the “one-bun, two-shoe, three-tree, four-door...” system (1969:244). The user relates an object, say “chair”, to the bun using “bizarre images” so that when “one” is evoked both “bun” and “chair” are recalled. In this way, objects can be remembered either in order or extracted from a list using the number/image as a stimulus or “conceptual peg”:

Number + stimulus image (“conceptual peg”) → response member

Indeed, we find ourselves confronted with similar memory system concepts of classical times:

*Locus* (eg. from a familiar building) + similitude → response member

Paivio wanted to discover to what point inferential imagery could operate in memory recall and at which juncture (if any) the user resorted to implicit verbal mediators. The underlying concept of Paivio's article is that concrete nouns are more likely to produce sensory images that serve as more effective mediators in associative learning. On the other hand, abstract nouns, it was reasoned would not provide such "solid" conceptual pegs as concrete nouns (Paivio 1969:244). Paivio carried out a series of experiments which indeed showed this assumption to be true. Despite this evidence, the question constantly nagged Paivio as to whether concreteness could also lead to verbal symbolic processes and that these verbal mediators are responsible in recall (1969:243). He concluded however, that "it is apparent that concreteness-imagery is a major dimension of word meaning – or at least noun meaning [...] this dimension is the most potent one yet identified among familiar words" (1969:247).

### *2.3.1. Research on memory, mnemonics and imagery.*

Further interesting work has been carried out by Chase and Ericsson (1981) who studied a skilled memory expert (referred to as SF in the paper). During a longitudinal experiment over two years, the subject managed to increase his ability to remember series of digits from seven to eighty – a feat never before equalled. By closely working with SF, the researchers learnt that he was applying a mnemonic system to facilitate the entire process of encoding, storage and retrieval (Chase and Ericsson 1981:149). He was creating "meaningful associations" of groups of numbers into semantic categories the subject was familiar with such as running times (SF was an accomplished long-distance runner). On first consideration, the system seems vague and one doubts the ability to



remember multiple random sets of numbers at one hearing relying on such an insubstantial system. However, SF was able to bring in, by familiarity with the subject of running and other numerically related topics such as ages and historic dates, numerable associations to facilitate the task (1981:165).

More relevant to the subject of this thesis, yet closely related to the above experiment, and also expounded in the article by Chase and Ericsson, are when such “meaningful associations” are applied particularly to imagery. The authors refer to Paivio and his work on “concreteness”, stating that the very same concepts were fundamental to SF’s mnemonic technique. However, with imagery, the concept is more easily analysed and explained. A comparison is made with these two statements.

“The cow kicked the ball.”

“Truth is good.”

The authors illustrate the first phrase and how it is easier to remember than the second by presenting a link-node structure to explain the “set of procedures in semantic memory [that are] activated” when somebody is presented with the “the cow kicked the ball” phrase (1981:161).

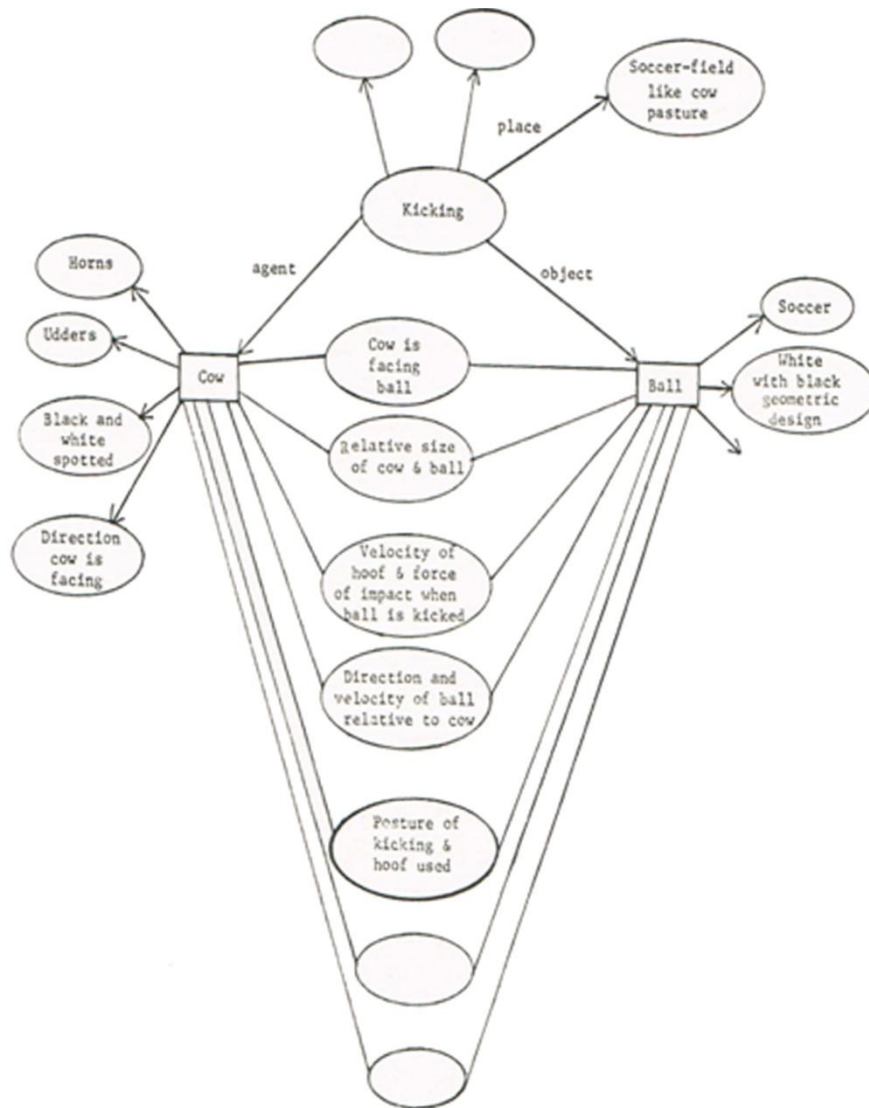


Figure 5. Schematic link node representation of a mnemonic encoding of “a cow kicked the ball” (Chase and Erikson 1981).

The figure is broken down into two parts: “interactive” and “free”. The former is where the subject produces a mental image with elements that are shared between the two parts *cow* and *ball* (ie. the cow kicking the ball, which hoof it uses, etc). The latter, where there have been elaborations on each of the separate parts (ie. the colour of the ball). Two lines of thought exist which place emphasis on the importance on one factor or the other. Bower (1972), for example, believes in the elaboration of the “free” elements that “are more memorable and distinct”, whereas Anderson and Reder (1979) and Bower (1972) opt for (or also agree that) the interactive features are important (Chase and Erikson 1981:163).

Conversely, the “truth is good” statement “is very impoverished”; it contains little more than a subject-predicate relation and, according to the authors, “perhaps a single semantic feature of ‘goodness’ to link the traces” (1981:162).

It is also important to note the experiments carried out to assess SF’s short-term memory. His mnemonic system was examined and it was discovered that he had to first place a number of digits in a series of short clusters for their encoding and that the maximum number SF could manage in one cluster was six digits. These results were on a par with other lesser “memory experts” and that “normal subjects” are capable of three or four digits in a cluster. Thus, during the 250 hours of training that SF underwent over the period, he was unable to increase the size of his short-term memory. And the authors conclude that “meaningful patterns in long-term memory underlie superior memory” and that memory experts require the development of coding and organized access skills (mnemonics) to improve long-term memory (1981:159).

### 2.3.2. Short-term memory related to language learning.

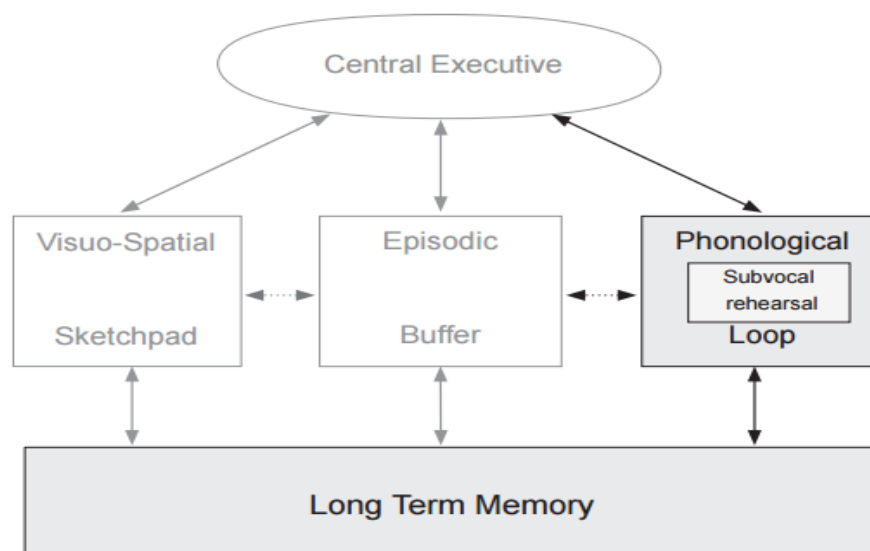


Figure 6. Working memory model by Baddeley (1974) in Messer (2010:31).

The above figure of working memory is one of the first to be described (Baddeley 1974) and since then, although other models differ in some areas, the

underlying concepts are similar. (See Miyake & Shah, 1999, for a comprehensive overview of working memory models). Messer (2010) investigated a community of bilingual Turkish-Dutch pre-school children in Holland with a view to explaining problems of acquisition by the ethnic group. Although the results of his experiments are not relevant here, Messer does attempt to delve into the mechanisms of L2 acquisition with respect to short-term memory. As a starting point she quotes work done with monolinguals (Baddeley 2002, Baddeley *et al.* 1998, Gathercole 2006, Gathercole & Baddeley 1993) stating that short-term memory “might be a crucial interface between language input and vocabulary acquisition in young children” (Messer 2010:18).

Short-term memory should be seen as part of a larger “working memory” model, where input is manipulated by the central executive and controls processes such as the phonological loop, a process that necessarily, either through vocalised or internalised phonological repetition, recycles the input to avoid loss. This can occur at around just two seconds after intake of the input if not applied to the loop. The repetition is known as phonological rehearsal and is the dynamic which extends the period of input in the short-term memory area and allows processing for long-term memory (Baddeley 2007; Gathercole & Alloway 2008). This process has been found active in children from about four to six years of age (Messer 2010:32). However, short-term processing is also dependent on long-term memory, whose previously stored input or lack of it dictates how efficiently the central executive handles new input. Furthermore, Majerus & Vander Linden (2003) found that word frequency is influential in word processing, storage and subsequent recall (word frequency affect).

The word-likeness effect suggests that familiar phonemically-sounding words are better manipulated than words bearing a weak resemblance to previously memorised language. These tests were done with non-words that either sounded similar to or very

different from words in a child's native language (Gathercole *et al.* 1999). We should be able to reason then that previously memorised words influence the ability to manipulate and recall new verbal input in this memory model. Older children must, theoretically, possess better retention than younger children when the input is verbal.

Hummel and French (2010) argued that, due to the above mechanisms required for verbal retention, L2 learners would find their working memory at a greater disadvantage compared to L1 learners and so to ease the workload, additional written language support should be provided with spoken language. Even a more alluring suggestion was put forward by Alloway *et al.* (2006), who preferred facilitating central executive control by accompanying the verbal together with visual tasks. Such visual and also possibly kinaesthetic tasks (Messser 2010:32) are handled at the "visuo-spatial sketchpad". The application, therefore, of imagery at the moment of verbal input into this working memory model could compensate for the lack of previous verbal information in long-term memory especially if the affirmation by Paivio is true that "one's verbal response could just as logically be mediated by a 'mental picture' as by 'mental words'" (Paivio 1969:242).

This psychological interpretation of memory in language learning coincides with much research done with visuals and kinaesthetics also referred to in this thesis (Asher, Allen, Lazaraton, Krashen *et al.*) and serves as further evidence of the importance of imagery and motoric processes in language retention and recall.

## **2.4. Manipulation and motoric imagery.**

### *2.4.1. Maria Montessori.*

Before embarking on the topic of motoric imagery in memory, it seems appropriate to firstly outline the life and work of Maria Montessori (1870-1952) and her notable influence on child education and pedagogy regarding manipulation for learning.

Montessori's work with children moved from disabilities of mental disorders such as "phrenasthenic" or "special needs" children to mainstream school learners. Her work was initially much inspired by 19<sup>th</sup> century physicians and educators such as Jean Marc Gaspard Itard (1774-1838, best-known for his work with the celebrated case of Victor of Aveyron, the "Wild Child") and Edouard Sequin (1812-1880, and his attempts to improve conditions for children with disabilities at New York's Randall's Island asylum).

Montessori's first practical implementation of her educational theories began at the *Casa dei Bambini*, educational centres in Rome for two to seven-year-olds. She re-designed the classroom furnishings to include child-sized tables and chairs that could be moved about by the children as well as practical materials distributed on accessible shelves and introduced manipulative activities such as flower arranging, hand washing, gymnastics, care of pets and cooking, clay modelling and practical housework chores. Montessori believed in the role of the teacher as observer and "director of children's innate psychological development" (Wikipedia, Maria Montessori).

Montessori experimented with teaching materials for reading and writing, which included cut-outs of letters textured with sandpaper, which were moveable, stuck onto boards by the children and generally manipulated in a strongly motoric fashion. This apparently led to children gaining a proficiency in reading and writing skills that was "far beyond what was expected of their age" (Wikipedia, Maria Montessori).

Despite successes in her “Montessori Method”, she also received criticism especially during her years in the United States (1911 – 1915) from the National Kindergarten Association who stated that her methods were “outdated, overly rigid, overly reliant on sense-training and left too little scope for imagination, social interaction and play” (Montessori, Wikipedia)<sup>2</sup>. Nevertheless, she received acclaim for her setting up of the *Association Montessori Internazionale* in 1929 and was sponsored by Sigmund Freud and the constructivist Jean Piaget.

Interestingly, in Montessori’s theory of the “four planes” in human development, she saw the second plane (children of six to twelve years old) as also in need of manipulative instruction techniques to best guarantee progress in learning; the hands-on use of physical materials and kinaesthetic interaction with the immediate environment. This age group corresponds to that of the experimental group (nine and ten-year-olds) included in this thesis as well as the range of present-day primary school ages when, the author suggests, the use of gestures in the English language classroom should be effective in facilitating L2 acquisition.

To a large extent, we could consider as modern support for the Montessori theories regarding the benefits of manipulation and learning the research carried out by Saltz and Dixon (1982) explored in the next section.

### *2.4.2. Motoric imagery in memory for words and sentences – recent research.*

Significant research was carried out by Saltz and Dixon (1982) which claimed to distinguish between the benefits of imagery and motoric imagery in memorising verbal input. The experiments involved both adults and young children (5 to 7 years old) and compared recall via various verbal, image and motoric stimuli both at the input and the

---

<sup>2</sup> This comment seems bizarrely contrary to what we know of the Montessori Method today. One reason for this reaction may have been the very rigid way she insisted on her method being followed, the precise instructions for the set up of schools and the tight control on teacher training, suggest the article. Nevertheless, after Montessori left the US in 1915 her movement fragmented and did not revive again until 1952 (Wikipedia, Maria Montessori).

output stages. The target items for memorisation were complete but simple sentences (subject – verb – object) which Saltz and Dixon claimed were retrievable from exposure to the verb only. They reasoned that a sentence such as:

“The doctor fell asleep on the chair”

could revolve around the focus on “fell asleep”, which in turn could serve as a retrieval cue of the subject and object parts of the sentence. Anyone asked to act out the sentence could do little more than sit down and let their head drop to their chest. Subjects were given a set of phrases which they were asked to repeat once and then act out. A second control group would just repeat the sentences twice with no enactment. Then at the output stage, half of the students from each group were asked to retrieve the full sentence from exposure to the verb only while the other half of each group were requested to act out the verb cue in order to recall the full sentences.

It was found that the subjects who enacted the phrases at the input stage scored significantly higher than when there was no enactment and interestingly, the adults produced higher scores than the children on this count. Enactment at output only failed to serve as an effective memory retrieval cue compared to retrieval via verbal cues. The case that the critical moment for enhanced recall effectiveness was at the moment of storage, rather than at retrieval has also been supported in several experiments by Klein and Saltz (1976) and by Postman *et al.* (1978).

In a second experiment, Saltz and Dixon presented the subjects with lists of nouns and verbs and demonstrated how they could be enacted by providing an example, ie. “monkey” was acted out by waving arched arms while the verb “to climb” was shown to be a hand over hand moving upwards action. Again, subjects were placed in groups where they either enacted the words or, as in the case of the control group, simply repeated the words twice. A further group was included which were asked at



input to visualize the word they heard without any motoric enactment. They were shown how to achieve this in a similar instruction as for the enactment subjects but via visualising rather than physically enacting. This second experiment was termed “free recall” as no retrieval cues were provided at the end but subjects were requested to attempt to memorise as many words as possible.

The results showed that whereas motoric imagery gave significant results for free recall, imagery alone failed to reach such significant levels. The difference between the children’s results and the adult’s was not appreciable in this experiment. Regarding recall of nouns and verbs, the latter scored slightly higher but without reaching significant levels.

Saltz and Dixon concluded that motoric imagery not only serves as an effective retrieval cue but, furthermore, it is instrumental in free recall where no cue was provided. Imagery, interestingly, (though powerful for paired associates experiments as cited above) was not so successful as an agent during free recall. As the data separating the results for noun versus verb recall was not significant, Saltz and Dixon reason that this suggests that “motoric enactment facilitates memory for the agent of an action as greatly as memory for the action itself” (1982:90). The researchers hypothesise here and refer to earlier experiments (Saltz and Donnenworth, 1981) that “motoric factors are an aspect of verbal meaning systems, and that memory for verbal materials should be facilitated by processing for these motoric components of meaning” (Saltz and Dixon 1982:91).

In the light of the above research, the authors proposed that allowing children to engage in pretend play would facilitate cognitive development due to the relationship between motoric imagery and verbal symbols. This, of course, supports claims made

much earlier by Montessori about the benefits of “manipulation” and this conjecture becomes reinforced by experimental research.

There are aspects of this research that encourage the consideration of a gesture code for language learning for children (and adults according to Saltz and Dixon’s research). Firstly, that by introducing gestures when presenting new vocabulary in the L2 to learners, we may help them to recall at least the meanings of those gestures at a later enactment (see Allen’s experiment, section 2.5.3.). Secondly, if “free recall” of lexis (recall without a prompt) is stimulated by motoric enactment at the input stage, this factor could be especially useful for second language learning and learner production of the L2 during early fluency communication.

## **2.5. Gestures and learning.**

### *2.5.1. Nonverbal communication and speech.*

“Language as an imagery-language dialectic. In this dialectic gestures provide the imagery, and the dialectic itself fuels speech and thought” (McNeil 2005:1). In his well-known work “Gesture and Thought”, McNeil enquires into this combination of natural gesture and its intrinsic relationship with verbal communication. Gesture is used in over ninety percent of discourse and throughout the world’s cultures and languages (McNeil 2005:1). However, the relationship is a dialectic, he states. Speech and gesture share meaning, reiterate and reinforce at times and are so essential for communication that there exists “a tight bond – to the point of fusion” (2005:2). Yet they are quintessentially different and contrasting in nature: gesture is “synthetic” without formal convention whereas speech is “analytic” and follows a rigorous “linear” format with “socially-constituted rules” (2005:2). McNeil’s work and also works by similar researchers such as Vigotsky and Wundt in the 1930’s focus on this theme of how the “dynamic” and “static” allow an interpretation of the nature of utterances.

It appears that natural gesture may be essential both in the comprehension of messages by the recipient as well as in the initiation of those messages by the interlocutor. Gesture may help to draw out the message in the latter by facilitating thought. This second feature is demonstrated in the much cited example of when we talk on the telephone, we still tend to gesture, or how two blind people will use gesture in conversation despite being aware of the other's inability to perceive those gestures. Researchers such as Hadar, Dar, and Teitelman (2001); Krauss, Chen, and Gottesman (2000) have forwarded "speech-auxiliary theories" states Gullberg 2006:106. She also suggests that gestures help the interlocutor to retrieve lexis from the mind or, according to Alibali *et al.* (2000) and Freedman (1977), gestures provide assistance in representing the content of what is said. These theories contrast with "Gesture-speech partnership theories", where gestures form "an integral part of speech" (Gullberg 2006:106). This theory evokes the alluring assumption that gestures share a similar "cognitive origin" with speech put forward by Kita and Özyürek (2003); McNeill (1992, 2005) or that the intention to produce an utterance stimulates two "modalities" of speech and gesture (De Ruiter 2000; Kendon 2004).

In addition, there have been circumstances where gestures have been learnt and transferred from one culture to another. Gullberg has cited Efron's study of immigrants in New York (Efron 1941, 1972) which, though not a direct study of language acquisition, concluded that "gestural repertoires are not innate but culturally transmitted and learned". Non-natives knew and understood fewer gestures than native children and therefore gestures are "cultural artefacts that need to be learned" (Gullberg 2006:109). Almost identical results were obtained for other language pairs and settings (Safadi and Valentine 1988; Schneller 1988; Wolfgang and Wolofsky 1991).

A final point to emphasize is that the underlying implication in McNeil's work regarding natural gesture shows, at least, that it is a means that humans use to communicate and develop thought during verbal communication (Gullberg 2006:107). It is in no way a redundant, nervous habit devoid of communicative function. "Gesture is an integral component of language in this conception, not merely an accompaniment or ornament" (McNeil 2005:1). Furthermore, rather than just an accompaniment to utterance, natural gesture appears to have qualities to stimulate recall and retrieve lexis. Both these qualities are drawn upon during the implementation of GW as a language learning tool. If natural gesture is already, then, an innate communicating trait in humans, its conversion to an artificial means or tool for message conveyance should not prove strange or alien to the students adopting gestures for foreign language learning in the classroom.

#### *2.5.2. Nonverbal communication research in L2 classrooms.*

Gullberg (2006) puts forward the suggestion that the acquisition of gestures could be studied in the SLA classroom and refers to many others who have indicated the importance of learning target-language gestures: Al-shabbi 1993, Antes 1996, Beattie 1977, Brault 1963, Brunet 1985, Calbris and Montredon 1986, Green 1968, Pennycook 1985, Polo-Figuera 1987, Raffler-Engel 1980a, 1980b; Saitz 1966, Wylie 1985. However, Gullberg says: "[...] remarkably few attempts have been made to empirically study the acquisition of gestures in L2" (2006:109).

Other interesting research analysed by Gullberg (2006) has been the work by Hauge (2000) who examined how teachers of English to immigrants in the UK employed gestures in the L2 classroom to illustrate concepts such as present continuous (both hands moving in a circular motion) and these had become "conventionalised" by

teacher use. The findings showed that some teacher gestures conflicted with natural L1 student gestures and therefore led to confusion among the learners.

Another work (Jungheim 1991) attempted to detect how well Japanese students of English learnt naturally occurring gestures in English. It was found that the group under test, which had received an explanation of how gesture worked, became more adept at recognising gestures than the group who had to learn them through exposure only (Gullberg 2006:111).

The relevance of these studies is significant for the adaptation of GW in the classroom. These studies have shown that despite the natural and even subconscious usage of gestures in one's own language, the same spontaneity to use foreign gestures cannot occur across languages. However, learners have responded to explicit teaching of gestures used in other languages and cultures and learned to recognise and use them alongside the L2 language they are developing. Such a scenario appears to suggest there could be fertile and receptive ground for an artificial gesture language such as GW.

The use of gestures to compensate for expressing difficult or awkward concepts has been pointed out previously: "it is quite clear that L2 learners can and do use gesture to compensate for linguistic problems" (Gullberg 2006:111). This phenomenon occurs not just in SL classrooms but across many disciplines and situations. It has also been shown that learners of a second language will gesture more than when speaking their own tongue: Hadar *et al.* 2001; Marcos 1979; Nobe 2001. Furthermore, Gullberg (1998), observed in a study of what she termed "communicative strategies" that students used these compensatory gestures not only for expressing difficult lexis but also for grammatical complexities. Indeed, gestures may help ease "cognitive load" as has been suggested by Goldin-Meadow *et al.* (2001), Goldin-Meadow (2003).

McCafferty (2002) examined the interactional effect of learners' gestures, and showed that gesture actually facilitated interaction between native and non-natives. Gestures were used to prolong the conversation in progress and indicate that the speakers had not yet finished their turn. Gestures assist in maintaining meaning during the complexities of teacher to student or student to student communication as Gullberg states clearly: "the troublesome interaction that results from accumulated difficulties and non-fluency can also be managed gesturally" (2006:112). Swain (2000) had also suggested that gestures may be vital for extending spoken discourse and thereby served as an aid to L2 language acquisition.

With regard to gesture, meaning and communicative compensation, Gullberg had this to say (included here as a full quote as a substantial proportion of the GW technique will closely address these issues).

In general, insofar as the compensatory nature of L2 gesture is considered, it is mostly ill- or un-defined. Issues that need to be clarified include the assumed relationship between speech and gesture, whether compensation and facilitation is assumed to be mainly for the native interlocutor, for learners themselves or indeed for both, and at what linguistic level compensation is assumed to take place – e.g., at the level of formulating words, at the conceptual level, at the interactional level, etc. All of these issues are important theoretical concerns in the field of gesture study, but are equally important – and familiar – to the field of SLA (2006:112).

Comments on the points raised in this quote will be given in the Results section 5.8.8. of this thesis.

### *2.5.3. Gestures for input and recall.*

Studies have gone further than analysing the spontaneous use of natural gesture in the L2 classroom and have advocated explicit input of gesture to facilitate L2 language learning. For example, in studies by Beattie (1977), Kellerman (1992), Allen (1995), Harris (2003), Lazaraton (2004), it has been suggested that gestures should be brought into the classroom to help with listening comprehension. Sueyoshi and Hardison (2005) found that using gestures improved student comprehension of oral L2

input in the classroom. Others have concluded that using gestures to input information helps students to enhance learning in general: Goldin-Meadow *et. al* (1999) in mathematics and Roth (2003) in science. Krashen makes references to the importance of consciously introduced gestures in L2 classrooms (1981, 1982) while Lazaraton (2004) suggested that gestures may help foreign language vocabulary retention.

Suggestions have been put forward to explain why retention may be higher with gesture. Such suggestions are that gestures may help to capture attention, provide salience to redundancy or by “grounding speech in the concrete, physical experience”. (Hostetter and Alibali 2004 in Gullberg 2006:115). Allen’s article (1995) refers to Terrell (1986) and his concept of “binding”, where new lexis seen written or heard also requires a “mental representation”, two “cognitive steps” to internalize the language. A process of “mapping” is required; “the ability to access meaning-form connections held in memory, to process them automatically, and to articulate them in real-life discourse” (Garret 1991:79 in Allen 1995:521). A greater depth of processing information can be achieved by elaborating the initial presentation of the information to be taught with other extralinguistic cues such as pictures and demonstrations, also gestures and mime are mentioned by Omaggio (1986), Wong-Fillmore (1985), and Long (1989).

The same article by Allen (1995) also mentions the work by Tulving and Thomson (1973) and their “encoding specificity principle”. This states that the same mental representation with which information is presented can also be used to retrieve the same from learners. A quote states: “contextual conditions are part of the encoding environment and therefore act as effective retrieval cues” (Tulving and Thomson 1973:41 in Allen 1995:522). Allen seized on this principle to develop an experiment involving L2 French language learning and gesture stating that Tulving and Thomson opined that the greater the depth of processing the better the retention: “Thus, the

present study hypothesised that students who were provided with emblematic gestures at the time of presentation would recall more French expressions than students who were not provided with the gestures". Allen also states that despite the "abundance" of literature on the subject of using gestures to facilitate learning in L2 training, "no empirical studies" had been carried out to offer evidence of a relationship between enhanced foreign language learning and gesture input (1995:522). However, the application of Tulving and Thomson's principle had been applied experimentally in other fields. Woodall and Folger (1981, 1985) carried out tests and found that when a gesture is provided together with a sentence, the same gesture can be used to retrieve that sentence and that retention was higher among participants who received gestures compared to those who did not. It was also found that the type of gesture mattered; those with semantic meaning proved more useful to retention and recall of sentences than those that were more abstract.

The monolingual experiment by Riseborough (1981) introduced a list of verbs together with physiographic<sup>3</sup> gestures and found that one group of participators were able to recall more verbs via eliciting with gestures than the group who received either no gestures or "vague gestures" (Allen 1995:522). This is an interesting reference to "vague" gestures and coincides with Woodall and Folger's findings regarding "abstract gestures". Many natural gestures, from the receiver's point of view, are vague or non-emblematic (abstract in appearance) by nature. This research therefore suggests that for the purposes of input and recall of L2 lexis, an artificial iconic gesture code would be preferable if we are to take heed of the above findings.

In her experiment, Allen (1995) intentionally introduced and taught gestures to accompany input of French phrases with a group of beginner learners and claimed that

---

<sup>3</sup> According to Allen, "physiographic" gestures are either iconographic showing size and shape or kineographic gestures showing movement and correspond to her "emblematic" gestures (Allen 1995:527).



retention of the French phrases was higher in the experimental group students, who were enacting the gestures, compared to a control group who simply had the phrases repeated to them by the instructor. However, to a certain extent, Allen's experiment proves disappointing. She detached the learner from contact with pronunciation and utterance of the French phrases. Students were not required to say the utterances in French at all - only to listen to them. One would assume such an omission reduces the bonding between phrase assimilation and retention. Allen justifies this by apparently referring to James Asher's research (1969), which recommends a "silent period" for beginner students and Allen's students were "first-semester" therefore beginners. If she had chosen a group a little more advanced (A2/B1) level, perhaps uttering the phrases could have been justified and therefore a link between spoken French and the gesture influence evaluated. In fact, as is made clear in the article: "The English meaning, not the French words, is most probably represented in memory for them" (Allen 1995:524). Furthermore, due to the low level in French, Allen then states that the students did not yet have the written skills in French orthography to represent the phrases in written form so allows them to write the English equivalent. This explains the results that a third "comparison group" (not the control "no gesture" group) which were provided with the gestures only on the final eliciting test, gave similar results as the experimental group who received gestures throughout.

These omissions mean that the relationship between SLlearning and gesture for improved recall was not wholly addressed, or only indirectly. One questions the accuracy of the study as offering advice to educators: "the elaboration of expressions with contextual emblematic gestures significantly affected students' recall of French expressions" (1995:527).

The argument to date regarding the Propositional Representation Theory appears to reduce the benefits available to the SL teacher interested in employing gesture to enhance L2 acquisition in the classroom. Gestures can only provide educators with a tool to assist learners in recall of “mental representations”. This suggests that gesture may be more suited to the understanding and recall of maths concepts (Goldin-Meadow, Kim and Singer 1999) or science problems and rules (Roth 2003). Anderson’s Propositional Representation Theory suggests that the exact words uttered at input are not held in memory. Allen (1995), in her experiment, gives one the impression that she is going further afield than Anderson by enabling learners to recall literal elements from the L2. However, in finally excluding the need for the students to utter or even write the second language, she firmly places her study in the same category as Anderson’s theory. Therefore, from this evidence, as a tool for teaching exact words and phrases, gesture may not provide the appropriate mental connections learners require for recall of phonetic units: words and expressions.

## **2.6. Four significant SL teaching approaches: TPR, Co-grammatical Gestures, the Silent Way and AIM.**

### *2.6.1. Right brain – left brain and Total Physical Response.*

As far back as 1969, James Asher experimented with the use of bodily or motoric movement and foreign language acquisition – a technique he was to call Total Physical Response (TPR). This teaching tool, as he prefers to call it (2009) rather than a method, involves an instructor who calls out imperatives in the L2 which the student enacts firstly with the instructor and afterwards simply listens to and carries out. Later, after a recommended “silent period” students begin to use the language themselves in its spoken and written form.



Figure 7. “Say ‘hello’ to your Mum!”. Scene from a TPR class (YouTube TPR children).

In 1969 and the early seventies, Asher was involved in a series of experiments comparing his students learning Japanese, Spanish and German with control groups following non-TPR approaches such as the Audiolingual Method, in vogue at the time. The results published claimed evidence of the effectiveness of TPR in SL teaching. Asher purported that students possessed better short and long-term retention of the L2, a better understanding of novel utterances, and an ability to transfer the language retained through listening to the writing and reading skills (Ellis 2008). Krashen was to praise Asher saying "the TPR results are clear and consistent, and the magnitude of superiority of TPR is quite striking" (1982:156). Ellis outlined some reservations with regards to these findings stating that Asher as the researcher had a “vested interest” in the results and that only beginner groups were tested and for short periods and that it was not clear whether this technique would be effective in the long-term or for more advanced students. However, Ellis goes on to conclude: “Nevertheless, the TPR studies stand out in comparative method studies as providing evidence that support the superiority of a particular method” (Ellis 2008:849).

One receives greater insight into how TPR works by Asher’s own quote.

The approach simulates, at a speeded up pace, the stages an infant experiences in acquiring its first language. For example, before the infant utters anything more intelligible than 'Mommy' or 'Daddy', that child has experienced hundreds of hours in which language was imprinted upon body movements. The infant may only be able to decode the language through the medium of body movements such as looking, laughing, pointing, reaching, touching and eating (2009:17).

Asher's handbook on TPR quotes much from research in left and right brain hemispheres and their influence in learning and processing information. Particularly, research fundamentals by Nobel prize winners, Roger Sperry and Robert Ornstein and their work on split-brain research on cats and the discovery of a split left-right brain connected by the *Corpus Callosum*. The implications of this find were ground-breaking. It was shown that the two halves of the human brain tend to have different functions (Rose 1985:37). Later research indicated that the left brain deals primarily with language (the speech areas, Broca's and Wernicke's areas), logical thought, sequences, analysis and what we might call "academic pursuits". The right brain particularly deals with music, visual impressions, pictures, spatial patterns, colour recognition, conceptual thought and the interpretation of nonverbal signals and kinaesthetic information. The left brain rationalises and the right takes in several bits of information at a glance and processes them into one overall thought (Rose 1985:14).

By experimenting with patients who had lost the use of their *Corpus Callosum*, some researchers discovered that patients were limited in brain functioning when visual information was fed to one or the other visual fields. An example would be by covering the left eye of a *Corpus Callosum* damaged patient so stimulating the right brain only and showing him/her a ball on a screen. The patient is unable to say what he has seen or claims he has seen nothing at all; the speech centre being located in the left brain. On the other hand, if the same patient is asked to take out the ball from a bag of assorted objects by touch only, he will be able to do so yet be unable to state what he did (Rose 1985:12). The speech centre in the left brain has registered nothing.

By directing "academic" language instruction to L2 language learners, the left brain comes primarily into play. Therefore, repetitive language tasks, translation, writing, grammar exercises will mean learners fail to retain the new information well or

for sustained periods. To illustrate this language L2 learning process for adults, Asher frequently refers to the processes that take place in an infant's brain: "[...] through the child's development the left [brain] shadows the right. The child's understanding, as demonstrated in body expression, is far in advance of speaking" (Asher 2009 part 2:24).

*2.6.2. Comparing kinaesthetic input: TPR and the Propositional Representation Theory model.*

TPR advocates the carrying out of certain physical operations from an oral full-sentence prompt uttered by the trainer – usually in the imperative.

“Put the book on the table.”

The above operation involves the learner holding a book and then moving across to the table and placing the book on it. The kinaesthetic representation of the physical operation is purely a functional action that carries it out. There is no rule for the physical performance other than realizing the intended operation the utterance describes. TPR makes no attempt to produce a syntactical representation of the linguistic elements mentioned in the operations. Instead, the order of the actions follows the sequence of the operations.

“Put the book on the table and then go and close the door.”

(action 1 + action 2)

On the other hand, some semantic element in the utterance may change the order that the learner should carry out the actions, perhaps reversing the sequence:

“Put the book on the table after you have closed the door.”

(action 2 + action 1)

In general, during TPR courses, any one action performs just one operation, which will often be a complete independent clause. There exists no further synthesis than this.

In Allen's experiment described above (1995), short "emblematic" hand gestures were used to represent French utterances of idiomatic phrases. Two examples were (Allen 1995:529) the following.

*"On l'a échappé belle."* (That was a close call.)

(Gesture: wipe forehead with back of hand.)

*"Motus et bouche cousue."* (You promise not to say anything.)

(Gesture: thumb and index pressed together draw line across mouth.)

In a similar way to TPR, single gestures (actions) represent full independent clauses. The outstanding difference being that rather than reflecting the semantics of the performance, the gestures are only related consequentially or incidentally; wiping the back of one's hand over one's forehead may be an action to show how one feels after "a close call"; the thumb and index drawn across the mouth shows a gesture related to asking someone to be quiet.

The significance of the above observations is that Allen's gestures (taken from naturally existing French gestures) were only useful in the experiment for applying Anderson's Propositional Representation Theory. One gesture, one idea. Allen doubted the gestures' ability to help learners retain the French words but only the meaning of the idiomatic phrase. On the other hand, Asher's TPR involves physical actions closely following the semantics of the utterance and thereby the kinaesthetics interact more exactly with the actual words; in other words, a componential or compositional representation of the utterance.

Consider again the utterance to the TPR learners of:

"put the book on the table."

The action of "putting" and the visual objects of "book" and "table" as well as the preposition of place "on" (experienced visually and kinaesthetically by the

learner/action performer) must provide the student with powerful audio to kinaesthetic connections. Allen's gestures, however, weakly engage with the actual words of the utterance. Wiping one's forehead with the back of the hand makes no specific reference to the lexical elements of the French phrase "a close call". Furthermore, the gesture, as many natural gestures out of context, is ambiguous and could signify "it's hot in here". The bond between Allen's gestures and the uttered phrase is a symbolic and holistically semantic one. Gesture and phrase presented together create a link not between the words and the gesture but the overall meaning and the gesture.

We can conclude that for language acquisition purposes, Allen's gestures could only play a minor role in the SL classroom for L2 input. Although they serve to fuse ideas to kinaesthetic representation, they fail to represent specific actions, are necessarily limited in number, suffer from ambiguous interpretation and are unsuccessful at representing the lexical elements present in the utterance. Conversely, TPR can closely denote the meanings of specific words (verbs, objects and prepositions of place) but struggles to represent through action, abstracts such as idiomatic phrases devoid of kinaesthetic content related to their lexical parts.

Interestingly, it can be said that Asher's TPR bypasses or even contradicts Anderson and the theory of propositional representation. In fact, Asher states that experiments have shown that words learnt immediately or quickly after first input are held longer in memory than words that needed frequent repetition or analysis. He termed this The First Trial Learning Hypothesis (1977:1-7). Asher talks of frequent perfect recall during the initial classes (1977:1-20). The relevance of this hypothesis to TPR is that: "[...] if the target to be internalised was structured so that the incoming raw data was validated by the high velocity information processing system, then the sensory input would be converted into information on the first exposure and placed in long-term

storage for retrieval anytime in the future” (1977:1-18). This “structure” had to be a “cause-effect relationship” hypothesised Asher; the foreign word transferred directly to the mind by motoric actions.

Asher is emphatic that TPR is suitable for learners of all ages. His tests include comparisons between different age groups: very young children, teenagers and adults. He concludes, “older children outperform younger children. Fourteen year-olds had better retention than ten year olds, and ten-year-olds were somewhat better than eight year-olds” (2009:9). Regarding adults, he states: “it should be pointed out that although adults will outperform children in understanding a new language when everyone learns in the context of play, which is the essence of TPR, children younger than puberty have a "biological" advantage in acquiring a native pronunciation of the new language (Asher and Garcia 1969).

### 2.6.3. *The co-grammatical gestures of Lapaire.*

Lapaire’s work on gestures is based on explorations of an epistemic view of language. He quotes much from Jousse (1974) and the discovery of deeper meanings of language structures through guided intervention between instructor and student (in this case nine to eleven-year-olds). This intervention is termed a “co-verbal gesture replay”, where gestures “not only accompany but co-perform with certain operations of a grammatical nature” (Lapaire 2013:58).

Lapaire showed a video to a group of nine-year-olds and of a short conversation where one man interviews a rap singer and asks “You might be doing a film clip maybe?” During this utterance, the interviewer folds his arms, holding the finger tips together and pointing his fingers towards the face of the rap singer. The hands sway from one side to the other. Lapaire believes this movement exteriorises one of the “*balancements gestuels*” [gestural balancing] or “*symbolisms du mouvement alternés*”



[symbols of alternating movement] as identified by Calbris and Porcher (1989:106-108). This mental “wavering” (Lapaire 2013:63) depicts a “*spectacle grammatical*” [grammar show] that all speakers produce subconsciously and that a spectator can observe and even re-enact.

This grammatical reference was introduced by Lapaire as he interprets such gestures as showing certain modalities present in the English language such as “might” or “maybe”. The positioning of the body during the execution of a gesture such as described above, Lapaire calls a “modal stance”.

The children are first asked to mimic the gesture they see in the video together with the slight swaying from side to side in what he calls a “replay”. The teacher also demonstrates the movement with bodily variations depending on the intonation employed, proof, says Lapaire, that we are experiencing a true “*gestualité coverbale*” [co-verbal gesture] whose energy is “reflected in the spoken word” (2013:65). The experiment continues with the children drawing the postures and using a pencil illustrating the direction and movement of the hands and body.

Lapaire concludes that the rationale behind this activity is to explore a “rhythm-mimic replay” (2013:70) where co-grammatical gesture allows the learner/player to absorb the meaning of grammar without undergoing a “conscious intellectual study”; an understanding both “corporal and mental, concrete and abstract of the epistemic modality” (2013:71).



Gesture for “can” (permission and ability) *Ça marche* [you can go]



Gesture for “can’t” (permission and ability) *Ça bloque* [you can’t pass]

Figures 8 and 9. Lapaire’s gestures expressing grammar modals: “can” and “can’t”. (Lapaire 2006 DVD and YouTube source.)

Lapaire has taken this approach forward to develop other gestures and motoric movement which explain the workings of English grammar concepts for non-native students. He calls the corporal interaction clips “KineGrams” and has published a DVD to accompany the book (2006). Lapaire believes these KineGrams are useful when re-enacted by the students or just shown to them for comment and can serve in comprehending L2 English grammar concepts better while avoiding translation and the lengthy verbiage of explicit instruction. Gesture alone without spoken comment is visually explicative (Lapaire 2006).

#### 2.6.4. *The Silent Way* (Caleb Gattegno)

“Tell me and I forget, teach me and I remember, involve me and I learn.” This quote from Benjamin Franklin is the underlying adage of Caleb Gattegno’s Silent Way technique for SL teaching. The publication of the same name appeared in 1963 and offered an alternative to the then much used Audiolingual Method. The main tenet of Gattegno’s philosophy to foreign language teaching was that the teacher should be as

unobtrusive as possible by limiting verbal input and the learners encouraged to produce oral L2: "Teaching should be subordinate to learning" (Stevick 2007:1). There is an emphasis on learner responsibility during study and resorting to their personal resources to achieve this. This premise is achieved by the teacher being involved as little as possible in telling learners what to say and minimising overt correction of errors. Emphasis is placed on the learner discovering and being creative with language rather than imposing stress on memorisation and repetition. Comprehension and assimilation of grammar is assumed to take place by the student being involved in taking his/her own decisions about language based on observation and participation. Gattegno referred to an "inner criteria" which allowed these processes to take place in the mind. In these respects, the Silent Way encapsulates beliefs in stark contradiction to the Audiolingual Method.

In the Silent Way, speech and action are intrinsically combined. The teacher typically uses Cuisenaire rods (also invented by Gattegno in 1954 for his maths classes), which are arranged and moved about on the table by the teacher (and occasionally by the students) and provide the basis of the L2 material to be produced orally. Meaning and action are directly related and interact one with the other. There exists, therefore, parallels between the Silent Way and TPR and this has also been pointed out by Stevick: "At all times speech is accompanied by appropriate action (generally consisting of manipulation of the rods), and action is accompanied by appropriate speech. The method thus has one of the characteristics which the Total Physical Response experiments showed to be so desirable for establishing durable comprehension" (2007:2).

Further similarities can be found between the Silent Way and TPR in how Asher takes into account the practicalities of classroom management and the presumed

difficulty at times to engage learners in action and moving around the classroom. Aware of practical space limitations, Asher designed complementary activities which allowed learners to confine actions to their chairs. He devised the idea of TPR student kits. Miniature cardboard models for each student, for example, a miniature kitchen with its various parts that learners can manipulate without moving from where they are sitting (Asher 2009:48). The manipulative nature is now thus comparable to the Cuisenaire rods of the Silent Way or rather, in the latter approach, learners at least watch such manipulation.

This same consideration regarding the possible impracticalities of having children freely moving around a classroom is significant. Gestures can be performed seated so allowing the teacher to contain possible scenarios of control loss due to energetic and over-eager young learners yet maintain the environment of physical interaction with oral language.

As the corrective influence of the teacher is almost absent or inconspicuous during a Silent Way class (though the teacher may use other students to correct their peers) and the meaning to oral interaction with the language is immediate, it follows that errors in production will be frequent. Again, this is contrary to the philosophy behind the Audiolingual Method which proposed “accuracy before fluency” and supported “dogmas [...] comparatively unenlightened [...] Gattegno’s own view on production was ‘perfection at once’ is the great imperfection of most teaching” (Stevick 2007:3).

Stevick (2007) also points out in his comment on Gattegno’s second edition on the Silent Way (1972), a juxtaposition between silence, comprehension and memory (not to be confused with memorisation – the conscious act).

New auditory material is retained for about twenty seconds in a state in which it is available for inspection and even rehearsing, something like a loop of tape, or like a small worktable on which bits of new and old material may be assembled, sorted and rearranged (Stevick 2007:3).

Silence after auditory input then compels and provides learners with maximum opportunity to process or internally rehearse new language. Stevick compares this scenario with “most of our methods”, where a “barrage of utterances from teacher and fellow students” produce significant interference in this process (2007:3).

It is interesting to note that despite the absence of explicit instruction during Silent Way classes with reference to grammar and oral production, importance is given to pronunciation. Gattegno designed his own coloured word charts showing the structural vocabulary of the language and the “Fidel”, showing in colour the various English phonemes related to coloured rectangles for reference at any given moment during the class via a pointer.

Perhaps paradoxically, considering the name of the method and contrary to the beliefs of TPR, there is no Silent Period in Silent Way language courses. Such a premise, also vigorously supported by Krashen (1982), insists on the requirement for assimilation of language before oral production. On the other hand, the Silent Way appears not to be insistent and demanding on learner’s taking charge of their own fluency during early stages of learning; production, although allowing creativity is controlled by the situations dictated by the Cuisenaire rods on the table.



Figure 10. Typical class scene from the Silent Way with Donald E. Cherry. (YouTube video still: YouTube TPR adults.)

2.6.5. *The Accelerative Integrated Method (AIM).*

The Accelerative Integrated Method (AIM), based on the use of hand gestures, was developed by Wendy Maxwell during the mid nineteen-nineties. It was a response to the poor national results in L2 development obtained in co-educational schools among English-speaking Canadian children learning French. Maxwell was “frustrated with the current core French programmes. She found students rarely achieved fluency even after years of instruction” (2002:1 *The National Post*. Internet source). However, after implementing AIM in her school, Maxwell found that “a large percentage of my students are indeed reaching relatively high levels of fluency within the limited hours of a core French program” (Maxwell 2001:1). Maxwell’s concern for a methodology that accelerated language acquisition was important as the hours of instruction allotted to the French core programme meant that time was a prohibitive factor to learning: “There are many other elements that need to be present in a program that effectively help students to acquire a language within a limited number of instructional hours” (2001:13). “[...] my main interest during the first one to two hundred hours of instruction is to accelerate fluency” (2001:52).

The method involves various didactic facets, one of which is the use of a gesture hand sign code adapted from American Sign Language for presenting and eliciting spoken French in the classroom. Communication and comprehension is maintained to an extent that the written word is not introduced until about “two months” after course initiation (2002 *The Brampton Guardian*. Internet source.). The teacher in question here explained “you don’t start writing words that have zero meaning for you”. Maxwell found that the use of gestures provided a context of “holistic” language in the classroom. Other facets of AIM are the use of songs, drama and stories where students can put the language into practice in a communicative way. According to the newspaper

*Le Soleil* (2002) AIM is being experimented with in some 3,500 schools across Canada as well as school in the US, Australia and Europe.



Figure 11. Teachers training to use gestures during an AIM training programme (*Le Soleil* 2002).

In Maxwell's own study she compares fluency levels between students taken from an AIM course and another group following the Ontario Ministry of Education and Training core French programme. Maxwell criticised elements of the core French programme such as the insistence on instruction including the teaching of "noun-centred thematic chunks". Instead Maxwell preferred "high-frequency lexical elements" especially an emphasis on the use of verbs and where possible and feasible a more accessible L2 she called pared-down language (PDL). Furthermore that "flashy four-coloured images" accompanied by very little text in the coursebooks provided students with very little language for communicative interaction. Instead Maxwell wished to achieve an abundance of content-rich and high frequency language and provide a comprehensible input language context in the school classroom (Maxwell 2001:1-2).

Maxwell admits that the nature of her research was of an "exploratory nature" and that "there was no strict comparison between the experimental and comparison groups, because no pre-tests were given." Furthermore she suggests that the two groups of nine students involved in the experiment were "too small to be of statistical

consequence”. Notwithstanding, she believed that “certain inferences” could be made on the subject of “relative levels of fluency” (Maxwell 2001:20).

The students were taken from two groups of nine; one group that had followed an AIM course and a comparison group from a co-educational school of similar age, number of instruction hours (about two-hundred), socioeconomic group and genders. Three performance levels were taken from lowest, mid-range and highest achievers (according to teacher criteria) from both groups. The comparative test comprised a number of scaffolded oral interview questions and an analysis of student answers based on the number of correct responses and the number of correct French words used excluding *oui*, *no* and proper names. A further area analysed was a comparison of the two groups’ abilities in story-telling in French. Results showed positive results for the AIM group regarding L2 knowledge and language communicative skills in all tests and especially in story-telling where they: “far exceeded those of the comparison group”. An average number of words used by the comparison group of 29.66 compared to an average of 534 words by the AIM group. The low-level group students from the control plus three other students were not able to produce any L2 at all (2001:27).



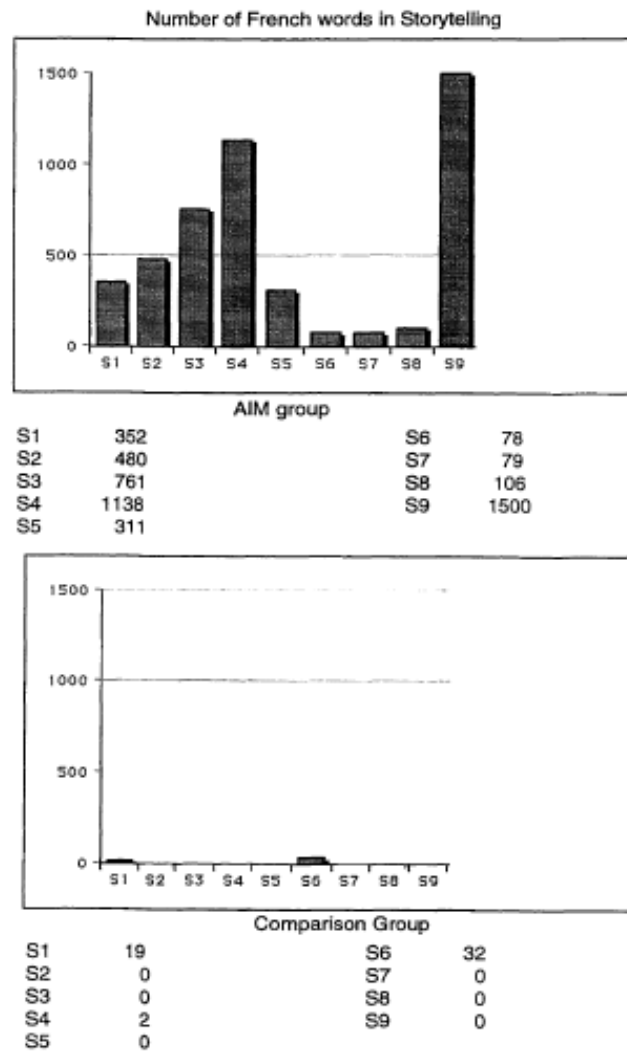


Figure 12. Results table from Maxwell's research (2001:33).

Maxwell concluded that none of the students from the comparison group were able to produce answers at length in response to the interview of open questions and neither tell stories extensively while the AIM group performed significantly better in these fluency tasks as AIM “students have the option to choose to sustain a lengthy or limited discourse” (2001:35-36).

During the collating of the data from the two groups, Maxwell fails to determine to what extent gesture instruction, which is actually termed separately as the “Gesture Approach” is responsible for the results published. The AIM programme is, in fact, an “integrated method” where other didactic practices for French teaching such as “drama, music, songs and story-telling” (*Brampton Guardian* 2002) are included as language

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

activities. The students involved in the data comparison were taken from an AIM course so the assumption is that a combination of all these factors is responsible yet the proportional effectiveness of each is not detailed.

From freely-circulating literature on AIM the exact nature of the gestures used in AIM is unclear. The system is stated to be based on the American Sign Language and from what can be observed many gestures are often based on natural gestures or are iconic and directly representative of meaning (the French *riche* (rich) is rubbing one's hands together and *pauvre* (poor) is pulling out the insides of one's pockets). Others are said to help students with the spelling of the words while some gestures represent parts of speech such as infinitives. Apparently, to have full access to the detailed nature of the gestures in AIM, it would be necessary to purchase the teacher packages available at the AIM website. Maxwell provides no dictionary of gestures or gesture classification annexes with her dissertation to facilitate a researcher's analysis. For this reason, this thesis can shed little further light on the AIM gesture language rationale or structure. However, Arnott's thesis (outlined below), a qualitative study of AIM, does provide us with a few more insights into the nature of the Gesture Approach hand signs.



Figure 13. Wendy Maxwell and learners gesturing during an AIM lesson. (North Shore News 2002, Internet source.)

2.6.6. *Arnott's study of AIM.*

According to Arnott (2005), apart from Maxwell's own unpublished Master's thesis paper in 2001 and newspaper reports in the Canadian press (a selection cited above):

[...] to date no additional qualitative or quantitative evaluation has been performed [...]. While students presently using AIM are apparently achieving great success in terms of functional oral fluency and literacy skills, the program continues to lack the research support that is essential to prompting and legitimizing widespread implementation (Arnott 2005:2).

Furthermore, from scouring the literature and Internet there appears to have been no further rigorous research carried out to date on the Gesture Approach in AIM. Not surprisingly, therefore, despite the relatively extensive use of AIM in schools especially in Canada, no mention is made of this methodology in mainstream encyclopaedic research manuals on SL acquisition such as Ellis (2008).

Arnott's contribution to research of the AIM approach was also the basis of a Masters dissertation (as was Maxwell's). This second study however was purely qualitative and based on commentary after two main phases of research: observations of AIM classes and teacher and student interviews with the researcher. A total of twelve observations were made, three per month over a four-month period. Two groups of students were observed from an independent boys' school in Toronto, Canada. The students were interviewed in pairs and asked questions regarding their impressions of the core French teaching method they were receiving through AIM. The teacher was also interviewed for her opinions and comments. The following are data collected during this research from the above criteria.

1) Both class observations and teacher comments reflected on the teacher-centred nature of the classes. However, Arnott stresses that this dynamic is by no means "one-dimensional" and that the teacher played a "pivotal role" during the course (Arnott

2005:23). This inference is clearly related to the criticism of teacher-centred classes such as occurs in the Grammar Translation Method or even the Audiolingual Method and other less communicative styles of SL teaching that have fallen from favour. Arnott comments later, “During my observations, the teacher and the students gestured and spoke together during the greater part of every lesson” (2005:24).

2) The adaptation of students to AIM having previously received a non-AIM “thematic” approach at school was commented on by the teacher:

Yeah. This class (pause) I’m actually really impressed with this class. It’s amazing the difference from the first week and to what they can do now. The first week, they really didn’t know what they were supposed to do. They didn’t know they were supposed to talk when I was gesturing. And a few caught on, but they were still pretty quiet because students aren’t used to doing that. They’re not used to teachers wanting them to talk together. It’s something that they have to get used to doing. It’s almost like a choirmaster conducting a choir, so they’re used to doing it when they’re singing, but they’re not used to doing it when they’re talking. So, it takes a while for the students to get used to that. But this class has really caught on well, and I’m really, really thrilled with their progress (Arnott 2005:24).

3) Student views of the AIM course they were following were said to be “all positive” with adjectives used like “cool”, “different” and “scary”. During the first interview with students, other comments were the following.

Interviewer: What did you think about the actions that are used in class?

Matthew: They were hard to understand at first, but then we got to use them a lot, then we got used to what they all meant.

Interviewer: And what about you? (*question directed at Phillip*)

Phillip: Well, it was sort of confusing on the first day when we had to learn all the signs and stuff like that. Now it’s pretty fun, and it’s kinda easier.

Arnott then says that during the second round of interviews at a later date, students “obviously felt more confident with the gestures” giving rise to opinions such as: “they’re easier to understand” and “we know more so it’s a lot easier” (2005:25). The habit of speaking the L2 in the classroom developed to such an extent that when the teacher developed periodical “gesture tests” where students had to locate the object in their books prompted by the teacher’s gestures without giving the answer orally, Arnott

observed that “it was difficult for students to stop this instinctive reaction [of calling out the answer] once they had been conditioned to do it” (2005:26).

4) Preventing the students from using the L1 (English) in the class and thereby maximising L2 practice during class time, according to Arnott’s observations, was not difficult. One reason she gives for this is that students rarely reacted with each other during the class as they were generally occupied in calling out the words from the gesture prompts in chorus. Furthermore, direct communication (other than the gesturing dynamic) was therefore also impeded between the students and the teacher for the same reason. The only time the teacher used L1 was to provide students with “one-word translations” (2005:29).

5) With reference to the vocabulary chosen for teaching and the importance regarding ensuring students acquire sufficient amounts or lexis for communication, Arnott quotes Schmitt: “with rank beginners, it is probably necessary to explicitly teach all words until students have enough vocabulary to start making use of the unknown words they meet in context” (Schmitt 2000:145). Arnott also uses the word “explicit” with the reference to lexis input during instruction with the Gesture Approach. The choice of word is a contentious one as “explicit” in language teaching usually refers to offering explanations (such as in grammar teaching). On the other hand, Arnott also observed that the teacher “administered gesture tests every two weeks” (2005:36). In which case, there is now an explicit teaching environment in the AIM course; students are studying the very tool that provides the input. The motive behind this technique states Arnott quoting the teacher was that “students focused more on teaching the gestures because they knew there was going to be a test on them” (2005:36).

6) Conversely, other approaches in the classes under study adopted a more implicit input or communicative dynamic. Students were asked to carry out “TPR” style

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

activities such as searching for the teacher's keys in the classroom while gesturing and uttering the relevant language. This, comments Arnott was "in accordance with the overall objectives of the AIM program" and that the teacher "deemed it beneficial for her students to have more contact with language in use" (2005:40).

7) Among Arnott's conclusions to her findings during this study are the following:

- The Gesture Approach provided "an overwhelming oral involvement of the learners and their willingness to take risks with the language during those initial stages" (2005:50).
- That such an approach was "empowering students with a functional command of the language when they are younger [which] could supply them with the essential skills to survive the continued mandatory core French experience that awaits them" (2005:56).
- And with reference to further investigation into AIM, she suggests the need for: "Further research into the effectiveness of the Gesture Approach [...] and its [together with the other didactic AIM elements] potential for facilitating vocabulary acquisition and oral competency in a second language learning context" (2005:58).

Very apparent in this study is that Arnott clearly refers to the Gesture Approach in her study and not the complete AIM programme. Comments such as "the consistent choral language work" (2005:30) seems to confirm this. Indeed, there is no reference in the observational notes included in the four-month study of any of the "drama, music, literature and dance" activities which, at the outset, Arnott clearly praises about the AIM approach (2005:6). Arnott refers to the Gesture Approach as the "final element of the AIM program" (2005:8) yet perhaps it should boast a more important position as an

accelerating language facilitator that enables learner language usage in AIM's elaborate production tasks. Despite Arnott's insistence and her reference to the comments in the research literature regarding the language-learning benefits of drama in L2 instruction, one wonders at its impact and effectiveness compared to the Gesture Approach itself and that the motives behind the novelty and alleged success of AIM across Canada are predominantly due to the beneficial role of gestures in language acquisition. The "integrated" of AIM is indeed relevant and important in language acquisition if one adheres to Swain's famous argument against Krashen's Input Hypothesis for the need of "comprehensible output" (Swain 1995) *a.k.a.* "production". Yet production activities for the L2 classroom may come in many guises, many being equally effective, and those a teacher chooses will surely depend on various influencing factors such as time and resources available, mentioned earlier, as well as cultural traits, student and teacher personalities and preferences.

### **2.7. English language teaching in Spain.**

#### *2.7.1. The private academy and online instruction.*

The latest report from the EF English Proficiency Index (see Internet sources 2015) shows English language competence in Spain at a slightly upgraded "moderate" level compared to the previous year. The numeric evaluation stands at 56.8 where Sweden, with the highest level, scores 70.94 and neighbouring Portugal, 60.61. The scores on this annual index, which were started in 2011, show gradual improvements in Spain's English proficiency levels since the test's inception, when Spain's figure stood at 49.1. Findings reflecting these more advanced evaluation techniques of whole nations from institutional sources are, however, relatively recent but confirm fears held by Spanish society for decades regarding the quality of English language instruction in schools. Recent "moderate" levels of English competence are regarded by the annual

report as only near or even below European averages and if these are improvements on past performance, they provide insights into presumably lower communicative and linguistic abilities in English among Spaniards prior to the 2011 period.

As a consequence of the supposed inferiority or insufficiency of English language competence among students, the Spanish began to seek instruction elsewhere. Presumably, this trend was produced by a cause and effect scenario where dissatisfaction of either the quality or non-comprehensive nature of school English instruction in its traditional form brought about a surge towards an interest in alternative and private centres in English language teaching. In the case of primary school children, this decision-taking to seek alternative English instruction must have originated from the parents' initiative.

The private English academy *Instituto Británico* (Seville), according to its website, opened its doors to the public in 1946 to offer “quality English language teaching” (*Instituto Británico*, 2016, Internet sources). However, the majority of the private English academies in Spain today came into being from the 1970’s onwards. During a random search for English academies in the Seville province the author was unable to find one village that failed to offer this service to the local population.

Required qualifications for the teachers who work in these centres seem to vary. Private language training centres in Spain are not bound by the regulations of the regional government, such as, for example, in Andalusia by the *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* decree 175/1993 of the Regional Andalusian Government (ACEIA, 2015, Internet source). However, some of the larger academies have joined a “quality control” organisation such as ACEIA (*Asociación de Centros de Enseñanza de Idiomas de Andalucía*) [Association of Andalusian language teaching centres] thereby proposing a public commitment to service quality. On the other hand, the ten



commandment-like conditions laid down in the ACEIA website offer rather vague requisites as to teaching qualifications and experience: “*El profesorado constará de personas competentes y especializadas en la enseñanza de los idiomas que imparten*” [The teaching staff will comprise competent persons and specialists in the languages they teach] (ACEIA, 2015, Internet sources). While the English Language Institute, Seville, an ACEIA affiliated centre, claim that their teachers:

- 1) have at least one year’s prior experience before starting work,
- 2) hold the Trinity TESOL or Cambridge CELTA exams.

The CELTA course is intensive yet only four weeks instruction with no enrolment requirements other than holding a degree and not necessarily relevant to pedagogy or language teaching. A comparison with primary or secondary school English teachers in Spain leave the minimum requirements laid down by the private sector vastly wanting knowing that the Spanish school counterpart will hold at least a three-year teacher training qualification for primary teachers (*magisterio*) and for secondary schools, a five-year English philology degree in addition to the one-year CAP (*Curso de Adaptación Pedagógica*) [Course of Pedagogic Adaptation] qualification. One assumes anyone following such lengthy preparation to become an English teacher in a Spanish school must also bring an accompanying sense of vocation. The statement of quality laid down in ACEIA’s web that they “*comprometen a ofrecer una enseñanza eficaz, realista y moderna*” [are committed to offering teaching which is efficient, realistic and modern] leaves one wondering what these terms actually mean and the nature of the quality criteria ACEIA centres stand for. It may also be significant to note that ACEIA is only home to some seventy member academies across Andalusia.

Perhaps the most prolific and successful of the many online courses and optional intensive classroom courses are run by the US teacher and entrepreneur Richard

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

Vaughan (Internet source – Richard Vaughan). Many of these courses are officially recognised and promoted by the Spanish *Ministerio de Educación* [Ministry of Education] (Navarro 2013:113). Claims state that over 20,000 students are following the courses with some 400 teachers under contract and the company boasts an annual turnover of some 20 million euros (2012 Richard Vaughan – Internet resources). An analysis of the situation in Spain regarding English language learning concludes that despite the present crisis, the general public are spending more time and money on English study. There is a general belief that the official level exams in English (B1, B2 especially) are essential for improving or even just accessing one's future career development. Private study of English with a view to obtaining these much sought-after qualifications is considered to be an essential and worthwhile personal investment (New Statesman 2013 – Internet sources).

Interestingly, the Vaughan courses follow the outdated Audiolingual Method - shunned in recent times by much mainstream language instructional thinking (Navarro 2013).

### 2.7.2. *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)*.

Referred to as CLIL, Bilingual Education Programme (BEP) or simply *educación bilingüe* [bilingual education], Content and Language Integrated Learning first took root in Spain in 1993/94. The CLIL approach came into existence during the 1970s but the term was not coined until 1994 by David Marsh. Marsh (2000) defined CLIL as: “This approach involves learning subjects such as History, Geography or others, through an additional language. It can be very successful in enhancing the learning of languages and other subjects, and developing in the youngsters a positive “can do” attitude towards themselves as language learners” (2000:2).

CLIL has now become an official approach for curriculum education in Andalusia (since 2005) reinforced by the Spanish Education Ministry's policy of developing students' communicative competence laid down in Spain's Organic Law of Education 2/2006. Every year more schools are incorporated into the programme if and when they comply with the stipulated requirements.

CLIL extends exposure of English to school students in both primary and secondary by introducing the language as a unique means of communication in subjects other than English language. The sciences, Music and Art are taught in English by teachers who must hold a minimum B2 level qualification. Such an approach is seen to be feasible for "mainstream" rather than "elite" education settings; a way to learn English for "the Millie Molly Mandys of the world". Furthermore, CLIL is considered practical as the subject matter is relevant to the students. "It's not a matter of having students learning now for use later but having students learning now to use now" (Marsh 2014 - YouTube source).

Lasagabaster (2008) quotes work by Hellekjaer in Norway that suggests that CLIL programmes in secondary education can improve students' reading skills and therefore assist students in managing English textbooks later on at university level. The study's findings were that 74% of the CLIL learners scored satisfactorily on the IELTS Reading for Academic Purposes Module Test compared to only 33% for non-CLIL learners. According to Lasagabaster *et al.*, Spain is leading Europe in its implementation of CLIL in schools (2010:viii). For both CLIL elementary students as well as secondary students in Spain, better language competency levels were obtained than for non-CLIL students, especially in written comprehension according to the conclusions in the study by Gallardo del Puerto and Martínez Adrián (2013). They also state that CLIL does not seem to have a negative impact on children's performance in content subjects.

Studies suggest that CLIL students attain similar or even better results than non-CLIL students learning subject content in their L1 (Bonnet 2012, Coyle 2010, Dalton-Puffer 2007 and Meyer 2009). This is more noticeable in the case for skills-based learning than the learning of facts, which may be owing to the enhanced interaction often present in good CLIL classrooms (Coyle 2010). No decline in written Spanish ability for CLIL students was detected in Spain's BEP (Bilingual Education Programme) groups (Dobson *et al.* 2010). There was also a study comparing BEP students with non-BEP students which showed that the performance of the students in the BEP groups was significantly better than that of those in the non-BEP groups. Only 25% of the BEP students' performance was rated as 'not adequate' compared with 45% of non-BEP students.

On the other hand, Bonnet (2012) argued that in order to be able to comprehend content in CLIL classrooms, students will require a core competency in the subject matter as well as sufficient L2 communicative competence. This means it is essential that learners possess a threshold level in the L2 to manage the subject matter of their classes. Lasagabaster (2008) suggested that the formal settings such as schools appear to benefit older students especially in the short term as they are more mature cognitively (an advantage necessary for test-taking) whereas young learners appear to be less responsive to the implicitness of mere exposure and contact with the foreign language. The absence of structure-based tuition during a CLIL course may mean that learners with a lower cognitive level find implicit learning more difficult. Obtaining linguistic and communicative goals should then be the focus for primary school students (Zydatis 2000).

The above comments reveal the necessity of placing extra emphasis on English language tuition to ensure early communicative competence at primary school ages.

Without previously developed L2 skills obtained before learners enter their teens, CLIL programmes could lose effectiveness. The necessity of English tuition which includes some focus on form has also been pointed out by Nikula *et. al* (2013). Students make significantly more language errors in CLIL courses than in traditional foreign language programmes as the former are predominantly lexical in nature. Lexical choice and pronunciation of technical terms initially comprise approximately half of all errors and these are also the errors that tend to be addressed most often. Learners' grammatical errors made during CLIL courses are almost entirely ignored.

Other issues negatively affecting successful implementation of CLIL may be due to core L2 competency levels among the teacher populations. For example, in the province of Seville only 187 state primary and secondary schools have been converted to BEP (CLIL method); about a quarter of the total number of schools in the province. According to the *ABC* newspaper, “...*parece que algo está fallando cuando esta implantación es casi excepcional, a tenor del número de centros con dicha catalogación*” [...it appears something is wrong when this implementation is almost exceptional considering the number of schools with this category rating] (*ABC* 5/9/2014:26). The issues related to the difficulties of implementing CLIL in state schools appear to be various. One outstanding problem is “*el deficit de profesores cualificados*” [the lack of qualified teachers] (5/9/2014:27). Suddenly, there has been a demand for teachers of non-language subjects to hold a sufficiently high level of English competence to offer instruction entirely in the L2. CLIL teachers are required to be proficient at language and content, something hardly viable for the vast majority of already established teachers (Cummins 1994) who entered the practice unaware of the necessity of English to successfully exercise their profession. Furthermore, one could question the ethics of approaching teachers and asking them to alter their vocation and

career mission and teach in a foreign language. Apart from the initial willingness required on part of the teacher, materials are still lacking in this area of bilingual instruction meaning many teachers would have to invest extra time and effort into materials production.

Another negative point suggested regarding CLIL programmes has been the tendency to abandon bilingual studies during the latter years of school education. The additional obstacle of receiving instruction in a foreign language is not reflected in the qualifications offered to students. One teacher complains: “*No hay incentivos en forma de títulos oficiales que puedan motivar a los chicos*” [There are no incentives in the form of official qualifications to motivate the children] (*ABC Provincia* 19/11/2015:2).

It has also been stated in the *ABC* (2014) that despite the introduction of BEP centres, the level of second language learning in Andalusia remains below European averages; a finding interpreted from the 2012 PISA survey although PISA does not directly assess L2 competence. The same article also quotes anonymous “experts” which conclude that the faults lies with “*la prevalencia de las destrezas lingüísticas como la lectura y la escritura frente al ‘listening’ y al ‘speaking’*” [the prevalence of language skills of reading and writing instead of listening and speaking skills]. Other “experts” talking to the *ABC*, in this case a state school English teacher, points towards class size and the large numbers of students in the classroom: “*No es lo mismo hacer un speaking entre 10 alumnos que con 25, es que simplemente no se puede*” [It’s not the same doing a speaking activity with 10 students than with 25 – it’s just not possible] (*ABC Sevilla*, 5/9/2014:27).

According to the *ABC* (2014), there is a resounding clamour from teachers and parents regarding the poor investment that the *Junta de Andalucía* is willing or able to provide the educational sector and that the lack of sufficient funding is the cause of all

our woes. However, the director of the PISA programme, Andreas Schleicher stated: “*Ni el mejor de los ministros de educación puede resolver los problemas de los millones de alumnos y los miles de profesores*” [Not even the best of educational ministers can resolve the problems of the millions of students and thousands of teachers]. The success of educational reforms will depend to a large extent on teacher autonomy and how these apply that in their classrooms. A comparison is made with Singapore, which scored the highest on the PISA 2012 quality index and where, says Mr Schleicher, teachers have not waited to be told what to do by official sources but rather have adopted the attitude of “*qué puede hacer para mejorar*” [what can they do to improve] student performance (*ABC Sociedad* 30/3/2014:78).

Summarising, an apparent discrepancy is detectable between a relatively glowing report regarding CLIL programmes and their implementation and CLIL issues and failings at a local level, in particular, it appears, in Andalusia.

- Staff shortages due to training deficiency.
- Sluggish conversion rate of schools to the BEP.
- Lack of student motivation to remain in the CLIL programmes due to additional effort required to obtain the same qualification (especially for secondary schools).
- Apparent lack of teacher motivation if we are to heed the comments made in the above issues of the *ABC* newspaper.
- Lastly, with reference to the above research mentioned, there are concerns that younger learners in primary schools may find CLIL programmes offer language requirements over and above their capabilities.

It is assumed that methodological programmes in state schools intended for national mainstream education should be accessible to all schools and students and that regional

and local variances related to economical issues (especially regional funding to schools) should not become stumbling blocks.

### 2.7.3. Disparities between educational levels and Spain's regions.

In December 2016, the new Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development OECD PISA report reflects similar results to the 2012 findings. PISA is not an assessment of L2 skills but reveals competences in science, reading and mathematics among a selection of state and partially state funded (*concertado*) schools.

On a national level, Spain apparently improved perceptibly on the 2012 scores yet still remained at an approximate OECD average, which prompted Iñigo Méndez de Vigo, head of the Spanish Education Ministry, to make this bold statement about Spanish education: “[this latest PISA report] *rompe la brecha educativa y se sitúa por primera vez en la historia, al nivel de los países más avanzados del mundo*” [breaks the educational mould and it is now situated, for the first time in history, among the most advanced countries in the world] (*El País* Spain 7/12/2016). Notwithstanding, this same newspaper then points out that Spain's apparent improvement in the educational rating is due to a slight decrease in scores of the neighbouring industrial nations.

For the first time in 2016, a regional breakdown was made available and these figures could be considered revealing if not disturbing.

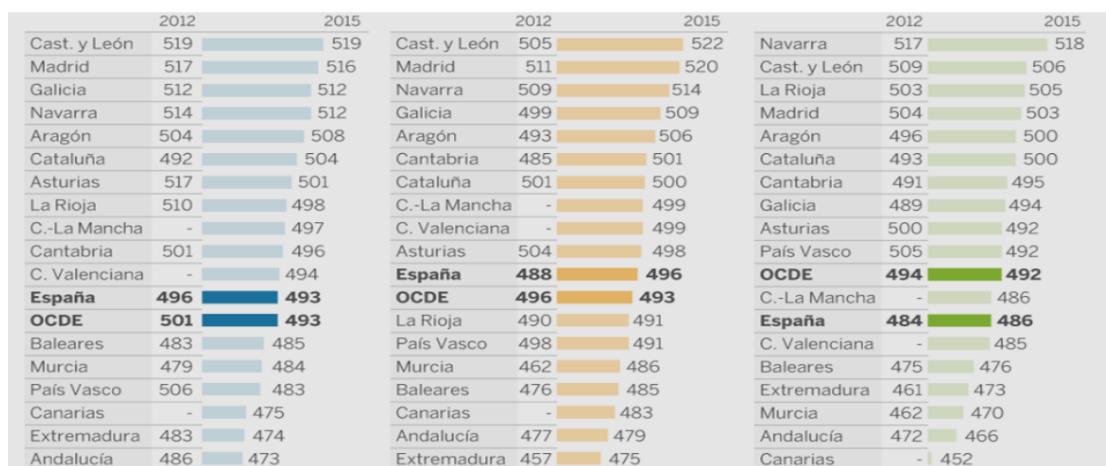


Figure 14. PISA 2016 autonomous regional results in (from left to right) science, reading comprehension and mathematics (*El País* Spain 7/12/2016:23).



There emerges evidence of a distinct north-south divide according to these regional scores of educational competences in schools (Figure 14). Twelve regions are situated above the OECD average and five below – Andalusia either in final or penultimate position according to the skills being tested. At first glance, these results appear to coincide with income *per capita* ratings: Castilla - La Mancha, Murcia and Andalusia fall below the European 75% mean. However, Castilla y León with 1.300 euros less per capita than the European average and Galicia in a similar impoverished situation share similar PISA ratings with Finland. Such glowing results, according to Fernando Rey, regional minister for Castilla y León, are due to “*el resultado de una enorme eficiencia con recursos ajustados*” [the result of an enormous efficiency with tightly limited funding]. Also to be considered are regional social problems such as those pertinent to Andalusia where, states the article, “*pesa la alfabetización de las anteriores generaciones, que fue muy escasa en el sur de España*” [literacy learning, previously scarce, negatively affects people from earlier generations] (*El País España* 7/12/2016:23).

*El País* informs us that the PISA report emphasises the difficulty in drawing comparisons from one country to the next and even one school to the next and arriving at conclusions “*plantea numerosos desafíos*” [supposes numerous challenges] (*El País España* 7/12/2016:22). Factors mentioned include the educational level of parents or the number of students failing and thereby repeating courses. However, according to this same newspaper there is one aspect where all are in agreement - the professional improvement of teaching staff. Andreas Schleicher (educational director of the OECD) commented again on Spain’s position regarding educational standards. Although, he says, there is no easy answer for Spain, this country should reduce the amount of time on excessive legislation and regulations, which have deviated attention from achieving

better quality results in education. The quality of education will never be better than the quality of the teachers. He states that Spain should empower teachers so they “lideren esta transformación” [lead this transformation] but that can only work effectively if teachers receive the necessary support to teach with efficiency. “*La autonomía profesional en una cultura colaborativa, en consecuencia, crea las condiciones que más inciden en el aprendizaje de los estudiantes*” [Professional autonomy in a collaborative culture consequently creates conditions with the greatest influence in student learning] (Schleicher in *El País España* 7/12/2016:22).

From the above article in *El País*, there is a strong indication that regional economic issues (and their potential impact on society and its peoples) are indeed a powerfully influencing factor on overall standards of education in schools despite some inspired regional governments who are able to administer funds for education far more efficiently and with more vision. The unanimous opinion, according to the article, that teacher training, teacher autonomy and a network for collaboration across the teaching community are imperatives for raising educational standards become issues that require funding for their implementation and a cohesive national and regional government policy supported by like-minded and forward-thinking politicians working in close communication with teachers, their needs and student needs.

### 3. METHODS.

#### 3.1. Course set-up.

The state school *CEIP Pedro Primero*, Carmona, Seville was approached for the purposes of carrying out the GW experiment. The reasons for this choice are listed in the following points.

- The school was in the same locality as the TR so was easily reached.
- This primary school complied with the ideal ages for the experiment (preferred ages for students are between seven and nine for introduction courses).
- The school was not a bilingual school nor had special programmes of extra English instruction. (In *Pedro Primero*, two English lessons of 45 minutes were given per week from first year to fourth year then three lessons a week of the same duration in fifth and sixth years.)

The basic structure and student intake of the experimental course was the following.

- One academic year course of two one-hour classes per week.
- Students for the experimental group were taken from the fifth year only (nineteen enrolled).
- Students from the control group were taken only from the sixth year (nineteen would be required).

The rationale behind the control group being taken from the sixth year was that the experimental group would be receiving additional classes as well as their present classes and therefore would receive more hours of instruction than a peer fifth year control group. To compensate for this additional input of English instruction, the same number of students from the sixth year was chosen as a control. Other decisions taken regarding course structure and set-up were as set out below.

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

- The author of this thesis would also be the experimental course teacher (due to lack of any other possible candidate).
- Fifty-seven contact hours of GW instruction was planned for the experimental group.
- Homework would be given to the experimental group of some twenty minutes per week. Revision video lessons will be loaded up to YouTube by the TR consisting of gesture exercises to elicit phrases from the stories gestured in class (see YouTube video section in References, GW lessons). Other activities planned were requesting learners to record Mp3 files of stories told through prompts and instructions provided. Written homework tasks will be limited and reserved for the latter stages of the course.
- The GW course was extra-curricula for the experimental group and held at four o'clock in the afternoon on Tuesdays and Thursdays in the school library of *Pedro Primero* primary school (the school of both groups).
- Parents received a talk by the TR on the experiment and were informed it was hoped there would be rewarding benefits in their children's English progress at the end of the course.
- The course was free of charge.
- Parents enrolled their children and no conditions on child profile were given. Parents were told in the meeting, however, that they must comply with the course conditions such as completion of homework tasks once a week (see annexe A2.).

Regarding administrative points, the following is relevant.

- An official agreement of collaboration between Seville University and *CEIP Pedro Primero* was signed (see annexe A5.).

- Third party liability insurance was taken out by the TR (see annexe A6.).
- Authorisations were signed by parents to allow their children to be videoed and the materials to be used for research purposes and possible publication of photos and videos in the media (see annexes A2.2. and A2.3.).

#### *3.1.2. Considerations about the experiment set-up and validity.*

From the outset, it was understood that the experiment set-up contravened some fundamental rules regarding experiment validity. It had been impossible to find a group of students which could carry out the experimental English course in lieu of their usual school English classes and thereby allowing a comparison with a control peer group of the same year. The experimental group must, then, attend the course of two hours per week while also receiving the two and a quarter hours per week (three classes of forty-five minutes) at the state school. This complication in experiment design technically rules out the option of a comparable fifth-year control group as the latter would receive over fifty hours fewer classes of English instruction as the experimental group. It was thus decided to create a control group from the sixth-year group, which also receives two and a quarter of English classes per week at school, based on the rationale that English instruction hours are approximately equalled. However, commenting contrasts between learners of different ages, albeit only a year difference, assumes significant maturity variables between groups (a point made by *Pedro Primero* headmistress and student's school English teacher). Such divergence in maturity both personal and linguistic could suppose an overall L2 level advantage to the control group when analysing any quantitative language data.

The original intention of the student intake process for the experimental course allowed participants to enrol without selection intervention from the TR. The same random selection was also intended for the creation of the control group. In fact, this

process led to the introduction of an important variable that was detected soon after forming the groups. Within both groups there were a number of students who attended the local English academy. As students were allowed to enrol on the experimental GW course without any conditions regarding learner profile (and control group participator selection was random) this important variable arose complicating experiment validity considerations. Students attending the local private English academy in Carmona received two and a quarter hours per week (three classes of forty-five minutes) of academy classes. Furthermore, the approach to English teaching may differ from instruction at the state school meaning that any attempt to explain variances in student L2 acquisition over the experiment would be further confounded. Initial investigations into the academy teaching methods were made and it was discovered that although no gesture-based English instruction system was used, greater emphasis was placed on communicative and speaking skills (see questionnaires, enclosed CD).

Owing to language teaching practice variables which could seriously compromise experiment validity, needs for data-collection on method approaches were apparent. The first intention was to observe classes from the fifth year and sixth years at the state school and the academy. Contact was made with the academy owner and headmistress of *Pedro Primero* and authorisations requested from the teachers concerned. Permission was granted by both the academy and the state school management but the teachers were reluctant and declined to allow observation of their classes by the author (see annexe A3.1.). It was then decided questionnaires should be devised to glean pertinent and revealing information about areas such as class management, approaches and teacher objectives in the English classes where the students attended at both institutions. One questionnaire was sent out to the fifth year teacher at the English academy and a second to the sixth year teacher. Both teachers

cooperated and filled out the questionnaires correctly on the proviso that a fee was paid of thirty euros to each teacher. This was paid by the TR. Two more questionnaires, the same as those designed for the academy teachers, were sent to the corresponding teachers at the state school. Due to the official collaboration agreement with the school, no fee was requested for returning the completed questionnaires. Furthermore, there existed between the teacher of fifth and sixth years and the TR face-to-face dialogue through sporadic interviews over the year which provided much information regarding class practice. Both sources, the interviews and questionnaires, supply the basis for comment on the state school approach in English instruction throughout this thesis. Unfortunately, the previous year's fourth-year teacher (contacted for classroom practice information on this year's fifth year group) was on maternity leave during the whole of the year of the experiment and unavailable for comment. However, she did eventually return the questionnaire at the end of the course (see completed questionnaires in enclosed CD).

The information gleaned from initial contact with the local English academy was sufficiently substantial to require action to be taken on group manipulation to avoid possible inexplicable variances in student L2 knowledge at assessment. As mentioned previously, the resulting number of students enrolled on the experimental course were nineteen. These students were interviewed about any further English instruction they received outside the state school classes. All students who replied that they had received further regular weekly English instruction for one year or more were noted so that investigative comments could take this anomaly into consideration. Eight of the nineteen students fell into this bracket. Nevertheless, it was still decided all students should remain in the one experimental group; a decision taken not through suitable

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

practice (there were fears of having a mixed-level group that could affect performance during the course) but owing to the availability of only one teacher.

Similar action was taken when selecting the sixth-year group. Nineteen students were selected at random from the sixth-year course 6A (from some twenty-five students in all) by selecting from the top downwards in the school class register and a similar procedure to select the same profile of academy students as in the experimental group. Fortunately, eight similar profile supplementary English academy instruction students were found and included in the final group of nineteen control group students. These sub-divisions within the main groups are termed during this thesis as “non-academy” and “academy” students.

	Table 1: Resulting experimental and control group composition.			
	From year/course 5A and 5B experimental group		From year and course 6A control group	
N° of students attending local private English academies for one year or more.		8		8
Students not currently attending private tuition in English.		11		11
Total N° of students.		19		19

### 3.1.3. Pre-tests and post-test arrangements.

Although uppermost in the mind of the author were considerations regarding speaking skill development and communicative abilities in English, a barrage of tests was eventually decided upon covering the four “skills”: writing, reading, listening and speaking. A pre-test was devised to discover present L2 levels of both the experimental and control groups. The pre-test was carried out at the end of September 2014. The speaking pre-tests were carried out by the TR in the school library and students attended in pairs by appointment. The set-up of the speaking tests resembled that of the



Cambridge English speaking exam tests. Students were required to complete various oral activities; each task similar (though not the same) for each student and by alternating who started the pair of tasks, advantages of students copying the co-candidate's format in replies were equalled throughout the test overall (see annexe A8.2. for oral pre-test design.)

The written pre-test on morphemic structures, a reading comprehension and controlled writing test, was invigilated by the *Pedro Primero* school English teacher during normal English class hours. Strict instructions were given to teachers to ensure copying did not occur – the TR was not present. All students of the entire school class groups 5A, 5B and 6A were tested on the written paper thereby avoiding possible class disruption (annexe A8. for written test design).

The next test session on all four “skills” would take place at the end of the course at the beginning of June 2015 and was planned for periods avoiding school year-end exams and class excursions.

#### **3.2. Classroom management and methodology.**

The students should be preferably sitting on chairs arranged in a semi-circle formation. Desks in front of students are admissible but not ideal as students tend to lean on them and the execution of some gestures is hindered as the elbows are not free to move. Chair-attached fold-away tables would be the recommended set-up. Maxwell (2001) has her students sitting on the floor in haphazard formation, however, one wonders at possible loss of class control with such an arrangement. Furthermore, stone floors without carpets, such as are found in most primary schools in Andalusia, provide seating that would hardly encourage students to remain in their places for very long. With chairs organised in a semicircular shape, the teacher can more easily pinpoint the direction of an anomalous utterance made in chorus and thus identify the individual

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

responsible. Students should have no writing implements, books or notebooks to hand but these should be placed under their chairs or desks. The rationale here is that learner attention should be focused towards the teacher and the board/screen for maximum attention and any objects in front of the children would result in distraction. Heads are raised and looking forward; learners should be encouraged to adopt the attitude that they have come to speak English rather than to write it.

At the front of the class is a screen, whiteboard or smartboard or some means to display or to project large pictures to the class. The language material is a text, available only to the teacher, which he/she is familiar with. Word for word memorisation is not necessary as the text may be displayed on a table or lectern in front of the teacher.

### *3.2.1. Materials.*

The materials to be used during the experimental course will be short stories from twenty to a hundred and sixty words in length (the longer texts for the latter stages of the course) or “chapters” of the same story creating a story serial that could span over several classes (see example of a story by chapters at annexe A11.2.).

The lexical base is composed of high-frequency words. Ultimately, mostly within the first two thousand most common words in the English language. Yet initial instruction starts with smaller corpora based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) with adaptations to also include suitable language for children of this age group. Furthermore, simplified or what is termed as “pared-down language” by Maxwell (2001) is used to assist learners in comprehending and using the L2 and rendering communication easier by ensuring learners have suitable functional words to hand to be able to express common and necessary ideas.

The stories for the course have been written by the TR with additional material selected from published graded reader books for children (based on the CEFR corpus)

of this age group. Jokes with a punchline are considered ideal subject matter as the students are motivated to discover the humour behind the story (see a selection of story examples in annexe A11.).

In each class, it is planned that learners will receive gesture input exposure to approximately two hundred to three hundred words (stories and jokes) followed by a fluency production phase at the end of each class. Pictures will also be used as visual references. These represent the stories and allow the teacher to present new language to the class. The pictures will either be pre-drawn by the teacher or photocopied from the graded reader books to be projected onto a screen in front of the class.

#### *3.2.2. Implementation. Presentation phase.*

The teacher shows the students a picture on the board (in the experiment a projected picture from a canon connected to a laptop will be used). The picture is representative of the story and contains references to items contained within the story plot. The teacher points to relevant vocabulary items from the story and introduces all new words accompanied by gestures. Written vocabulary is not visible to learners during the presentation phase. Learners are asked to provide the utterances of words in chorus and all learners gesture in unison during utterance. The teacher may take a little time on pronunciation practice if necessary and choose individual learners to repeat words. During more advanced stages, the teacher may encourage some spoken feedback on the lexis or content of the picture.

Lexical items are given salience by the use of gestures. Learners are required to associate each gesture with the meaning of the word at initial presentation. Thereafter, when the teacher performs the same gestures in front of the class, learners should focus on each gesture to interpret its meaning and utter the sounds. These actions serve to place emphasis on words and make them noticeable. Oral production is the result of a

cognitive effort in recall of meaning and phonemic value as well as the act of pronunciation of the utterance.

### 3.2.3. *Silent Sign.*

After the brief presentation phase of just a few minutes, the teacher moves on to the Silent Sign phase. This phase is termed “silent” as it is the teacher who refrains from speaking and gestures only. The students also gesture and utter the words in chorus recalled momentarily in memory. A strong parallel of this feature of Silent Sign can be drawn with “phonological rehearsal” (see section 2.3.2. above) where possible language acquisition and memory benefits are suggested.

Group work (here in chorus yet with tacit and occasionally explicit interaction between learners) has been praised in the literature for the qualities it brings to the second language learning class (Pica and Doughty 1985 and Rulon and McCreary 1986). Jacobs (1998) listed a number of advantages of group activities in language instruction, the ones especially pertinent to Silent Sign are given here.

- Learner independence can increase as each student makes a decision about language and provides his/her own utterance according to that decision (whether or not remodelled on peer utterances).
- Anxiety can be reduced as all students are speaking together.
- Motivation and enjoyment can increase.
- Learning is enhanced as students are willing to take risks.

The teacher gestures the words and sentences of the whole story from start to finish with as few pauses as possible. In fact, the teacher utters the text also but always after the students have completed a phrase or sentence. The teacher will also say words that need not be gestured such as people’s names. Let us imagine the first two sentences

of an actual pre-written story to be used in the experiment and label the stages of the Silent Sign dynamic (table 2). The two first sentences of the story are:

“Montague Pilkinson’s plane crashed in the desert. He didn’t have any food or water.”

Table 2: Theoretical teacher and student utterances and gestures in corresponding times over two sentences of a story to be performed through Silent Sign. (Full story at annexe A11.7.)									
s Montague Pilkinson	g (Saxon genitive)	g (plane)	g (past tense)	g (crash)	g (in)	g (the)	g (desert)	s Montague Pilkinson’s plane crashed in the desert.	
	gs Montague Pilkinson’s	gs plane		gs crashed	gs in	gs the	gs desert		
g (he/him)	g (past tense)	g (aux. do)	g (negative)	g (possessive have)	g (some/any)	g (food/eat)	g (or)	g (drink/water)	s He didn’t have any food or water.
gs He			gs didn’t	gs have	gs any	gs food	gs or	gs water	
<u>Explanation of Table</u>									
- The code here denotes teacher and/or student interaction types: <b>g</b> = gesture only, <b>s</b> = spoken word only, <b>gs</b> = gesture and spoken word simultaneously.									
- Nothing is uttered between ( ) and refers to the headword gestures performed.									
- The teacher’s interactions are shown in the blue rows and the students’ in the green rows.									
- Simultaneity between teacher and student interactions is shown in as though reading a musical score with vertical entries occurring at the same time.									

The main points to note during the Silent Sign process are listed here.

- All students speak together and in unison. A certain rhythm should develop naturally avoiding cacophony. Correct utterances as well as alternative and incorrect ones should preferably be audible to the teacher.
- Students who do not participate should be detectable as they fail to gesture or speak. However, “idlers” may just nonchalantly hand-wave

and lip-move without attending to gesture meaning. Some individuals' failure to participate at certain times will be inevitable and could be due to many understandable motives: tiredness or distraction, such as may happen in any class with young children. From the teacher's point of view, however, it should be encouraging that such individual student "downtime" can usually be detected and addressed. Situations where student participation is seriously wanting should be handled at the end of the class or session so as not to disrupt the flow and dynamic of Silent Sign for the others.

- Students are reading headword gestures so must interpret these according to structural and semantic context. Correct alternative utterances are also plausible.

#### 3.2.4. *Handling language structures with GW.*

The rationale to language structure teaching in GW follows similar lines to teaching lexis (see section 3.2.2.): to favour brief and frequent exposure and salience rather than in-depth instruction. Detailed explanations reduce the time available for frequency of exposure and the time learners are actively engaged in recall, decision-making and utterance. An explanation should be considered little more useful to acquisition than a simple exposure to it so that drawn out explanations are deemed time-wasting and furthermore detract from focus on meaning rather than forms<sup>4</sup>.

The gestures provide salience and a visual illustration of structures in a similar way that they proffer salience and an illustration of lexis. This dynamic of demonstrating structure usage is similar to the "co-grammatical gestures" of Lapaire

---

<sup>4</sup> This paragraph outlines an essential concept faithfully adhered to during the GW dynamic and, believes the author, one that should be considered a paradigm imperative for successful early language acquisition. Referred to in this thesis as Direct Student Language Interaction (DSLII), it is dealt with in more detail in the following section on Theoretical Considerations.

(2013), which engage learners with a deeper understanding through an epistemic image of grammar. Any explicit explanation of grammar accompanies and complements the illustrative, demonstrative gesture. However, GW takes this a stage further and maintains the co-grammatical image/gesture together with its significance throughout frequent recycling of meaningful language. Each time the co-grammatical gesture is shown to the learners, recall of its sense and implications of usage re-emerges in their minds.

Prepositions of place and movement, modal auxiliaries, future and past tense, verb aspects and other items often addressed as explicit and isolated grammatical structures in many Spanish schools' curricula are treated in GW as fundamentally lexical, semantic and conceptual via gesture. Rather than introduce elaborate rules about grammar, salience and frequency of usage of co-grammatical gestures within clear contextual meaning should provide learners with a preferred environment for acquisition. GW heeds the lessons learnt from the exponents of Focus on Form (Doughty 2001, Lightbown 1992, Long 1991, Schmidt 1994). Without salience many students may fail to “notice” how these items are used in the language. The teacher thus explains the gestures during the presentation phase in relation to their communicative relevance with the structure they represent.

It is possible, for example, that learners would be unable to distinguish between verb and auxiliary “have” without noticing features. GW can represent different meanings and grammatical usage of homonyms such as “have” with contrasting gestures – one gesture for each meaning or use. The example below shows the gesture for auxiliary “have” in present perfect when it refers to periods of time from past to present. This gesture is different from those that represent other meanings or uses of “have”. In the case of auxiliary “have”, this is a double gesture performed in one

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

continuous motion which first signs “past” and then moves to “now”. At the stage of introduction of this gesture, learners will know fully the gestures for “past” and “now” so that the new gesture includes linguistic concepts and gestures they are already familiar with. Naturally, this “have” gesture requires a verbal explanation, which should be given briefly and orally by the teacher (perhaps one sentence only). Afterwards, frequency will ensure the gesture is exposed to learners time and time again. Each time it appears, learners must interpret the meaning and utter the corresponding word. The gesture itself is clear in meaning once explained yet even so learner acquisition for fluency production purposes will still require time. However, rather than resorting to periodical “revision” (as practised in many mainstream approaches) “have” auxiliary with this meaning has now been added to the input flood and learner lexical/item repertoire and will be encountered relatively frequently during the GW classes through gesture. If such structures are added gradually, learners will comprehend their use within meaningful and comprehensible input without the burden of time-consuming and meaning-detracting explicit instruction sessions<sup>5</sup>.

HAVE 2 auxiliary of present perfect: From past to present, eg. ‘Jeff *has* had those shoes since he was twenty’. Sign similar to PAST (tense) but done with left hand onto right shoulder + NOW (this demonstrates the idea of an action that started in the past and is still continuing).



Figure 15. From Gesture Dictionary (Bilbrough 2002b).

Conversely, there are cases where words have very similar meanings but differ according to grammatical use. In these cases, the gestures can be identical regardless of grammatical context. This approach also fosters salience and cognitive and metalinguistic awareness by requiring learners to utter dissimilar words for the same gesture. In these cases, the teacher may have to intervene to provide corrective feedback to students and encourage them to change incorrect utterances. Peer corrective feedback

---

<sup>5</sup> This is a functional description of how gesture assists the teacher in avoiding mainstream revision sessions and will be dealt with in more detail in the Theoretical Considerations.



is also possible with students calling out correct versions. This latter corrective feedback situation is preferred and should be encouraged.

Examples of identical gestures representing different grammar uses are the articles “some” and “any” and the choice of one or the other depending on whether the sentence is affirmative, negative or interrogative. (Countable and uncountable versions of “some” and “any” are represented by different gestures). Frequent exposure should be sufficient to separate the different uses of these commonly reoccurring words with little more instruction proffered than corrective feedback. The technique of recycling these structures in the classroom through spoken and holistic English contrasts markedly with approaches recommended by many English coursebooks, where structures are so often taught through explanation and written exercises.

SOME / ANY – countable: Where there is an idea of an indefinite number: 'there are some biscuits on the table'. Index held pointing up at head height. Index vibrates slightly to show plurality. Cf. with ONE where index is motionless.  
(Note: it is convenient for the signs ‘some’ and ‘any’ to be exactly the same allowing the students to make the correct uttered choice.)



SOME / ANY – uncountable: Where there is an idea of an indefinite quantity: 'she's got some money with her', 'would you like some cake?'. Index is held pointing up at head height. Index gyrates in small circles.



Figure 16. From Gesture Dictionary (Bilbrough 2002b).

Ideally, deadlines on comprehension and ability to correctly use a particular structure should not be imposed on learners. Permitting learners flexibility and respecting the time they need to assimilate structures may contradict the layout of many English language coursebooks and school curricula, where explicit teaching happens early on and students soon become involved in extensive form-focused written exercises and periodical testing<sup>6</sup>. The institution’s curriculum demands will determine if and which structures should be described to learners explicitly. If evaluation demands the

<sup>6</sup> One wonders why this approach is still so widely-used in modern-day English teaching when the Audio-lingual Method, which championed focusing on language in this way, was (in name anyway) ousted from SL teaching practice decades ago.

necessity to describe or demonstrate awareness of metalinguistic knowledge of the L2 through discrete item testing, for example, which is invariably the case in Spanish state schools, the teacher may need to explain the structures accordingly. However, explicit teaching should still occupy a limited time in the classroom.

*3.2.5. From gesture revelation to final utterance – an analysis of an instant in time.*

The author has perceived and conjectured, while experimenting with GW in previous courses, the following two key periods occurring during student interaction in Silent Sign.

a) At initial gesture revelation of any given gesture enacted by the teacher; at the instant immediately before student utterance.

b) Momentarily after instant (a) when the utterances are given in response to the given gesture prompt.

At initial gesture revelation, each and every participating student takes a personal decision about the L2 – each one making his/her own interpretations and assessments of the gesture within the context of the sentence. The resulting conclusion may be a word to utter or drawing a blank.

There is a natural diversity, range of skills and personality within any student group, however homogeneous the group's L2 language level overall. This means that student utterances will not coincide in time exactly. The list of verbal or nonverbal reactions at this moment are the following:

- One or more students will be momentarily first to call out the L2 word that has occurred to them.
- Others may follow the example of the first.
- Yet others may contradict the first and provide a different answer.

- Then there are those students who self-correct momentarily after their first utterance either due to a reappraisal of their previous answer or a preference for another student's answer.
- One, some or all students say nothing.

The resulting uttered answer is a juxtaposition of individual decision-making based on a student's own interlanguage and group dynamics of peer affordances leading to individual reappraisals and possible adjustments to their initial utterance. The final answer that hovers clearly in the air at the end of this one to two-second time-lapse is usually (unless students are unfamiliar with the material) a correct answer. If the "final answer" is not correct, the teacher intervenes. He/she will prefer to correct by an alternative answer technique such as when the students call out:

"Yesterday, he don't..."

the teacher responds with, "don't or didn't?"

The students naturally utter the opposite to their original response and the teacher continues. Again, preference is always made for brief correction (or prompted student self-correction) rather than a lengthy explanation. As a rule of thumb, the Silent Sign phase should not include any explanations as these disrupt the flow of Silent Sign and thereby student comprehension of events within the story. Silent Sign must be a predominantly meaning-focused activity.

The various student mental reactions, decisions and processes that occur during GW bear similarities to those that happen during fluency production, which have been considered beneficial to L2 acquisition:

In producing an L2, learners will on occasion become aware of (ie. notice) a linguistic problem. Noticing a problem can 'push' learners to modify their output. In doing so, learners may sometimes be forced into a more syntactic processing mode than might occur in comprehension. Thus, output sets 'noticing' in train, triggering mental processes that lead to modified output [...] part of the process of second language learning (Swain 1995:371).

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

Silent Sign offers a quasi-production exercise where learners must take instant decisions about output with self-correction often taking place at the instant after output. However, the absence of the need to choose and order lexis (“syntactic processing”) unclutters the language muddle allowing learners to focus on the specific tasks of:

- lexis/structure recall,
- pronunciation,
- morphology,
- individual word meaning and holistic meaning of each sentence and the complete story.

Silent Sign therefore, presents learners with a Partial Production Environment (PPE) assisting them in the task of acquisition of holistic language while removing the stumbling blocks of Complete Production (CP), which beginner learners may not be ready to deliver. Learners that spend time within the more controlled PPE may then venture onwards to CP when ready to do so.

The protection afforded by PPE allows students to bypass the Silent Period, a time when learners are still at an early interlanguage stage and may prefer not or not feel able to cope with Complete Production. Asher (1995, 2009) and Krashen (1982, 1995) proposed respecting the Silent Period by requiring learners to make as few utterances as possible. “...we do not wish to force utterances in the target language until [the students] have had an opportunity for the acquisition process to begin...” (Krashen: 1995:75). The PPE and its protective cocoon setting means that learners can practise and develop oral language from the earliest stages of instruction yet avoid the complexities of syntax issues and word choice.

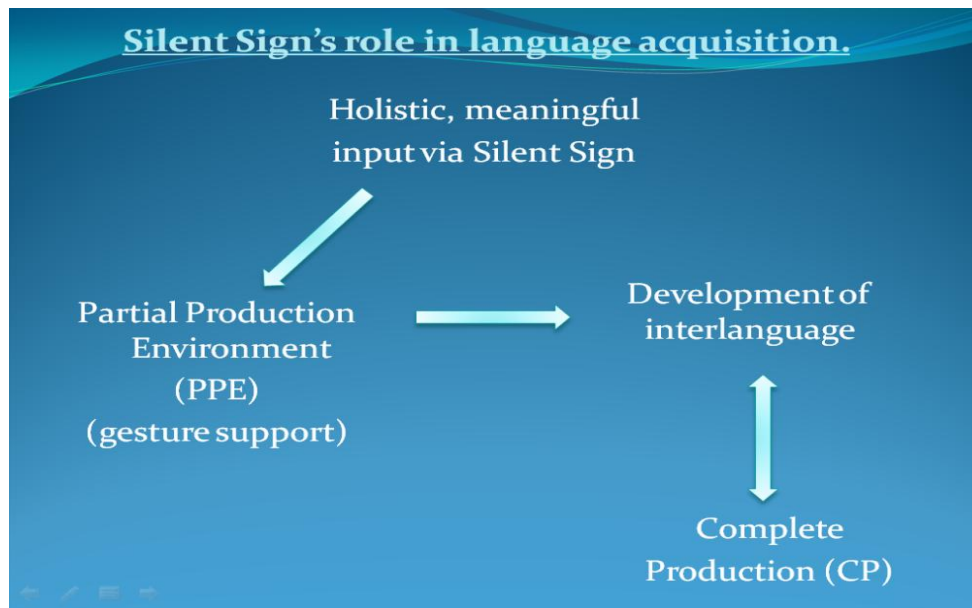


Figure 17. How Silent Sign and CP act upon interlanguage and the intermediary language “cocoon” nature of PPE.

### 3.2.6. Post Silent Sign activities.

Of the one hour allotted for class time during the experimental course, an average of forty minutes has been planned to dedicate to the presentation and Silent Sign phases. Activities that occur outside the realms of these two GW phases (for example, the post Silent Sign phase) are outside the assessment area of this study. Moreover, activities to be introduced in the post Silent Sign phase do not suppose any new approach or innovation from production and fluency tasks used elsewhere in the TEFL world which follow the Communicative Approach. Notwithstanding, the nature of such activities should be in accord with the focus on meaning and communication; a development of English through speaking skills such as fluency production (CP).

Learners, if ready to do so<sup>7</sup>, will be requested to carry out pair work or group work and re-tell the stories they have just heard. This could be done via comic-strips or even keywords projected on the screen which suggest the order of events of the story and learners will then alternate one sentence at a time telling the story orally (see

<sup>7</sup> It must be remembered here that the experimental group students have been engaged in speaking English at least since the first year of primary school. Eight members of this group have spent some years studying English in the English academy. Most learners, therefore, should be able to handle CP environments comfortably.

annexes A11.5. and A11.6. for CP activities planned). A report on the post Silent Sign activities actually employed during the experimental course will be described in the quantitative section of Results.

#### **4. THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS PERTAINING TO GESTUREWAY.**

This is the first time a formal research experiment has been attempted of the GW approach. The author of this thesis, Michael Bilbrough, conceived GestureWay (then called SignMethod) in 1998 and has developed the gesture tool and methodology with groups of children in private language teaching centres since that date. The first mention in academic circles of GestureWay/SignMethod was at the TOEFL conference, Madrid, in March 2002, when the author gave a workshop and informal feedback on a three-year project teaching primary school children at a private academy in Seville<sup>8</sup>.

Despite its time in existence, this gesture tool together with the accompanying GW methodology and theoretical rationale have not yet been described in SL learning investigative literature<sup>9</sup> so this section will attempt to explore these areas and classify the principles which are the pillars supporting the classroom procedures. Throughout this description, relevant references to more familiar, documented methodologies and classroom practices will be made to facilitate the reader with a better understanding of the underpinnings of this approach.

The first step in a methodological description of GW should be to classify the gestures used in the artificial gesture system devised for L2 input in the classroom. This was achieved by obtaining the excellent work, *Nonverbal Communication across Disciplines* (Poyatos 2002) and seeking parallels, of which there were many, between the categories of nonverbal communication gesture and GW's artificial gesture code (see annexe A1).

---

<sup>8</sup> Videos of students from that period have been conserved, one of which is included in the accompanying CD to this thesis.

<sup>9</sup> In fact, Maxwell (2001) has written a Master's thesis on AIM which incorporates the use of a gesture tool (Gesture Approach) similar in many respects to the gesture tool in GestureWay. She did consider methodological and theoretical considerations as did Arnott (2005). However, the author of this thesis often offers different views and new insights hitherto not documented.

There now follows an account of the methodological background to GestureWay and an analysis of the fundamental concepts responsible for class procedures during teaching.

#### 4.1. Basic concepts and nomenclature.

A definition of GW could be considered the following. GW affords, through a hand gesture medium, a predominantly input-based instruction learning environment for L2 English acquisition in the classroom. It is a tool designed to accelerate and enhance L2 input and acquisition and provide increased velocity of salience. It promotes a dynamic termed Direct Student Language Interaction (DSLII) together with holistic and comprehensible input of oral English.

The nomenclature employed in this brief outline of GW will now be explained in the following paragraphs as GW requires a redefinition owing to the combination of a gesture tool with method resulting in a teaching dynamic distinct from many mainstream L2 teaching procedures.

The hand gestures devised for GW to introduce and elicit oral L2 create a parallel language or system of “constant conceptual pegs”; a referent that can communicate the meanings of objects and actions as well as abstract notions otherwise difficult to visualise. An example of a notion transmittable through gesture would be “towards” (Figure 18). The visual quality, movement and learner’s motoric interaction required to perform the gesture are believed to generate a dynamic that can be rapidly comprehended and retained in the mind so that later teacher enactment of the same gesture will be successful in immediately eliciting the notion from the learner.

TOWARDS (approach). Like sign for TO (prep) but right index starts from further away and moves slowly towards left palm and stops 10 cms. before reaching it.



Figure 18. Gesture for “towards”. Gesture Dictionary (Bilbrough 2002b).



An example of a conceptual peg pertaining to objects and actions we can visualise could be any iconic gesture representing objects or verbs:

TREE: Right hand held with fingers and thumb spread, pointing up, palm towards you on right vertical forearm while left hand clasps forearm just above elbow.



JUMP / LEAP etc.: Left hand held flat palm up, fingers pointing to the right. Right index and second finger makes inverted fork that 'stands' on right side of left hand and then 'jumps' up and lands on the left side of left hand.

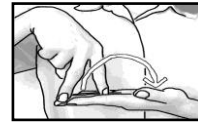


Figure 19. Iconic gestures for “tree” and “jump”. Gesture Dictionary (Bilbrough 2002b).

The use of gestures and its relevance in oral communication has been described previously (McNeill 2005, Clark 1996, Kendon 1994 and 2004). Suggestions of the utility of gesture for providing an alternative reference code for second language learning have been given by Gullberg 2006, Terrell 1986, Swain and Lapkin 1995 and Tulving and Thomson 1973. Others have carried out empirical research into the benefits of gestures in second language learning (Allen 1995, Taleghani-Nikazm 2008 and Sueyoshi and Hardison 2005). The use of kinaesthetics (motoric actions) and their role in the retention of new language and second language acquisition in an implicit language learning context has been thoroughly explored by Asher (1969, 2009) and Rike (1993). An artificial gesture system for grammar comprehension of English was designed by Lapaire (2006, 2013). Maxwell (2001) has created a full artificial hand gesture language to introduce and elicit the second language in the classroom for L2 teaching and acquisition purposes. (See State-of-the-Art above for more detailed analysis of this research.)

A summary of the basic procedure for implementing GW in the classroom (already described more fully in Methods) is the following.

i) The teacher presents all new language orally accompanied by pre-established gestures and subsequently gestures silently (Silent Sign) all recycled language.

ii) Students copy the teacher's gestures and repeat the new language orally and subsequently gesture, interpret and utter in chorus the spoken version all gestures proffered by the teacher.

This procedure requires students to produce “a kinaesthetic reaction to meaning” instead of using text in its “all too common role as a facilitator of material for speaking activities” (Bilbrough 2017:69). This is the formula suggested here to approximate an improved environment for retention and language acquisition.

#### *4.1.1. Direct Student Language Interaction (DSLII).*

Asher (2009) reiterates time and again the importance of retention of any given language item for successful language learning, yet without any specific reference to an interlanguage model such as was described originally by Selinker (1972). Interlanguage comprises “mental grammars [...] perceived as dynamic and subject to rapid change” (Ellis 2008:409). Therefore, in such a model lies the necessity, besides simply retaining the item in the mind, for frequent exposures to it in varying nuances on semantic, structural and always meaningful contexts so a learner may make readjustments to his/her interlanguage; a process called “mapping” (Slobin 1985). This mapping should lead to constant reappraisals of existing interlanguage knowledge.

With reference to semantic nuances for native Spanish beginners of English, deciding when the Spanish *reloj* refers to the English “clock” or “watch” could be an example. With regards to structural contexts, Spanish learners of English require many exposures to the verbs “say” and “tell” to distinguish between the preference for one or the other depending on whether they describe the direct or indirect complement. In other words, practical and communicative lexical usage cannot be acquired through unrelated single “snapshots” (simple retention) by the memory of each lexical item but involves

progressive, interrelated mapping onto the learner's interlanguage system over time and often many exposures.

The reference to “Direct Student Language Interaction” (DSLII) in the GW definition alludes partly to Asher's First Trial Learning Hypothesis (Asher 2009). The hypothesis explained that retention of lexis for rapid and long-term storage is greatly improved if connections between incoming data and its processing are immediate – a direct cause and effect scenario. Additionally, it has been argued above, this same cause and effect scenario must encourage interlanguage development through frequent (preferably accelerated in limited classroom contexts) recycling of holistic language. To achieve this ideal state where L2 affordances and student intake of language meet at the optimum point, a classroom SL teaching approach must contribute to the appropriate environment.

Jerome Bruner (1979), educational psychologist and philosopher, identified two styles of teaching – an “expository mode” approach and the “hypothetical mode”. The “expository mode” refers to "decisions covering the mode and pace and style of exposition are principally determined by the teacher as expositor; the student is the listener" – predominantly a passive role. However, the “hypothetical mode” suggests that "the teacher and the student are in a more cooperative position. Students are not bench-bound listeners, but ‘play the principal role in it’” (Bruner 1979:83). It is the learner as participator, problem solver, discoverer, engaged in “creative learning” who shall encounter a superior learning environment. Bruner underlines four headings which express the advantages of the hypothetical mode:

- the increase in intellectual potency,
- the shift from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards,
- the learning of heuristics through discovery,

- the aid to improving and conserving memory.

The following scenarios for DSLI are reflections on the union of the two above hypotheses; a juxtaposition between the interlanguage development scenario and the hypothetical mode of learning and a desire, on behalf of the teacher, to manoeuvre language classroom practices accordingly.

There must be an effort to avoid superfluous classroom activity which impedes direct contact with L2 and instead allows lesson content to drift into irrelevance. There are two plausible classroom environments that serve to reduce DSLI. One pertains to classroom management and the dynamics of instruction within the class. When students, and perhaps especially children, manipulate physical materials in the classroom such as coursebooks, pens, coloured pencils, rubbers and pencil sharpeners, a certain amount of class time is taken up with manipulation with no language practice or exposure to the L2. Furthermore, from the author's own perceptions, it has been noticed that children invariably use these "L2-absent" periods to exchange dialogue in the L1 so that focus on L2 is lost. The extent of L2-absent time due to poor classroom management can occupy a relatively large amount of a usual forty-five minute class. There is also the matter of "teacher talking time". How much of what the teacher says during class time is beneficial for language acquisition? Teacher talking time could possibly be substituted for more efficient periods where learners can engage in language more meaningfully and usefully – speaking in the L2 rather than listening to the teacher. Learners perhaps could be more actively engaged in exposure and contact with the new language if L2-absent periods were minimised.

The second plausible scenario when DSLI reduction occurs regards the learners' interaction with the teaching materials during periods of instruction such as text readings and prompts for writing, reading, speaking and listening tasks. To briefly

outline the issues, it is suggested here that text, often present in most activities whatever the skills being practised, detracts from direct interaction with meaning owing to its inefficiency to express its underlying sense to the learner. Written words in L2 are not intuitive to a child unfamiliar with them. This means that many classroom activities involve excessive glossing and gist reading so that not only is salience of the bulk of the text wanting, learners may remain unaware of the significance of a proportion of the text they are exposed to. The issues of text in SL learning classroom will be addressed later in this thesis.

##### *4.1.2. The functions of gesture input in GestureWay.*

The functions of the gestures in GW in the English language classroom are the following.

a) To offer learners “constant conceptual pegs” where meanings of every uttered word encountered can be “hung” (see Paivio, 1969:244 for conceptual pegs and State of the Art of this thesis).

b) To provide an improved DSLI environment for acquisition through gesture interpretation into utterances. Meanings from gestures are directly linked to spoken language while intermediary reference pegs such as L2 text or L1 translation are minimal.

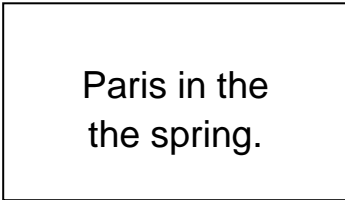
c) To accelerate recycling of oral L2 in the classroom and thereby increase the amount of exposure to lexis and structures within a given time (Maxwell 2001, Arnott 2005). This occurs through DSLI and the learner’s access to frequently repeated conceptual pegs of any given word created instantly (such are hand gestures) for eliciting language.

d) To ensure active, salient, cognitive interpretation rather than just passive literal transfer of gestures into meanings and their lexical renderings in oral English.

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

This is achieved through a headword-based gesture language. For example, the gesture for the verb “open” is also identical for: “opening”, “opens”, “opened” and a noun “book”. Gestures need interpreting, a feat possible for learners only through awareness of meaning and context. The act of interpreting affords noticing or salience of items within a sentence. If meaning and context are clear, learners can concentrate on correct interpretation, oral production and, in the case of grammar elements, construction. This is input-based instruction as discussed by Ellis (2008:873).

A casual reading of text can be misleading.



Paris in the  
the spring.

Many native speakers of English will state that the words they see in the above box is “Paris in the spring” (overlooking the repeated article). This may seem little more than a parlour trick but the concept illustrated here is that text is poor at inducing salience of the separate parts of a sentence if not highlighted (Schmitt 1990 and Yoshimura 2006). The tendency to skip words while reading explains how we can enjoy a novel in our mother tongue as written prose evokes feelings: emotions, atmosphere or excitement; sentiments which would be considerably dampened if we had to spend time and effort interpreting the textual make-up of the novel. This must also explain why English teachers choose to create cloze exercises of text for the students – to enhance salience. Yet by highlighting some words in a text, we remove the same from those words not highlighted – the holistic quality is lost. This discrete item highlighting approach could be useful for more advanced students with a well-developed communicative ability in the L2 as concentrating on a particular item may assist learners to build on their current interlanguage and apply it in fluency tasks. However, learners of an L2 still at a pre-

fluency level who have difficulties in producing full sentences in fluency production tasks will surely benefit little from input and practice based on discrete item salience on parts of a sentence. Learners at these low levels of fluency need to have access to an holistic input of the most common words (Nation 2001) that comprise all parts of a sentence. Input of discrete structure/lexis exercises only could be tantamount to offering learners a piece of a jigsaw in each class but removing those pieces offered in previous lessons so that learners never learn where they fit into the whole picture. Learners are unable to see the complete picture as they only study its separate parts in isolation, parts which seem irrelevant to communication without a global view of the language. GW is designed to offer both holistic and salient exposure of L2 across all items of a sentence (Bilbrough 2017). If we take up the previous analogy of the jigsaw, it could be said that in a given class GW offers only several pieces of the huge L2 jigsaw yet these pieces fit together to create a meaningful section, useful on its own and memorable (for example, all the vocabulary of a story). In subsequent classes, more pieces are added and fitted building a larger picture always recognisable and coherent and useful communicatively.

e) To promote a programme of learning and acquisition within the class time limits. During a GW class, acquisition takes place during exposure and interaction with language and while the class is in progress. Homework is not a revision of the material presented in class but should be an extension of it – if given at all<sup>10</sup>. Note-taking is greatly reduced or omitted altogether during the preliminary stages of the course so end-of-term, pre-examination revision ceases to constitute a requisite (or option) for learners to obtain successful results at evaluation. On the other hand, learners are required to be attentive and participate fully during class time.

---

<sup>10</sup> Explained in Methods, above, regarding homework tasks is the idea of asking the learners to view gesture videos pre-recorded by the TR or record Mp3 files of stories.

f) To provide a kinaesthetic environment for language to augment memory of L2 lexis (Anderson 1980, Allen 1985, Antes 1996, Al-shabbi 1993, Asher 1969, Bilbrough 2002, 2017, Gullberg 2006 and Maxwell 2001).

#### *4.1.3. Ideal student profile for GW.*

The preferred student profile for a GW course is for the following.

- Children between the ages of seven and eight years old for introductory courses with instruction continuing to eleven and twelve; a three to four-year course in total. If younger than six years old, learners would need a modified approach to GW due to the degree of metalinguistic knowledge required by learners.
- Children (within the above age range) who have either not received English instruction previously or who have previously followed a course that, by its nature, has not encouraged learners to speak and develop spoken fluency for communicative purposes or where spoken skills are weak compared to explicit knowledge of L2.
- Criteria from the above student profiles but within impoverished communities with a lack of resources and funding for materials such as student coursebooks, which are not required for a GW course. These communities could be in third world countries, for example.

## **4.2. Established language acquisition approaches relevant to GW.**

### *4.2.1. Input-based instruction.*

According to Ellis, input-based instruction is “directed at enabling learners to notice the presence of a specific feature in the input” (2008:873). Ellis and Pienemann have suggested that it is psycholinguistically easier to manipulate processes involved during intake than make alterations to existing interlanguage (Ellis 2008 and Pienemann 1985). Input-based instruction is in accordance with the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmitt



1990). This hypothesis states that language cannot be available for intake unless it is noticed consciously in some way. For example, it was found that when one group of learners read a text where the past tense of verbs was highlighted (enriched input), they were more likely to use those forms than the group who had read the same text without highlighting (Yoshimura 2006). Extensions of these theories are the pedagogical concepts of structured input (SI) and processing instruction (PI). The former, SI, unlike enriched input requires the learners to demonstrate an awareness of language processing at the moment of input. According to Ellis (1995) the awareness is brought about by using stimuli termed by Ellis as “interpretation tasks”, for example, choosing the right picture to match the meaning of the sentence, indicate true/false, check a box, draw a diagram or perform an action. VanPatten (2006) also argued in favour of the benefits of input-based instruction with his processing instruction (PI) approach. VanPatten and Oikennon (1996) explored PI through a series of experiments combining structured input activities and explicit information instruction in various ways. In one experiment he compared L2 acquisition in three groups of learners.

- 1) Learners received explicit instruction about a target structure followed by structured input activities.
- 2) Learners received explicit instruction only.
- 3) Learners received structured input activities only.

In a subsequent comprehension test, groups (1) and (3) performed markedly better. In the production test, group (1) performed better than (2). VanPatten and Oikennon believed that it was the structured input rather than the explicit instruction that had given rise to enhanced acquisition.

*4.2.2. Comprehensible Input Theory (and Output).*

“Comprehensible” in the above definition of GW refers to Krashen’s Input Hypothesis first published in 1977 (Krashen and Terrel 2000). This theory rejects the need for explicit language instruction in preference for input which is comprehensible to the learners plus items just beyond their scope or current knowledge. Krashen presented this idea by the formula of “ $i + 1$ ”, where  $i$  is current language knowledge. The requirement for this process to take place is a Language Acquisition Device that is able to assimilate L2 in the learner’s interlanguage for subsequent production. It must be noted here that Input Theory has received criticism. The most famous attack was by Merrill Swain, who posited in her Output Hypothesis (1985) that learners will also need to produce the language in fluency tasks so as to better identify gaps in their linguistic knowledge and rectify them. Thereby, without reducing the importance of input, Swain included output in a loop process between the two to offer a more complete explanation for acquisition. The comprehensible input – comprehensible output philosophy is embraced by the GW method.

*4.2.3. Holistic, accelerated input and the Frequency Hypothesis.*

For “accelerated” and “holistic” input, see the discussion on Maxwell (2001) and Arnott (2005) and the description of AIM in the State of the Art section of this thesis (sections 2.6.5. and 2.6.6.). Asher (2009) also refers to TPR as an “...approach [that] simulates, at a speeded up pace, the stages an infant experiences in acquiring its first language” (2009:17). “Accelerated” is also related to “frequency” of items in language input in that higher frequencies of items serve to accelerate their input. The Frequency Hypothesis (the relationship between frequency of items in input and acquisition order) and nuances of this hypothesis have been supported by Larsen-Freeman (1976), Lightbown (1983) and Long (1981). Palmberg (1987) found that the English words best

remembered by students in a Swedish school correlated to the most common items in the textbook. Elley (1989) found in a study that frequency was responsible for high vocabulary gains in stories read to seven and eight year olds.

If frequency of items presented in L2 classroom instruction is closely related to the items acquired by learners, by selecting those high-frequency words for input that occur naturally in English the teacher ensures students build up a relevant and useful lexical knowledge for communication. This was suggested by Arnott (2005:7), who is in favour of constant recurrence of high-frequency vocabulary, in this case of pared-down language (PDL) or simplified forms of high-frequency language such as used in AIM. She quotes Nation saying that this type of input “provides opportunities for different conditions of learning to occur which will eventually result in a good depth of knowledge for each high frequency word” (Nation 2001:388). Arnott also refers to Schmitt’s beliefs on this: “This explicit approach to vocabulary teaching is especially important when teaching beginning language learners, as students at this level should be provided with enough vocabulary to start making use of the words they know in diverse contexts” (Arnott 2005:10 on Schmitt, 2000). The belief that high-frequency words and PDL should comprise the vast bulk of lexical input for learners is supported and practised during the GW approach.

Nevertheless, the research by Goldschneider and DeKeyser (2001) revealed that other factors as well as frequency also influenced acquisition order such as syntactic category, semantic complexity, morphophonological regularity and perceptual salience. Again, we return to salience as mentioned earlier. This is an influential issue in acquisition related to input processing instruction and structured input as the teacher purposely allows learners to be conscious of the lexis and structures although not

necessarily involving explicit instruction in this process. GW through its nature of interpretation of gestures attempts salience across all elements of an entire sentence.

*4.2.4. Sequential grammar structure teaching and natural acquisition order.*

GW in the classroom provides attention-drawing exposure on form (as on lexis) while explanations or rule-quoting are relatively rare. Explained instruction on target language included in GW is carefully edited and purposely brief. The rationale behind minimising explicit instruction is based on conclusions that have evolved from studies such as Pienemann's (1998, 2005) and Processability Theory as well as follow-up research and comment by other teaching professional researchers in the literature regarding this.

Pienemann's theory states that a certain structure will only be used in the learner's L2 output if the appropriate processing procedures are available. Availability for acquisition of a particular structure occurs only after a previous structure has been successfully added to the learner's interlanguage. Pienemann disputes the concept described by Berwick and Wainberg (1984) who stated acquisition is a purely mathematical and logical problem and instead points out that the human mind is not an "unconstrained computational device" but that it "operates within human psychological constraints". The constraints refer to the learners' "processability" capacity of structures in the L2. "Once we can spell out the sequence in which language processing routines develop in the learner, we can delineate those grammars that are processable at different points of development" (Pienemann 2005:2). One quoted example is whether a learner has incorrectly learnt in English the zero copula option of equational sentences such as the following example.

"Me good".

(This mistake may occur for learners of English whose mother tongue is Arabic due to L1 transfer.) The choice of the zero copular option will thus have repercussions on the subsequent acquisition of inverted question forms in English such as:

"Am I good?"

because affirmative equational sentences develop before inversion in interrogative equational sentences. However, not all structural items require acquisition in a certain order and some may be available to the learner's interlanguage at any time. Pienemann goes on to say that knowledge of the structural development of students learning a second language can assist the teacher in deciding which structure to teach next (Teachability Hypothesis). The hypothesis "predicts that instruction can only promote language acquisition if the interlanguage is close to the point when the structure to be taught is acquired in the natural setting (so that sufficient processing prerequisites are developed)" (Pienemann 1985:37). Pienemann's Processability Theory offers a broad theoretical framework based on empirical studies with predictive powers to suggest when specific structures will be acquired. Pienemann carried out experiments where groups of advanced students received instruction on structures at one stage and two stages above initial language levels. His results showed that more acquisition had taken place with the group receiving instruction just one stage ahead. Indeed, the improvement was apparent in writing tests and the students' ability to explain the rules. However, the benefits were not evident during spontaneous production of the language (in Haley 2002:2). Notwithstanding, Pienemann certainly intended a practical teaching solution based on this theory that could be applied in the English language classroom when he states, "It is important to know what is learnable at what point in time" (Pienemann 1995:4). However, Pienemann, fails to provide the classroom practitioner with insights on how to teach the structures. Furthermore, as Haley points out: "These

findings are not generally presented in ways accessible or meaningful to teachers [...]" (2002:1). This comment must be especially relevant when a teacher studies Pienemann's natural acquisition order table set out in chapter nine of Pienemann's work (1985) and somehow attempts to relate the structure classification to the interlanguage levels of his or her own students.

Processability Theory, to some extent, reflects Krashen's Natural Order Hypothesis (2000) where items are said to be acquired in an order regardless of instruction by the teacher. Furthermore, Gass (1982) and Ellis and Larsen-Freeman (2007) with the "complex adaptive system" have argued that although instruction could assist learners in acquisition, the acquisition sequence will not change. However, Lightbown has stated that the practice of lesson-planning based on developmental sequences is "neither feasible nor desirable" (2000:443). Krashen recommended that teachers should refrain from attempting to time instruction to match learner's development due to the impracticability and complexity of the task. This could be especially true in a group of learners developing linguistically at different rates, which is often the case. The point about learner heterogeneity and that developmentally targeted teaching being impracticable has also been made by Lightbown (1998). Instead, Krashen suggested "comprehensible input" will be sufficiently unstructured for natural acquisition and by reducing error correction and explicit instruction the teacher allows "the natural order to take its course" (2000:59).

It begins to become clear from the well-documented cases for support of L2 natural order acquisition that there exists a contradiction regarding the benefits of the grammar structure order proposed by many classroom English-teaching coursebooks including the ones used in the school and academy where the experimental and control group learners studied. Furthermore, problems regarding implementation of natural

acquisition order arise from a teacher's inability to correctly identify the complexities of learner interlanguage development stages at a given time. For these reasons, GW does not support a strictly linear grammar-structured curriculum. However, a general reference to the structural items laid down in Piennemann's natural order acquisition tables (1985) and Krashen's Natural Order Hypothesis (2000) is adhered to. In a GW course, elementary learners of English are only exposed to those items considered acquirable at the early stages of language learning.

##### *4.2.5. Focus on Forms and Focus on Form.*

As Ellis explains, one reason that learners are not successful in reaching higher levels in the L2 is their inability to attend to form. This lack of progress occurs due to the learner's necessity to focus on the meaning of the message. Concentration focuses on key meaning words and subconsciously ignores grammar items such as prepositions, verb conjugations and syntax (Ellis 2008:827). The shift of emphasis to a more form-focused approach would seem appropriate. However, firstly, it is necessary to hone in on the definitions of Form Focused Instruction (FFI) and establish which type is most conducive to acquisition. In the literature, one finds the reference to Focus on Forms, where instruction is based on isolating grammar structures as well as notional and functional language and teaching them separately and systematically as part of a structural syllabus (Ellis 2008). This is the approach adopted by many schools in Spain which follow the layout of mass-produced coursebooks published by the large publishing houses such as Oxford, Cambridge, Pearson and Heinemann and national curriculum objectives. Such approaches may place substantial emphasis on these forms and they will be central to the material studied and evaluated in exams. Focus on Forms can, therefore, stray from a communicative and Direct Student Language Interaction

(DSLI) environment in the classroom and instead favours a rather academic-style grammar study and rote-learning of functional expressions.

However, Focus on Form (no “s”) is given a different definition in the literature: “Focus on Form often consists of an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features – by the teacher and/or one or more students – triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production” (Long & Robinson 1998:23). Michael Long offered a similar description: “[...] Focus on Form [...] overtly draws students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication” (Long 1991:45-46). Both Long (1991) and Doughty and Williams (1998) argue that guarantees of full acquisition will only occur if learners have the opportunity to engage in meaning-focused tasks while attending to form.

Ellis, while summarizing previous research on the long-term effects of FFI which dominated and precluded meaning in classroom tasks has this to say: “There is [...] sufficient evidence to suggest that instruction does not *always* have a long term effect” (Ellis 2008:867). Lightbown went further and stated: “when form-focused instruction is introduced in a way which is divorced from the communicative needs and activities of the students, only short-term effects are obtained” (Lightbown 1992 in Ellis 2008:867). In other words, forms must be included with meaningful tasks and the students “may also need subsequent and possibly continuous access to communication that utilizes the target features after the instruction has ceased” (Ellis 2008:867).

We return inevitably to the points made earlier in this thesis regarding “noticing” and “salience”. Schmidt, quoted in Harley, stated the following regarding conscious experience of noticing as a “registration of the occurrence of a stimulus event in conscious awareness and subsequent storage in long term memory” (Schmidt in Harley 1988:179). Schmidt goes on to say, “target language forms will not be acquired unless



they are noticed and that one important way that instruction works is by increasing the salience of target language forms in input so that they are more likely to be noticed by learners” (Schmidt 1994:195). Similarly, Doughty (2001) contends “the factor that distinguishes Focus-on-Form from other pedagogical approaches is the requirement that [it] involves learners briefly and perhaps simultaneously attending to form, meaning and use during one cognitive event” (2001:211). Finally, in Ellis’s appraisal (2008) of Focus on Form research and the relevance of the empirical findings to that date, he assures the reader the conclusions bear testimony to the practical importance of techniques involving Focus on Form in the classroom. He attacks Sheen (2003), who criticised SLA researchers for advocating this approach for the language classroom stating there was insufficient empirical evidence to support these claims. Ellis counters Sheen’s objections using as evidence the above empirical studies, and states: “He is clearly wrong” (Ellis 2008:833).

The GW dynamic utilises the Focus on Form practice via the implementation of gestures. The need for the gestures to be interpreted, essentially promotes salience of lexis and structural items within meaningful sentences. Meaning predominates throughout and whenever explicit instruction is introduced in the classroom, it does so within a communicative interaction environment.

#### **4.3. The role of text in language learning and GW.**

Due, in part, to DSLI considerations, the author has withdrawn the use of text in the classroom during approximately ninety percent of class time of the experimental course. In fact, the initial preference was for an even smaller percentage of class time dedicated to writing tasks or none whatsoever for a determined period such as in AIM’s Gesture Approach (The Brampton Guardian 2002. Internet source). However, as it has been decided to evaluate learners during this experiment also via written tests and not

just orally, text will be introduced for a greater proportion of class time. It is assumed that exposure to the written word for comparative evaluation purposes with control groups is essential otherwise learners will not be able to transcribe their L2 on paper.

Text is the usual reference medium employed in elementary level English language classes in Spanish schools. It is used as a meaning “receiver” usually accompanied initially by a visual referent which transfers meaning to it. Words of text serve as “reference pegs” (rather than conceptual pegs) on which to “hang” or record meaning and are used subsequently to elicit L2 lexis in future exposures. Learners are expected to recognise and respond to the meanings of words of text in order to participate in L2 activities that take place in the classroom. Text used in this way in English language instruction before the experiment started was frequent to predominant in all the English classes of the groups (see teacher questionnaires – enclosed CD).

One problem with text in SL learning classrooms at beginner and elementary levels is that it is a poor medium for revealing meaning to the learner. Text offers the low-level student with few or no clues to its meaning due to its non-pictorial nature. A written word as a reference peg could be classed as an “empty peg” as written words in L2 may still not reveal meaning to beginners even after one or more exposures.

The experimental and control groups in *Pedro Primero* followed a single coursebook of Twister 5 and 6 respectively (Richmond Publishing 2007), which employed the commonly-used approach for introducing all L2 lexis by means of an image plus the written word for meaning association. In the example below, taken from the fifth year course book in *Pedro Primero*, Twister 5, (Figure 20) the rubric of Exercise 1 reads “match the picture with the word” (Blair *et.al* 2007:14). The inclusion of textual versions of new vocabulary during presentation adds a potential distraction to the retention and acquisition processes by asking learners to transfer meaning from the

#### 4. Theoretical considerations

visual aid to the written word. In *Pedro Primero*, students were required to record this written vocabulary in notebooks for future revision invariably with a text translation alongside in Spanish, which could add an additional distraction by diverting L2 lexis exposure to L1 equivalents. Indeed, the necessity to include the written translation is vital and understandable. Without the semantic association of a new L2 word recorded in some form of annotation, during future revision the learner could rely on no or little indication from the written word itself as to its meaning. Furthermore, it has been said that “we write things down so we don’t have to remember”<sup>11</sup>. One can imagine the temptation to free one’s mind of the burden of memory by feeling reassured that the information is safely stored away in a notebook until pre-exam revision time.




















**WORD PRACTICE**

**Face:**  
eyes  
ears  
nose  
mouth  
skin

**Hair:**  
dark  
fair  
short  
long  
curly  
straight

**Body:**  
strong  
weak  
thin  
fat  
tall

**1 Match the pictures and the words.**

				
<b>E</b>				
<b>F</b>				
<b>G</b>				
<b>H</b>				

**2 Listen to the song.**

**006**

He's tall and he's strong.  
He isn't fat.  
He can jump and swing.  
But he can't sing.

He's 006.  
He's a hero.  
He's 006.  
He's a hero.

He's got curly hair.  
He hasn't got blue eyes.  
Oh, no. Surprise!  
He's in disguise!




Figure 20. First page of Unit 1 (Twister 5, Richmond Publishing 2007).

<sup>11</sup> I believe this was stated in a work by the late Dave Willis of Task-Based Learning fame though I can no longer find the reference.

The images in the textbook, bright and attractive though they may be, will hereafter be discarded as they have served their purpose. Imagery is used here only provisionally to rouse learners' interest in the material and the lesson and associate meaning to textual words. Unlike artificial memory devices (Yates 1966 and Paivio 1969) which insisted on consistency of the same conceived image to enhance memory and serve as conceptual pegs and even Comenius's *Orbis Sensualism Pictus* (1658), where the student had only one visual referent per lexical item, modern-day coursebook design offers learners multiple variations in imagery to represent the same vocabulary item. Indeed, such a vast diversification in form and colour must motivate and stimulate the learner's interest in the subject matter yet perhaps the original function of imagery as aide-memoire; meaning instantly "foaming" from image, has been lost.

Neither does the association of text with utterance provide the learner with a significant, intuitive or useful relationship. In the case of L2 English, the comparison could be misleading for native Spanish learners owing to phonetic inconsistencies between the two languages. On the other hand, a learner may read a word aloud with near-perfect pronunciation but not attributable to his/her former knowledge but owing to phonetic coincidence between L1 and L2. For example, a Spanish learner of English could render a fully comprehensible oral version of the following without understanding or even having ever encountered the words during previous study:

"Tim sat on a mat".

Text-based instruction in the classroom setting, therefore, presents drawbacks not only in L2 acquisition for the beginner/elementary learner but also for the teacher's efforts to evaluate learners' knowledge and progress from text-generated student utterances in the classroom. Conversely and confusingly for the teacher, a learner may read text aloud

with full comprehension of meaning and accurate pronunciation owing to correct knowledge so that a second learner could read aloud:

“Tim sat on a mat”

fully comprehending its meaning yet be indistinguishable from the student who is oblivious of the meaning of the utterance. Text is therefore defective and counter-productive as an L2 eliciting tool as the teacher cannot accurately assess student knowledge or progress of L2 through utterances read from text. The teacher must accept that speaking activities in the classroom involving text are contrived and provide inexact feedback on student interlanguage and communicative ability.

Figure 21 shows the following exercise in the aforementioned coursebook.

**3 Listen and repeat.**

**Conversation Corner**



**Answer the questions.**

**4 Listen and guess who.**

**The Secret Agent Game**



**Play the game.**

Figure 21. Second page of Unit 1 (Twister 5, Richmond Publishing 2007).

The page comprising Figure 21 makes up a double-page spread in the coursebook (Blair *et.al* 2007:14, 15) with Figure 20 and is part of the same lesson. Having completed the lexis presentation and revision exercise on body parts and descriptive adjectives, learners listen to, read and repeat the written conversation in exercise 3. Once completed, learners listen to an example activity of Exercise 4 where a secret agent is described and are asked to continue the game in pairs following the guideline of “describe and guess”. The format suggested by the coursebook for this unit, and similarly with the remaining seven units of this coursebook and the following coursebook in the same series for the sixth year control group was adhered to by the *Pedro Primero* teacher.

It is apparent that the subsequent spoken dialogues that students participate in through pair-work will be based on the written example dialogue clearly visible during production. Students need only substitute a minimum number of words from the dialogue describing one’s “mum” or “brother” to be able to carry out, seemingly successfully to the casual listener, the description of a secret agent. Surely, there is little merit in a production exercise of this kind when every word that learners require for the spoken production task is visibly available to reference on the double-page spread before them. It could be argued that this is a “controlled production” exercise yet no further Complete Production activity is offered in the student’s book. Furthermore, if learners were then asked to engage in a similar dialogue without the assistance of the text and relying on pictures only, the challenge could be enormous and even more so if asked to repeat the activity without text assistance in a future class after time has elapsed and items memorised incidentally have faded from memory. In the exercises in Figure 21, learners are dependent on the abundant text evidence in full sentences together with convenient phonetic clues to make utterances. It should also be pointed

that the text offers no apparent salience on lexis or structures and draws little on learner cognition, which might assist retention, to complete the task<sup>12</sup>.

In the light of comments formerly discussed above, we can summarise the following regarding the pitfalls of text as a reference peg approach (here with specific reference to the example exercises in Figures 20 and 21).

Table 3: summary of issues and possible consequences of text use in elementary L2 level class settings.	
Issue	Possible consequence
a) In exercise 1, learners engage in a language presentation task based on transferring meaning to written words, which carry no conceptual meaning – “empty pegs”.	(i) Learners tend to record new language in the same written form and include written translation to reveal L2 meaning in the future. A notebook of the new language becomes the storage medium rather than the learner’s interlanguage.
b) In exercises 3 and 4, learners are engaged in a spoken language exercise referring to pegs (text) without clear meaning attached.	(ii) Learners may not understand all the utterances they produce.  (iii) The teacher cannot know (for evaluation purposes) if learners understand their own utterances.
c) In exercises 3 and 4, learners make constant reference to the phonetic clues provided by written text in order to produce utterances.	(iv) The activity is passive. There is no salience on items within the text making few demands on learner cognition to internalise or acquire language.  (v) Students could pronounce incorrectly as the written reference (encountered more frequently) obscures the spoken utterance, to which learners have had little exposure.  (vi) See (iii) above.

#### 4.4. Alternative means to present and elicit L2 – fluctuating and constant conceptual pegs.

The role of Total Physical Response (TPR) in essentially substituting text and replacing it with actions is discussed in the sections on Asher and TPR in State of the

<sup>12</sup> Admittedly, it is possible to add “noticing” to text as Schmitt (1990) and (Yoshimura 2006) have suggested. However, the argument the author is presenting here is that salience on some parts of the text diminishes salience on those parts not highlighted and salient exposure is necessary on all parts of a sentence if elementary-level learners are to acquire sufficient language for complete production.

Art (section 2.6.1.). Also pointed out is that TPR actions do not embody a systematic code representing a faithful parallel to the words of a written sentence, rather they are a “compositional representation”; a kinaesthetic performance carried out by the learner which relates to an overall meaning and can be described by a full-sentence utterance. In a similar way, Gattegno’s Silent Way utilises Cuisenaire rods to input and elicit full holistic language from learners who glean meanings entirely from the positioning of the rods on the table and produce utterances only from these stimuli.

Nevertheless, for the teacher to be able to elicit language, learners must first be able to retain it. Interestingly, neither the action performances of Asher’s approaches nor the Cuisenaire rod patterns are intentionally consistent. The visual aspect of these actions and rod patterns may vary from class to class in execution or appearance. These techniques do not consider necessary a constancy of the conceptual reference pegs employed for language presentation and eliciting. It could be said that these eliciting stimuli are “fluctuating conceptual pegs”. The success, according to Asher, in the learners’ ability to remember lexis and items and respond successfully to future eliciting of language stems from the influence of "sensory input" provided by actions which are "converted into information" and "placed in long-term storage for retrieval anytime in the future" (1977:18). On the other hand, Gattegno (1987) claims that rather than memorisation, retention for eliciting is a “complex intellectual activity based on the use of affectivity, perception and actions, always in close contact with students' images and imagination” (1987:1).

In Allen’s experiment (section 2.5.3.), she involved the use of “emblematic” gestures, again pertaining to the compositional representation genre but constant in their execution. Exactly the same gesture was used to represent the same meaning and subsequently assist learners recall and produce the idiomatic expressions in L2 French.



#### 4. Theoretical considerations

Similarly, Maxwell (2001) through AIM also designed pre-conceived gestures which are repeatedly used with the intention of eliciting language through their recognition just as the words of a book are unchanging and fixed to their meaning. This fixed gesture to meaning relationship can be termed as a “constant conceptual peg”.

The author mentions here what could be termed a “forerunner” of the gesture conceptual peg tools. It is important due to its influence on the author’s conception of the GW approach. William Chuckney with his Skeleton Approach (1987) must have been aware of a need to increase the immediacy between meaning and utterance by designing a pictorial code illustrated on cards to elicit full sentences from learners. Many of the cards represent single words so that all parts of the sentence could be displayed for oral production and meaning. With this approach DSLI is closely approximated (Figure 22).

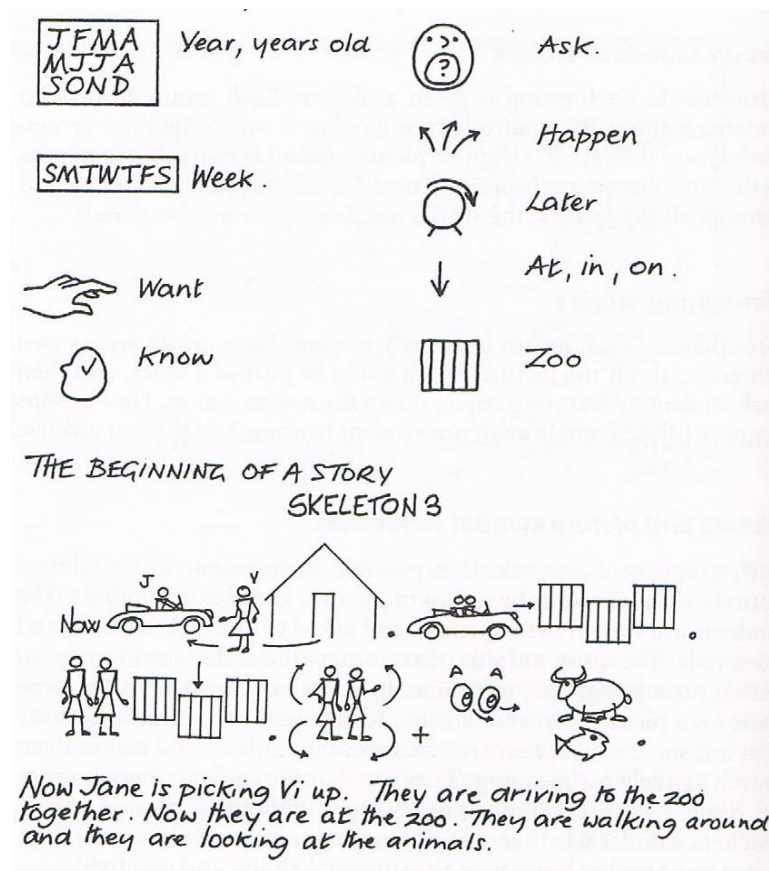


Figure 22. Chuckney’s constant conceptual pegs in Wright (1989:88) on the Skeleton System.

Chuckney advocated the importance of the same reusable visuals as constant conceptual pegs and aide-memoire to meaning (see Propositional Representation Theory, Anderson 1980 and section 2.6.2.). The students could call out the words without the need to reference text, a task facilitated by employing the same cards and symbols in successive classes so that learners build a semantic or conceptual bond between the visuals and spoken English words. Furthermore, learners were asked to create their own stories prompted from an array of cards representing mixed fluctuating and constant conceptual pegs organised on the table (see bottom section of Figure 22). Such a dynamic bears a remarkable similarity to Gattegno's Silent Way, where a certain amount of interpretation of the rod patterns is encouraged. Used with sufficient frequency, such visuals render the recording of words in notebooks less necessary as language can be elicited from learners' interlanguage directly from the visuals. Chuckney designed and employed over a hundred and fifty of these cards in his classes for elementary-level students. Nevertheless, from the author's personal experimentation with this approach before developing GW, manipulating cards of this type and placing them in the correct order for oral production entailed much forward planning by the teacher. Eliciting spontaneous utterances for eliciting is slow and cumbersome to implement in the classroom setting. By transferring the icons to gestures, the teacher commands greater flexibility and input velocity by providing instant constant conceptual pegs for the learners to "read".

The most eminent examining bodies in SL teaching reflect the importance of reading and writing in their examination format. Editors of English language coursebooks and examinations from Cambridge University insist on an equal appraisal of "the four skills", reading, writing, speaking and listening, awarding twenty-five percent of marks to each skill. This examining body evaluation system is also respected

at the lower levels of A1 and A2 for school children. According to Asher and his initially text-absent teaching approach, Total Physical Response, learners are very adept at transferring the L2 acquired through speaking and listening to writing and reading skills (Asher in Ellis 2008:849 and Asher 2009). Similar philosophies regarding the superiority of spoken language over written are implied by Gattegno 1972 and Maxwell 2001). On the topic of bilingual education Krashen (1996) states: “If a child learns how to read in one language, that child knows how to read, and that general ability will facilitate learning to read in another language” (Krashen 1996:23). At elementary levels for young children where no familiarity with pragmatics or registers is needed, one wonders at the term “skill” applied to reading and writing in the L2. Knowledge of reading and writing in English at elementary levels demands none of the interlanguage development of L2 acquisition. Writing English (especially for Spanish learners who share the same Roman alphabet) only requires the student to learn how to transcribe their L2 oral skills into text form. Reading of English that has already been mastered orally is simply the recognition of the English phonetic system or even just intuiting an approximation to it<sup>13</sup>. Surely, L2 writing and reading should be demoted to “pseudo-skills” at elementary levels. The emphasis and bulk of instruction time should be placed on the far more time-consuming practice of the oral and communicative skills. These naturally include what is commonly termed as the “listening skill” and the development of language acquisition.

The use of text in English language instruction in Spanish schools is probably not considered among teachers as the implementation of any specific tool or acquisition aid. Many must regard text as an integral part of the language and therefore inseparable from the English language teaching process. For others, text may also be deemed

---

<sup>13</sup> This reference to “an approximation” suggests that learners do not require an accurate knowledge of L2 orthography to be able to read correctly. Reading takes place during a process of a combination of deciphering phonetic clues in the text and intuition based on context.

inevitable and as playing an essential role in language teaching due to the absence of any other reference peg available. A peg system to transmit, maintain and elicit meaning in classroom L2 environments is essential in contexts where time is limited and the teacher must focus on core lexis and structures to ensure progression and measure progress through a set curriculum. The criticism of text usage in English language teaching in the preceding paragraphs could therefore be considered destructive, unnecessary and even pointless if there were not alternative peg systems available to the teacher. Yet alternative systems have been successfully employed for the classroom and in some cases have been well-researched with regards to their effectiveness. TPR and its motoric actions were the subject of “a number of studies” (Ellis 2008:849) and see Asher (1977) for a review. The Silent Way and its Cuisenaire rods (Gattegno 1972), although lacking formal research, is practised relatively widely in SL teaching with apparent enthusiasm (Stevick 2007) and has therefore stood the test of time.

The underpinning components of the gesture tool in GW are constant conceptual pegs. The gestures transfer the communication mode from text on a page to recognisable symbols drawn in the air. The participators in a GW class are obliged to put their coursebooks aside and engage with an interlocutor who speaks through an ephemeral array of silent pictorial meanings. Meanings that must be grasped by the mind before they are gone. Meanings that each learner threads together like beads on a string to create a bigger more complete picture. Where is this story going? What is going to happen next? The dynamic should be powerfully engaging. Learners' levels of awareness and attention are raised to interpret the symbols parading before their eyes not only at a word level but also on a metalinguistic, conceptual and global comprehension plane. So in a GW class, there exists a consistent synthesis of language; it is broken down to its bare bones. Yet unlike any grammar-based method, the

#### 4. Theoretical considerations

language is not analysed for the language's sake but uniquely for the purpose of comprehension of meaning. This is the ideal of those defenders of Focus of Form. An attempt to find the balance between communication and form, where form does not impinge on meaning but is salient enough to be noticed. In this respect, the constant conceptual gesture peg dynamic extols all the virtues of this ideal. Learners' engagement with language during GW should be conducive to learning, or better still acquisition, thanks to the sheer amount of condensed cognitive and motoric involvement taking place.

## **5. RESULTS.**

### **5.1. Test evaluation considerations and design.**

The marking system to be employed overall had to be adapted to show a progressive scale between pre-test and post-test (either ascending, descending or static) in the accumulation of English grammatical morphemes, lexical knowledge and communicative ability and not solely an evaluation of L2 correctness at two distinct and disjointed points in time. In other words, both tests, pre- and post- must reflect results that are relative and comparable to one another to detect learner interlanguage tendencies, morpheme additions and learner strategies acquired for communication from the beginning of the experimental course to its termination. To achieve these objectives, certain parameters had to be respected which would affect the nature of the tests. These parameters will be detailed throughout this Results section.

#### *5.1.1. Pre-test rubric design and rationale of written pre-test design.*

The objective of the written pre-test was to glean whether students had an awareness of certain L2 structures and to what extent they were able to use them correctly. Rubric clarity is paramount to avoid the variable of instruction ambiguity (Bachman and Palmer 2009). The first precaution taken in this regard was to write the instruction rubric in Spanish for clearer comprehension on the question's objective. Secondly, each question in the pre-test offers the test-taker an example or model in the rubric to avoid confusion regarding how to answer the question. The model must be real and relevant to the question content to avoid ambiguity through inappropriateness. However, an example of this nature immediately provides the test-taker with insights into the answers required for each question and simple transfer of the model in the rubric is plausible and likely. This is especially the case with questions where there are

only two morpheme options to be chosen from<sup>14</sup>. To circumvent this obstacle, the question format is so designed that transfer of the model throughout will only give a correctness result of 1/5 or 2/5 but never 3/5 or higher. All scores, therefore, of 2/5 or lower will result in a fail on that question and an assumption that the learner has no knowledge of that structure. Where a 3/5 minimum was scored a P for PASS was given. The questions were so designed that a 3/5 or more must show the test-taker possessed some knowledge of the structure in question; either a partial (3/5, 4/5) or a fully accurate answer (5/5).

### **5.2. The pilot test.**

To implement the criteria described above, a preferred version of the rubric was necessary. If the intention of the pre-test is to detect previous exposure to structures, then the test-taker must receive the maximum insight possible into the nature of that morphemic structure with the minimum provision of intuitive clues or guesswork possibilities which assist the test-taker in answering correctly. The author questioned the English teachers at *Pedro Primero*, revised the latest school evaluation tests of the experimental and control groups and studied past and current English coursebooks students had been using in class (Beep series and later the Twister series, Richmond Publishing 2007). The author had thus gleaned definite insights into the materials students had studied or had been exposed to previously but could not be certain of their ability to reproduce the structures in the preferred test format proposed for the pre-test.

It was necessary to obtain evidence that the test-takers could provide test results that reflected their morphemic recognition with the preferred rubric and that it would not be too difficult or exclusive (rubric 2). With this objective in mind, a second rubric,

---

<sup>14</sup> Examples of two-option questions in the pre-test were: *don't / doesn't, is / are, do / does*.

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

considered less exclusive and more accessible for test-takers, was designed (rubric 1) (each test offering five questions on the same morphological items).

### Rubric 1:

a) Respuestas cortas negativas y afirmativas. Contesta a estas preguntas. Utiliza estas palabras: *do / does / don't / doesn't*

1) Does Lucy have a computer?

Yes, she \_\_\_\_\_.

2) etc.

### Rubric 2:

a) Respuestas cortas negativas y afirmativas. Rellena los espacios para contestar a estas preguntas<sup>15</sup>.

Ejemplo:

Do you go to school on Sundays?

No, I don't.

1) Does Lucy have a computer?

Yes, she \_\_\_\_\_.

2) etc.

In rubric 1, all possible answers are given whereas in rubric 2 only one answer is provided but within a model answer. Rubric 2 would be a preferred version because if test-takers answered using the other items required (*do, does, doesn't*), strong evidence of previous exposure to these structures is evident. Rubric 1 offers all the possibilities for the test and therefore it is open for answers based on conjecture or guessing rather than previous knowledge. The results with rubric 1, theoretically, could be less indicative of true test-taker morpheme awareness. Notwithstanding, if test-takers were

---

<sup>15</sup> Translations of the rubrics (not included) are: a) Short answers, negative and affirmative. Answer these questions. Use these words; b) Short answers, negative and affirmative. Fill in the spaces to answer these questions. Example.



unable to complete questions with the preferred rubric 2, there would be a danger that the entire pre-test could fail to deliver any useful data.

For these reasons, a pilot test was given to determine test-takers' ability to answer tests with these rubrics. A test including only the use of *do, does, don't, didn't* structures in short answers (eg. *yes, I do; no, he doesn't*, etc.) was administered to courses 5A and 5B at *Pedro Primero* (classes containing the experimental students). A full pilot test on all the structures to appear in the pre-test could obviously not be given as this would offer further exposure to the structures and have possible influence on the outcomes of the real pre-test given shortly afterwards. Only fifty students from the fifth year were available for testing so at least some experimental students had to be included in the pilot test. A pilot test on all the morphemes planned for pre-test was considered not necessary as the acquisition of the *do, does, don't, doesn't* structures happens at a similar stage as the other morphemes under test due to their similarity<sup>16</sup>. Half of each class received the test with rubric 1 and the other half with rubric 2 – twenty tests with each rubric. Instructions were given to the teacher to distribute the tests randomly and provide no help to test-takers with instruction guidance.

The results were enlightening. Test-takers following the preferred rubric 2 actually performed slightly better than those following rubric 1. The differences between scores can be categorised as insignificant. Even if the tests were marked permitting only marks of >2, 13/20 test-takers passed with rubric 1 and 11/20 with rubric 2. Both scenarios offered similar results which suggested that the validity of the rubric 2 test was suitable and could therefore be included in the pre-test design.

---

<sup>16</sup> There are exceptions here of structures acquired at later stages in acquisition and also included in the pre-test (see pre-test structures in list below). It was discovered, through interviews with the students' teachers, that the control sixth year group had studied more question words, present continuous, "going to" for future and past simple regular and irregular verbs – structures apparently unknown to the experimental group also among the academy students. However, it was assumed that the fifth year experimental group would simply leave these questions blank anyway. No pilot test was given to the control group.

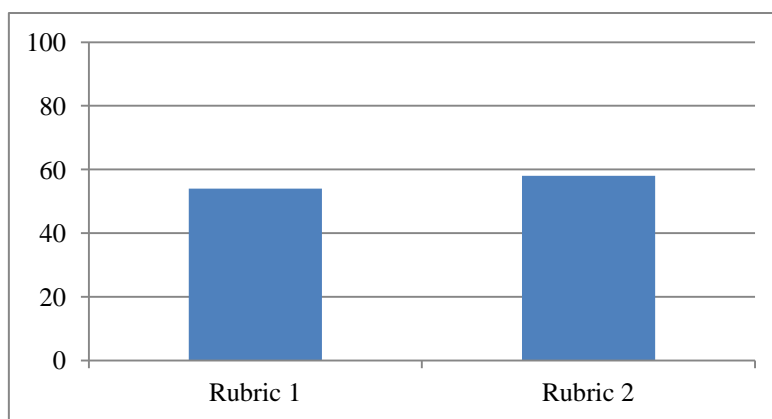


Figure 23. Total number of correct answers out of a hundred scored by fifth year students with each rubric of pilot test.

### 5.3. The written pre-test.

As was mentioned above, the morphemic and lexical items included in the pre-test were those studied by either both fifth and sixth year groups or the sixth year group only. The same items were intended as structures for inclusion in the experimental course content. Below is a list of the structures for the pre-test (see annexe A8. for complete test design).

- a) Present simple affirmative phrases (3rd person 's').
- b) Verb forms (gerund, 3rd person 's').
- c) Present simple question forms + infinitive use (distinguishing between *do* and *does* and use of infinitive after auxiliary).
- d) Present simple questions with verb *to be* (distinguishing between *is* and *are*).
- f) Negative forms of verbs (distinguishing between *isn't* and *aren't*).
- g) Present continuous for actions in the present (distinguishing between present simple and continuous).
- h) Past tense of verbs (two regular and three irregular verbs to conjugate in past simple).
- i) Reading comprehension (read a text and answer questions).
- j) Controlled written composition (reading a text in 3rd person as a model and writing a similar one in 1st person following the model).
- k) Identifying question words (using correct question words: *how*, *who*, *what time*, etc.)
- l) "Going to" phrases for future plans (constructing phrases with *going to*).

Figure 24. Test description. Morpheme structures tested in pre-test.

### 5.3.1. Results of written pre-test.

A glance at the written pre-test results per test-taker's performance provides evidence of control group superiority in morpheme awareness and knowledge (Figure 25).

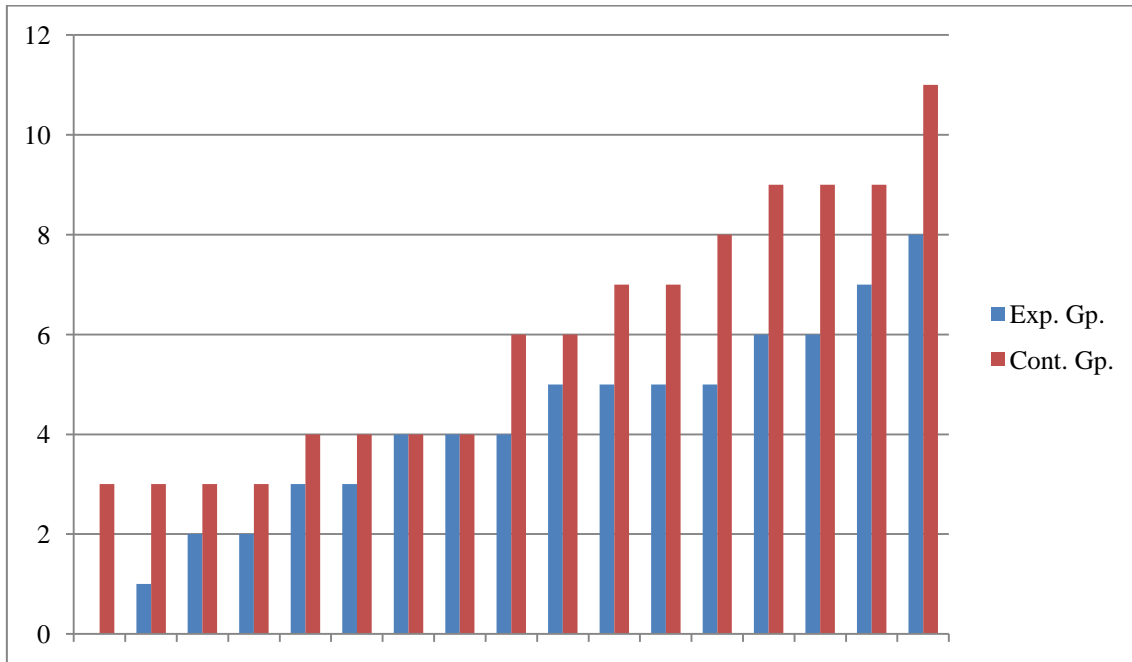


Figure 25. Results of written pre-test per test-taker arranged in ascending order for both groups (17 test-takers <sup>17</sup>.)

However, the results of the written pre-test displayed according to morpheme structure showed that although some students from both groups had awareness of the majority of the morphemic structures under test, the experimental group showed a slightly higher number of test-takers with morpheme awareness than the control group in 6 of the morphemes (see Figure 26).

<sup>17</sup> Originally there were 19 test-takers in the experimental group but as two students left the course before its conclusion, those two pre-tests have been omitted to facilitate later comparisons during post-testing.

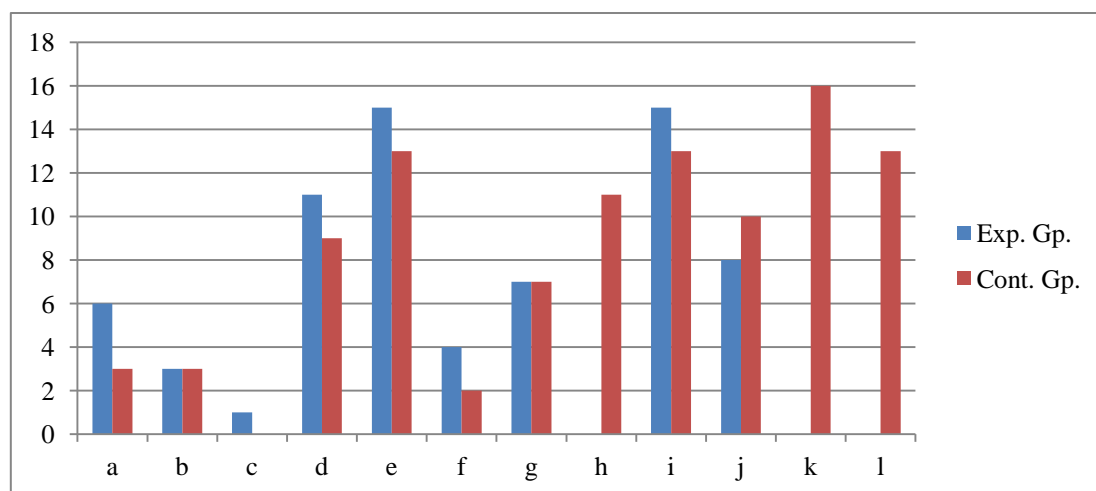


Figure 26. Pre-test. Number of test-takers (maximum 17) in the experimental and control groups who scored a pass for each of the tests a to l. See Figure 24 for test description.

The weakest morpheme knowledge area was question construction (c) with only one student (experimental) showing adequate awareness to gain a pass. The overall number of test-takers passing the reading comprehension and writing sections (i and j) was equal. Nevertheless, the control group produced similar scores to the experimental group except in three categories where the control group had relatively high numbers of test-takers who showed morpheme knowledge and the experimental group no awareness at all. These morpheme categories were the following.

- Past simple (h)
- Question words (k)
- “Going to” for plans (l)

This last result was not surprising, as the experimental group had not received formal instruction on past tense of verbs or “going to” neither in *Pedro Primero* nor at the academy.

For reasons unknown, the control group did not show significantly more test-takers with higher scores than the experimental group across the whole test spectrum despite being a year older than those learners involved in the experiment. One reason for this might have been that the majority of students who elected to enrol on the

experimental programme did so out of high levels of interest in learning English and therefore were motivated and more skilled learners. The control group students selected for participation in the control was done at random (alphabetical order on class register). (This point is taken up in more detail later.) Another reason could reflect the linearity of structure teaching at *Pedro Primero* and that the most recent materials taught in the English classes were those that learners remembered best.

Despite the lack of overall control group supremacy, test-taker number differences showing awareness of the items tested between the two groups could be classed as “not significant” with a clear number of control group test-takers with sole awareness on three test items. Furthermore, if the global score of all tests passed is taken into consideration, the control group shows clear dominance between the two groups in L2 ability and should be deemed more linguistically advanced than their younger counterparts of the experimental group (see Figure 27).

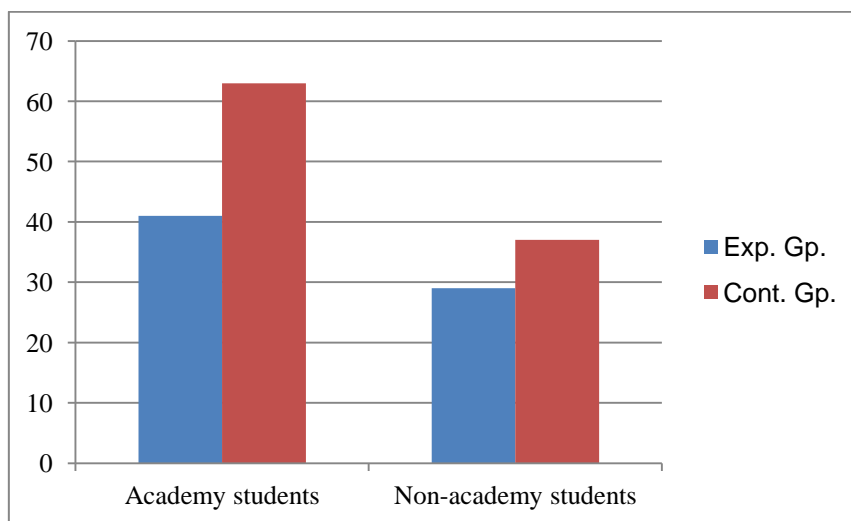


Figure 27. Number of tests passed in written pre-test. Showing students who also attended English academy and those with no extra private English tuition.

Another distinct feature of the pre-test results is the apparent disparity in morpheme awareness and L2 ability between those test-takers attending the local English academy and those receiving no extra private tuition in English (Figure 27). This occurrence was envisaged after enrolment had taken place meaning that a

pronounced level divide would need to be addressed during the course – an issue taken up later in this thesis.

#### **5.4. The speaking pre-test.**

The speaking pre-test (see annexe A8.2. for score sheet) was carried out by the author as examiner. Test-takers were examined in pairs (see Methods). The oral test was recorded on an Mp3 recorder for later analysis and more accurate scoring. The focus for evaluation of the speaking tests was on strategies learners acquire for communication (lexis richness, conjunctions, sentence building ability, etc.) and mostly at the sentence level rather than accuracy in morpheme usage.

The parts of the test were:

- an initial simple object naming session to relax students,
- a list of short personal questions based on suggestions from *Pedro Primero* coursebook (mostly functional phrases featured in coursebook: “what’s your name?”, “where are you from?”, “How many brothers and sisters have you got?” etc.),
- a brief story-telling session based on a three-section comic strip.

The whole exam for both test-takers lasted approximately ten minutes.

##### *5.4.1. Evaluation strategies adopted for the experimental test material.*

The rationale behind the marking strategy of the tests for the experiment was to avoid marking through error detection only. Bachman and Palmer (2009) have pointed out the pitfalls to this approach and described some of the complications (2009:196). Ellis (2008) discusses the issues of Error Analysis with reference to overt and covert errors where the sentence:

*“I runned all the way”*

is overt and easy to identify. Yet the rendering:

*“It was stopped”*

is grammatically correct until the context is discovered; the subject pronoun “it” refers to “the wind” (covert error). Ellis quotes Corder who states that “every sentence is to be regarded as idiosyncratic until shown to be otherwise” (Corder 1967:21 in Ellis 2008:49). However, the overt-covert division is plagued with exceptions and complicated variances that defy reliable interpretation when the test-taker is absent and not available for consultation. Ellis (2008) quotes the example:

*“One day an Indian gentleman, a snake charmer, arrived in England. He was coming from Bombay.”*

Ellis suggests that the preferred form is “He had come”, however, “He was coming” is possible if the speaker wishes to emphasise the duration of the action. On the other hand, an analysis of a corpus of errors committed by Indian native learners of English would reveal the frequent overuse of the progressive forms (2008:49). Notwithstanding, does this mean the evaluator can never give the test-taker the benefit of the doubt and that all ambiguous progressive uses must inevitably be wrongly construed?

The problem is further exacerbated when testing is oral and pronunciation is not clearly distinguished at delivery: verb endings, for example, such as third person “-s” or regular verb “-ed” suffixes are cases in point especially with Andalusian learners of English. If the evaluator considers all renderings idiosyncratic and marks negatively accordingly as Corder suggests, assessment becomes impartial and individualistic, favouring learners with clearer diction rather than basing appraisal on learner acquisition levels. Ellis points out Corder’s suggestion (1967) that there should be a distinction between “errors” and “mistakes” where the latter is a “performance phenomenon and are, of course, regular features of native-speaker speech, reflecting processing failures that arise as a result of competing plans, memory limitations, and a lack of automaticity” (Ellis 2008:48). Ellis summarises criticism of strategies adopted

for Error Analysis by researchers and teachers that states: “EA [Error Analysis] fails to provide a complete picture of learner language. We need to know what learners do correctly as well as what they do incorrectly” (2008:61). Ellis goes on to say that perhaps this conjecture is “overstated” and that EA can be considered to have a place “as a partial and preliminary source of information at an initial stage of investigation” (Hammarberg 1973:34 in Ellis 2008:61).

In general, however, it is more useful for data collection purposes and more accurate when analysing L2 acquisition development if the evaluator assesses what we can unambiguously identify rather than elements of test-taker utterances and renderings that are masked by poor pronunciation or semantic intentions that escape interpretation. Also, a sentence-level approach to L2 assessment that provides greater indications of learner acquisition levels is preferable. Emphasis is placed on what students know about the L2 rather than attempting deductions about what they do not know. Therefore, the rendering (either written or uttered) for the purposes of marking these tests of:

*“I runned all the way”*

will receive credit for a syntactically accurate sentence albeit a reduced credit due to the incorrect verb marking. In a similar way, covert sentences such as:

*“It was stopped”*

(see example above) would receive credit for correct construction yet a lower one as the verb aspect is incorrectly marked.

Preliminary scores were noted during the speaking exam and revised at a later date from an analysis of the recordings. The complete transcripts of the oral tests were typed up and marks annotated alongside. Sentence construction criteria were categorised and a weighting score system was then applied to evaluate test-taker utterances.



- A = correct in grammar and meaning, complete sentence with required subject / verb and object if necessary – weighting 4<sup>18</sup>.
- B = partially correct in grammar. Has relevant meaning. A full sentence (at least one verb) – weighting 2.
- C = single word answer(s). No subject plus verb. Unfinished sentence or with verb but although vocabulary related to topic, meaning to the utterance is unclear or the phrase contains Spanish – weighting 1.
- 0 = No words understood, completely unrelated words, silence, Spanish only for entire utterance, or just repeats proper nouns such as people's names and nothing else – weighting 0.
- CV = number of different verbs (except *be*) used correctly in context (not necessarily grammatically correct). Only one instance of each verb recorded – weighting 2.
- Linkers = conjunctions and ability to join main and subordinate clauses (for example with “when”). The conjunction “and” was not included in the count – weighting 2.

Examples of applying sentence categorisation adopted by this marking scheme and the corresponding weighting are the following taken from an actual pre-test oral paper.

Kevin [not understood] is Saturday eight. C – 1 point = 1  
 And Kevin is eating at half past one. A – 4 points + 1CV – 2 points = 6  
 At six o'clock Kevin go to the park with her bike. B – 2 points + 1CV – 2 points = 4  
 And at half past nine Kevin is watching TV. A – 4 points + 1CV = 2 points = 6

It has often been pointed out that morpheme use in fluency tasks is dependent on natural acquisition order (see section 4.2.4.) and therefore if the purpose of the test focuses on detecting awareness of morpheme structures rather than accuracy, the evaluator should refrain from deducting points for renderings such as:

*“Kevin go to the park”*

---

<sup>18</sup> This is also an EA technique adopted by Foster and Skehan (1996) where they made a calculation of the percentage of error-free clauses.

when Krashen has situated third person “-s” use late in the learner’s acquisition order. Consistent accuracy in third person “-s” endings should not be expected in learners’ fluency production at this level. Instead, credit is given for the correct choice of verb and syntax order in addition to credit for the correct choice of verb meaning. Notwithstanding, a correct utterance:

*“Kevin goes to the park”*

would receive a higher weighting. Rather than attempting third person “s” awareness detection in fluency tests, controlled discrete item tests such as in the written pre-test should allow test-takers time to reflect on structure and produce more accurate answers (Krashen’s Monitor Model 1977).

Other language items noted and recorded in the transcripts were tense and aspect use in verbs: present simple, continuous, past simple, continuous and passives. These would be collated for later comparisons with the final exams to detect interlanguage changes and development post course.

The author of this thesis believes that such an approach to test evaluation of fluency production tasks creates heightened “construct validity” as defined by Bachman and Palmer (2009): “[...] we need to demonstrate, or justify, the validity of the interpretations we make of test scores, and not simply assert or argue that they are valid” (2009:21-23). If marking is weighted on error detection in fluency task testing, the evaluator risks drawing up an assessment of students which inaccurately describes communicative ability.

For test reliability, suggests Bachman and Palmer (2009:19-21), it is imperative that such a marking system is precisely defined so that:

- the same evaluator may mark all tests with equal criteria,
- strategy consistency can be achieved at different test occasions,

- other evaluators will obtain similar results when analysing the same tests (even though they may require training to do so).

The most effective acid test to the developing of a marking strategy is to apply certain preconceived policies to the test-takers answers and then assess large numbers of tests checking weaknesses and flaws and redefining strategies until no test example may contravene the rules through test-taker answer peculiarities and anomalies. Such an approach was adopted by the author.

### *5.4.2. Speaking pre-test results.*

Due to contingency difficulties in setting up testing for the control group students to take the pre-test oral evaluation with the author, a decision was taken at the time to minimise these to a selection of eight tests – about half of control group test-takers (four from the non-academy students and four from those receiving extra private tuition). All experimental students were tested. The absence of control group pre-test orals proved unfortunate for subsequent evaluation and group contrasts in performance and the findings and possible conclusions drawn are more limited as a factor of this inconvenience. Fortunately, the contingency problem was resolved at the time of the final oral test and a full quota of data compiled for both groups. The placing of the eight control group students in mid-position supposing an average is somewhat arbitrary yet neither should one consider these eight representatives of the control group were either the best performers or the worst (Figure 29). If an average is taken from all experimental test-takers and compared with an average from the control group, the latter shows a slightly higher (though not significantly higher) performance value.

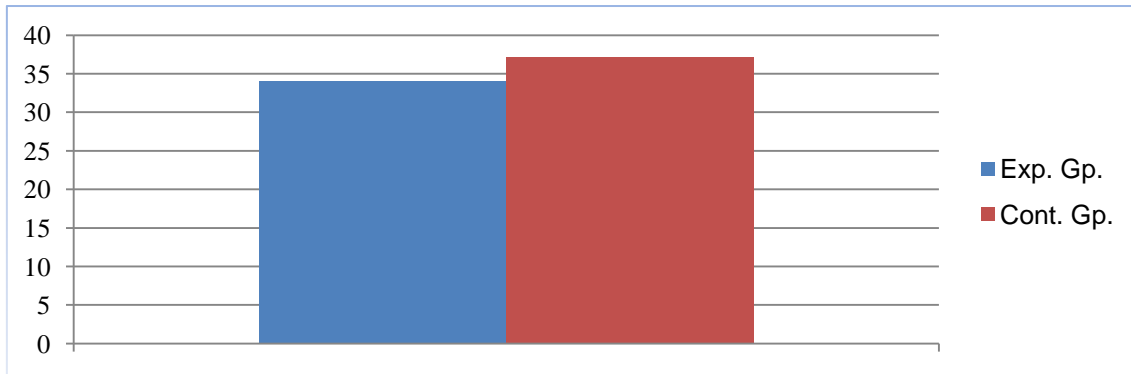


Figure 28. Pre-test oral exam. Average scores per student taken from all 17 experimental group test-takers and 8 from control group.

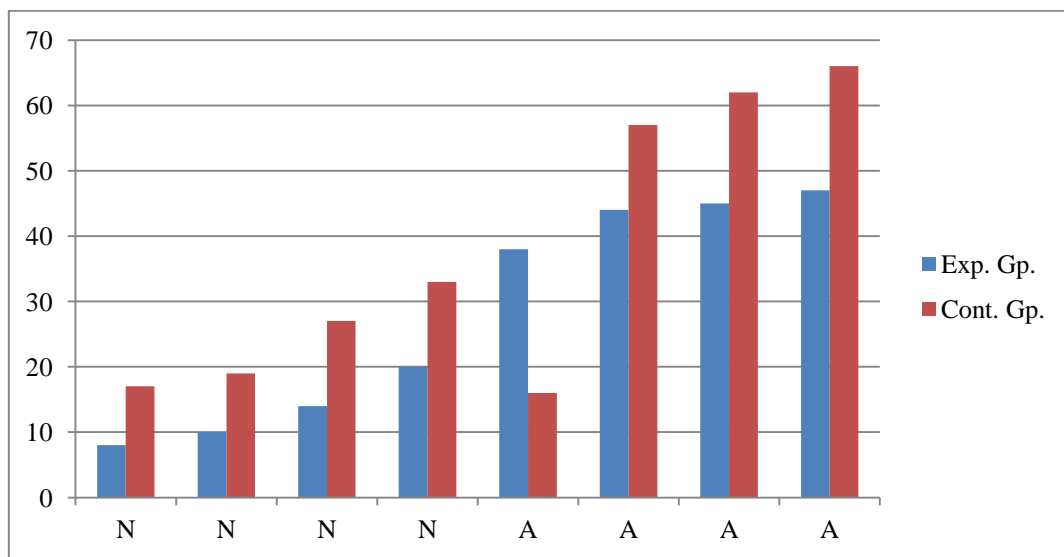


Figure 29. Pre-test speaking results. Eight scores from the experimental group were lifted from mid-sections of results tables (supposing an average) for comparison purposes.

A = academy student, N = non-academy student.

Figures 30 to 32 show actual figures and not averages taken. If one is to estimate the scores for a full quota of seventeen, control test-takers, one could assume slightly more than double the actual scores for the control group thus equalling the number of different verbs (CV) used during the speaking test but doubling the number of “A” sentences of the experimental group. Similar CV scores could be attributed to the simplicity of the story-line and the very basic verbs required to tell the story such as: “go to the park”, “have lunch”, “watch television”. This type of vocabulary plus an ability to use it orally within limited or impaired sentences would have been attainable to perhaps even younger students than the experimental group at *Pedro Primero*. With

respect to the number of linkers test-takers handled, the score can be considered a practical zero for both groups.

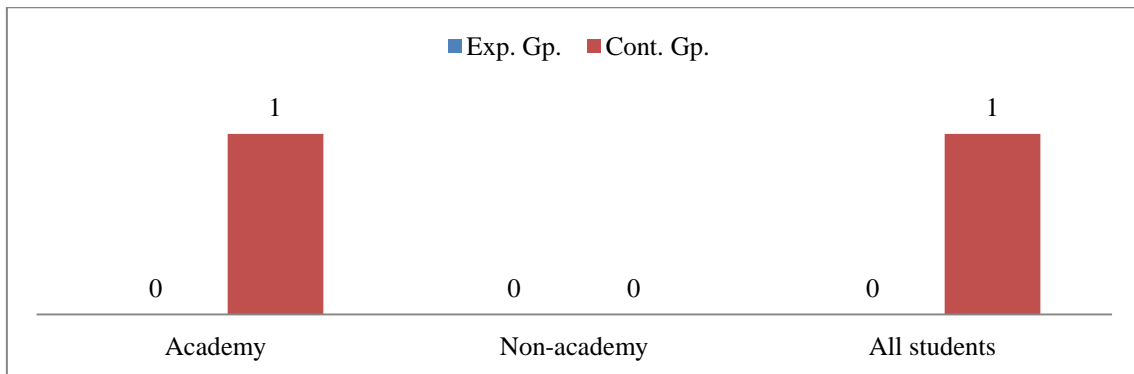


Figure 30. Pre-test speaking. Number of test-takers using linkers (17 experimental group, 8 control group)

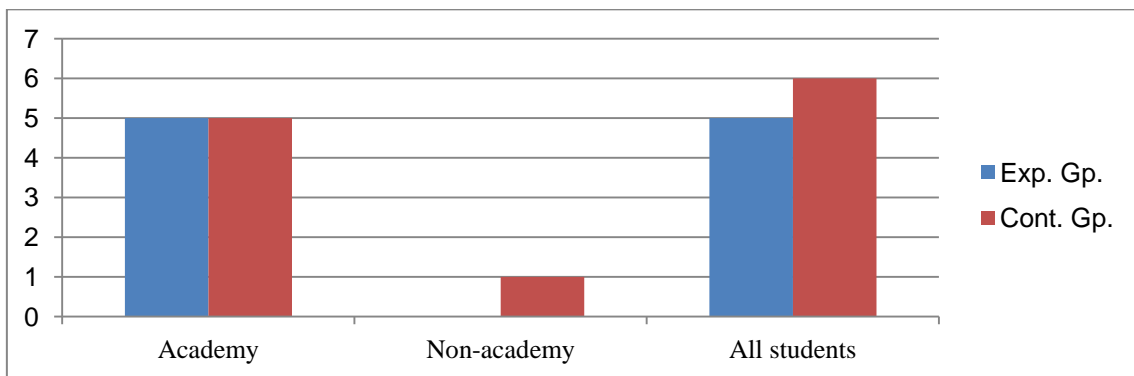


Figure 31. Pre-test speaking. Real numbers of “A” sentences used per group. (17 experimental students, 8 control students.)

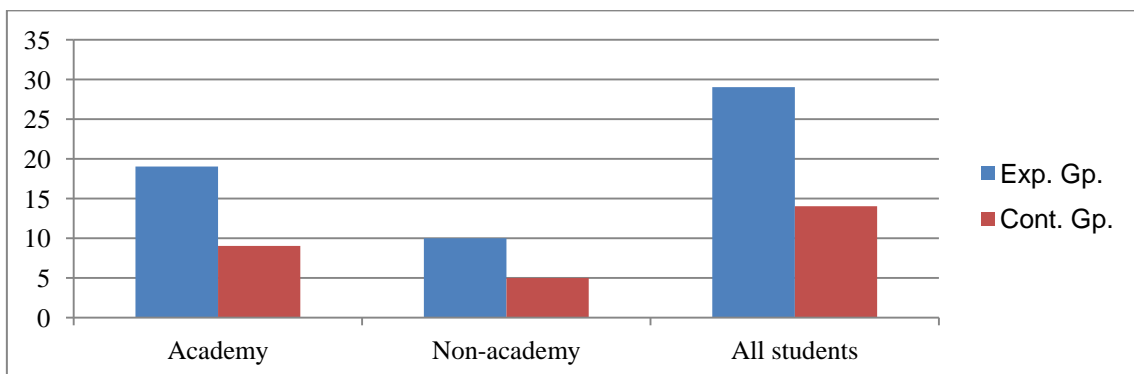


Figure 32. Pre-test speaking. Real numbers of different verbs (CV) used per group. (17 experimental students, 8 control students.)

There are higher marks for the control group over the experimental group when findings are taken as a global sum. Furthermore, when the eight test-takers compared individually, seven of the control group students scored higher. Such results are what

A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

should be expected if we take into account L2 acquisition levels in learners a year older, a year more mature and a year more English language instruction.

### **5.5. The written and listening post-test.**

The post-test (see annexe A9.) introduced recording listening tasks; a test type not included in the pre-test per se yet the thesis author believes, as mentioned earlier, the listening “skill” forms part of the global communicative skill rather than being distanced from it as an ability to be practised separately. The GW course promoted and developed such a global listening/speaking environment of oral communication among students and between students and teacher. Testing with pre-recorded material in the post-test was therefore, in theory, simply an additional communicative task. The materials for the listening tasks were taken from Cambridge Flyers past examinations. A check was made to ensure this particular material had not been used by test-takers previously. In fact, it resulted that some of the fifth year and sixth year students attending the local English academy had studied for the lower level Cambridge Movers but not the more advanced Flyers so the question begged whether these students would respond better to the Flyers test than those not familiar with this material. The thesis author considered the materials from Cambridge intended for use in the post-test to be similar in design to English coursebook tests and exercises and therefore should be recognisable in design to all test-takers with or without experience of these Cambridge tests.

The reading comprehension and vocabulary test was also taken from the Cambridge Flyers past paper. The thesis author judged the text to include lexis and sentence structure complexity similar to the texts included in the Silent Sign phases of the experimental course although not all lexical items in the test had been covered. As little specific or thematic lexical instruction took place during the GW course (an

approach also avoided by Maxwell 2001) some of the items (based on an obvious thematic approach) would be outside the range of the experimental group and the vocabulary they had encountered on the course. Nevertheless, the rationale for this choice of text as well as the two listening tasks previously mentioned was that:

- they were not redacted by the thesis author (removing bias from test design),
- the materials were “standard” - designed by a recognised examining board,
- the above considerations would support test reliability claims and suitability over all test-takers involved in both experimental and control groups.

A multiple choice grammar test was added to the written post-test. The grammar test enquired into how much of the tense/aspect structures encountered in the GW course learners and control group learners were able to present accurately in the context of a written sentence (a “monitored” and not a fluency situation). Learners from both the experimental and control groups had received either exposure to or (especially in the case of the control group) explicit instruction in all the structures in the grammar test. However, the insistence of a clear example model was added to the rubric once more for test-takers to follow. One error in test design was discovered too late. This was that the rubric instructions throughout the post-test were not translated into Spanish. This was overlooked as the pre-designed Cambridge parts of the test came with English instructions. To avoid possible confusion as to test completion issues, the author asked the *Pedro Primero* school teacher invigilating to explain how to do each test in Spanish in front of the class prior to the commencement of the post-test examination.

The final part of the written post-test was a written composition. Unlike the pre-test, no model was included as test-taker communicative ability in writing tasks was assumed by the author (even though such tasks were rare during the GW course). One of the issues argued in this thesis has been that learners should not find the transcription

of their oral knowledge of English an obstacle providing they had previously some although relatively limited exposure to most of the lexis in written form. (That writing at this level should not be considered a “skill” is discussed in section 4.4.). This theory, however, would be difficult to put to the test owing to the extensive amount of written work experimental learners were receiving at the school and academy. To sum up, the brief encounters with written lexis in the experimental course together with extended study of English in written form at school should provide sufficient exposure to carry out a written composition task.

The post-test writing task required test-takers to write the story they considered took place from following a sequence of five comic-strip pictures. Again, the material was taken from Cambridge Flyers. This was a written “free-style” exercise and the author expected to be able to glean some insights into learner interlanguage development from analysing the resulting texts produced. Although not a true fluency activity, when children write prose from their own imagination they tend to give priority to message rather than form.

The post-written and listening test was carried out during school class time and with a *Pedro Primero* English teacher as invigilator for all groups. Precise written instructions were given to all invigilators regarding how to manage the test (see annexe A9.6.).

#### *5.5.1. Post-test results: reading comprehension, grammar test and listening tests.*

Figures 33 to 35 inclusive show the breakdown of scores for the various parts of the post-test written and listening task paper (except the written composition). The first trend that can be noticed is the prevalence for higher scores for the experimental group. The exception being the results of the listening test where the control group answered with more accuracy (Figure 33). The author has suggested earlier in this thesis that



listening ability is inextricably inter-related with other communicative areas such as oral communication and need not be treated as a separate skill. However, the nature of typical pre-recorded material produced by ELT publishers and used in Spanish schools is a distant relative of the listening skills required in interactive dialogue. The former having little bearing on discourse and offering a context that involves ingesting linguistic content and subsequently commenting on it. Such pre-recorded testing tasks do possibly demand practice which is not found in the L2 production skill (speaking and listening during dialogue) advocated by the GW approach. Indeed, no pre-recorded materials were used in class throughout the entire GW course. The older, more experienced students with these pre-recorded materials may therefore have had an advantage.

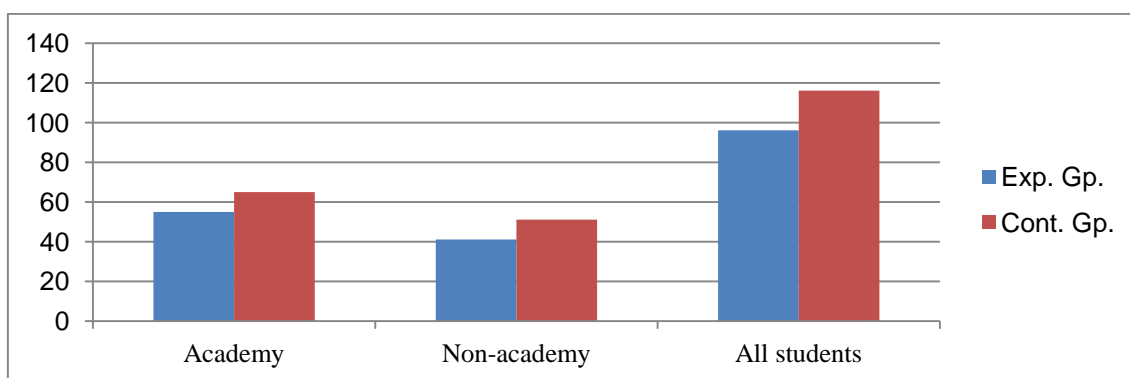


Figure 33. Post-test listening scores.

Despite slightly higher scores from the experimental group on the reading comprehension task, results between both groups were similar. The author was aware of the difficulty of a task which centred on thematic learning, which necessarily incorporates less frequent lexis (in this case, professions). On the other hand, the author cannot be blinkered to the fact that the experimental course students were receiving instruction not only at school but also (for half the group) at an English academy. Success at some L2 tasks in the post-test could partly be attributable to these “exterior” influences on test-takers’ English as well as to the experimental course content itself.

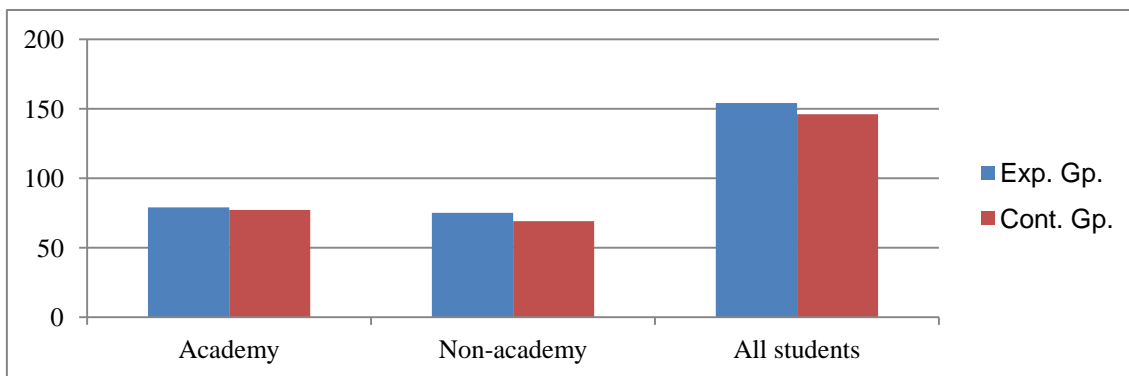


Figure 34. Post-test reading comprehension scores.

The results of the grammar test, however, could be considered revealing. Many of the questions concerned tense and aspect use. Past tense, for example, was a structure the experimental group had encountered more recently than the control group. Nevertheless, the experimental students showed slightly higher scores overall compared to their control group counterparts. The “noticing” and salient features of GW could be partly responsible. The results of this test perhaps suggest that explicit instruction may not be necessary for acquisition of structures. However, it must be pointed out here that although at pre-test learners were unaware of past tense, the author discovered that during the experimental course period academy students received introductory instruction in this area at the local private academy. Interestingly, however, the non-academy experimental group showed superiority in this test compared to their control counterparts.

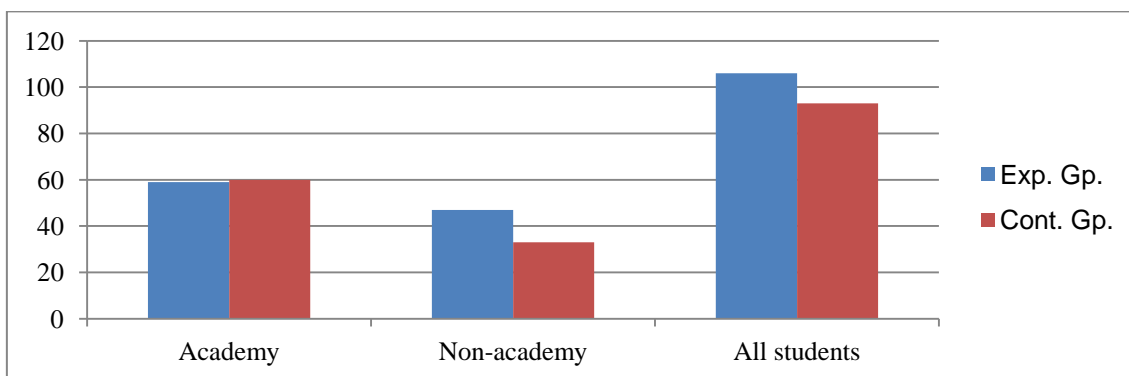


Figure 35. Post-test grammar test scores

To seek evidence that the experimental GW course itself was responsible for an acceleration in English acquisition among the course participants; an acceleration that surpasses the acquisition velocity of the native SL teaching approaches, clues must be sought in the areas where the GestureWay tool is most beneficial to learner interlanguage development.

### 5.6. The communicative areas of the post-test – results analysis.

GW is by definition “a tool designed to accelerate and enhance L2 input and acquisition and provide increased velocity of salience” (see section 4.1.). The input involved is lexical, holistic with salience on form. The learners consistently speak in full meaningful and comprehended sentences in class through the interpretation of gestures. They are involved in stories both in their interpretation as well as their production. It is thus the areas of the test which demand competence for the global, holistic treatment of L2, the communicative, where analysis should prove most insightful.

The first of these communicative areas is the written composition. Here rather longer peaks separating the experimental from control group scores can be appreciated (Figures 36 and 37).

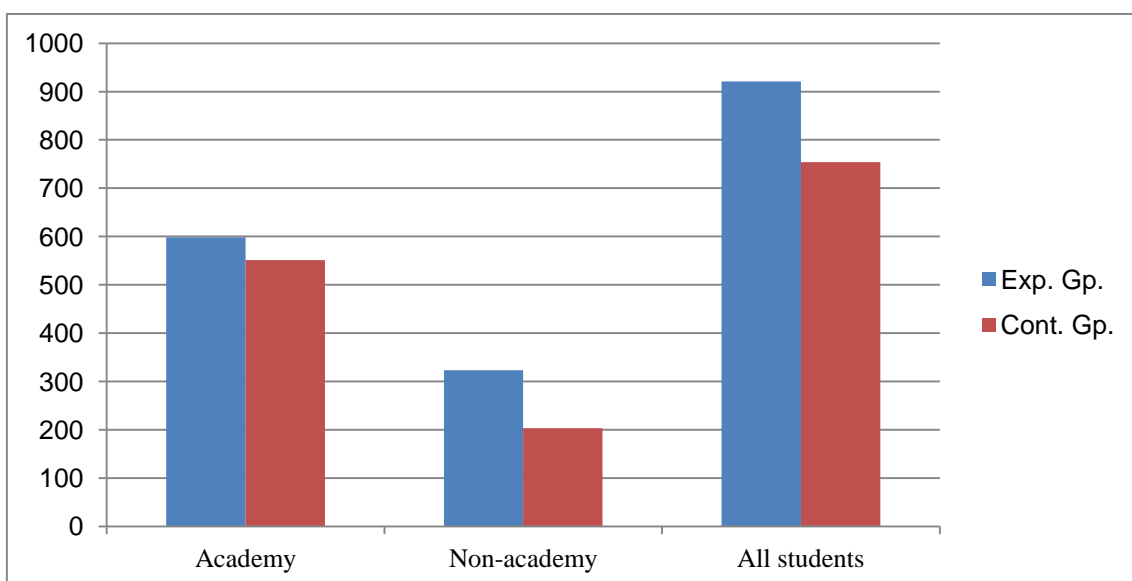


Figure 36. Post-test written composition total scores.

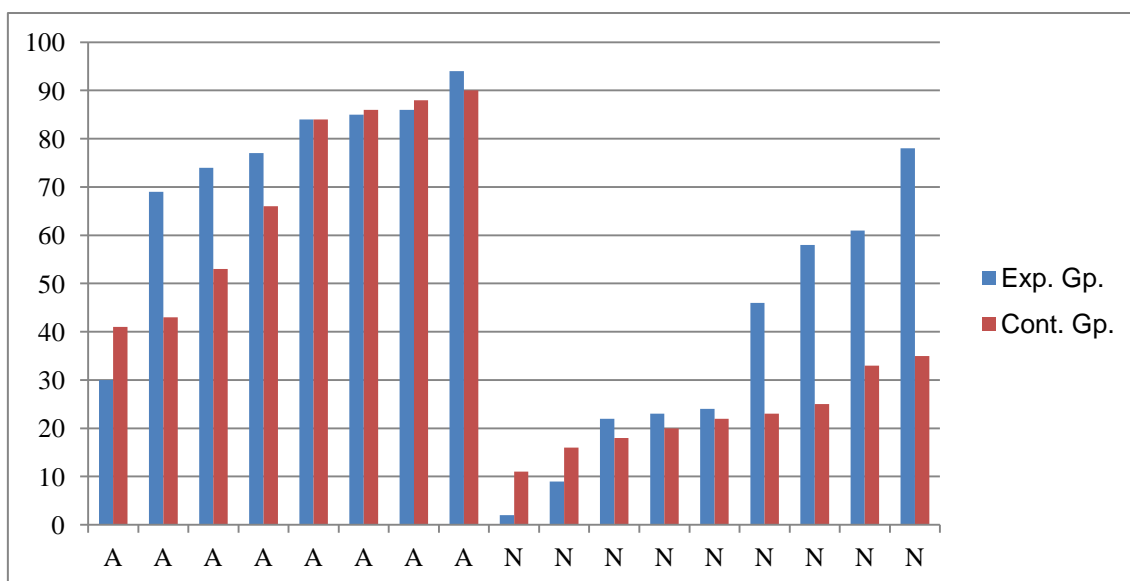


Figure 37. Post-test written composition scores per student.  
 A = academy student, N = non-academy student.

A similar marking system and rationale was applied as that developed for the pre-test speaking test. The same A, B, C, 0 sentence categorisation was adopted with a similar weighting (see section 5.4.2.). The CV (correct choice of verb meaning; only one instance per different verb recorded) was again included allowing the evaluator to monitor the learners’ range of verbs they could use in fluency production-type output. A further language item appraisal introduced was a pragmatic one included in the pre-test speaking as a control check. During the numerous story renderings the experimental group learners were involved in during the course, there had been an ample exposure to conjunctions or linking words. A feature of competence in story production must be the learners’ capacity to reproduce linkers during fluency production. In Maxwell’s study comparing Canadian “immersion students” studying French with her own AIM students, who also used stories as material, she argues against bias towards the AIM test-takers by quoting Cummins (1996).

The bias that did occur in this case was not in the vocabulary selection, but in the fact that the comparison group was less familiar with storytelling in the second language. However, because stories are a familiar part of all children's lives, it was felt that this would be the most appropriate choice as basis for spontaneous speech on the part of students who were interviewed. According to the Common Underlying Proficiency Model (Cummins 1996), there is transfer of an underlying cognitive/academic proficiency, common across languages.

This same opinion will also argue for lack of bias for the speaking post-test activities, which were wholly based on storytelling. In addition, the coursebooks studied at *Pedro Primero* also included comic-strip stories as listening and writing activities. Whether, for experiment reliability, it is necessary to justify the introduction of linkers into the material of the experimental group because it is suspected the control group are not using linkers so frequently is also questionable. Linkers are a frequent lexical item and an essential part of speech and oral fluency in English, therefore to argue that experimental analysis lacks reliability on account of one group's approach that offers diminished communicative focus is irrational. If Spanish primary school English teachers supported any other linguistic objectives that did not include encouraging learners to improve oral communication skills, not only would they be doing their students an enormous disservice they would also be contravening the guidelines of the Spanish Law of Education LOE 2/2006 (Internet source, LOE).

The weighting applied to the use of linking words was a score of 2 points per linker used in correct context. Included in this category was relative pronoun use that linked a main clause to a subordinate one, such as the relative "when". The conjunction "and" was not included. The scores reflecting the specific assessment of "A" sentence types, CV and linking word use can be viewed at Figures 38 to 40. No weighting has been applied to these scores; they show unique instances of usage of the item in question. To situate the instances of verb range (CV) and linker usage into context of text length, the average number of words used in the written composition was approximately sixty.

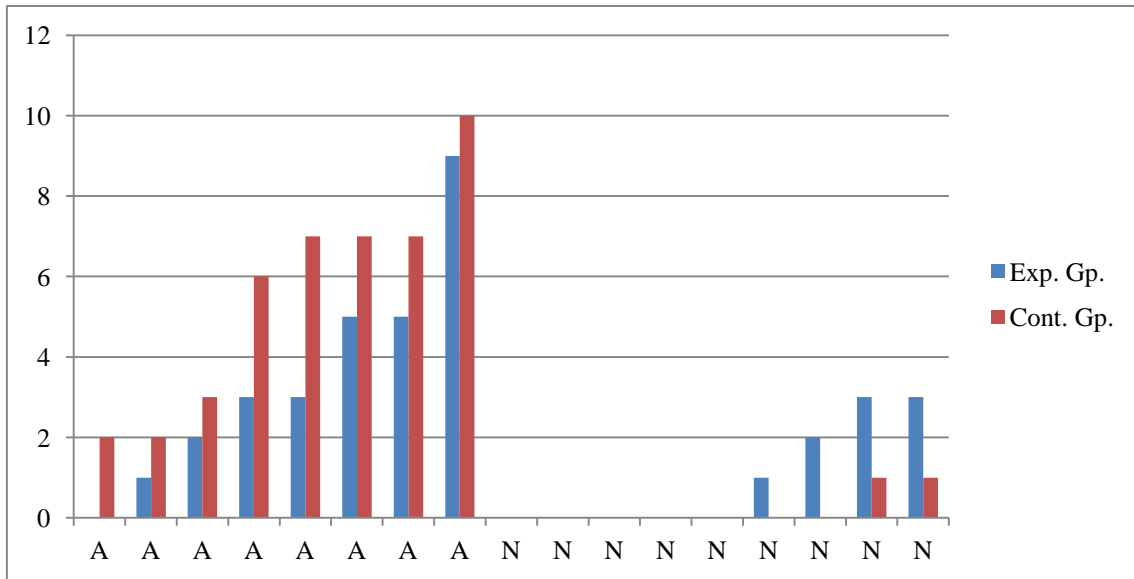


Figure 38. Post-test written composition. Number of instances of “A” type sentences. (A = academy student, N = non-academy student.)

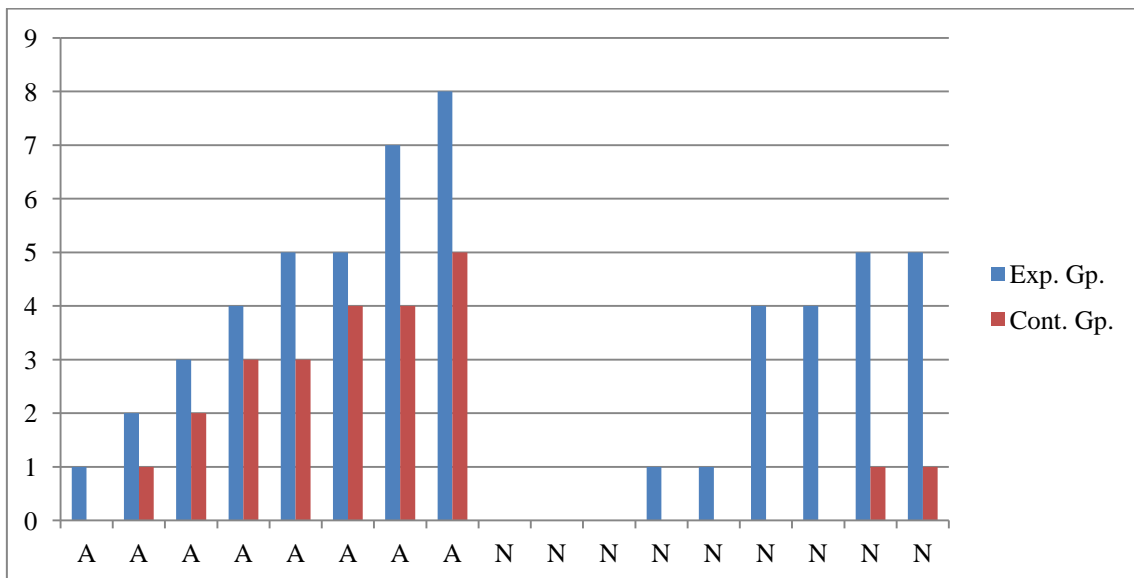


Figure 39. Post-test written composition. Number of instances of linkers used. Text length 60 words approx. (A = academy student, N = non-academy student).

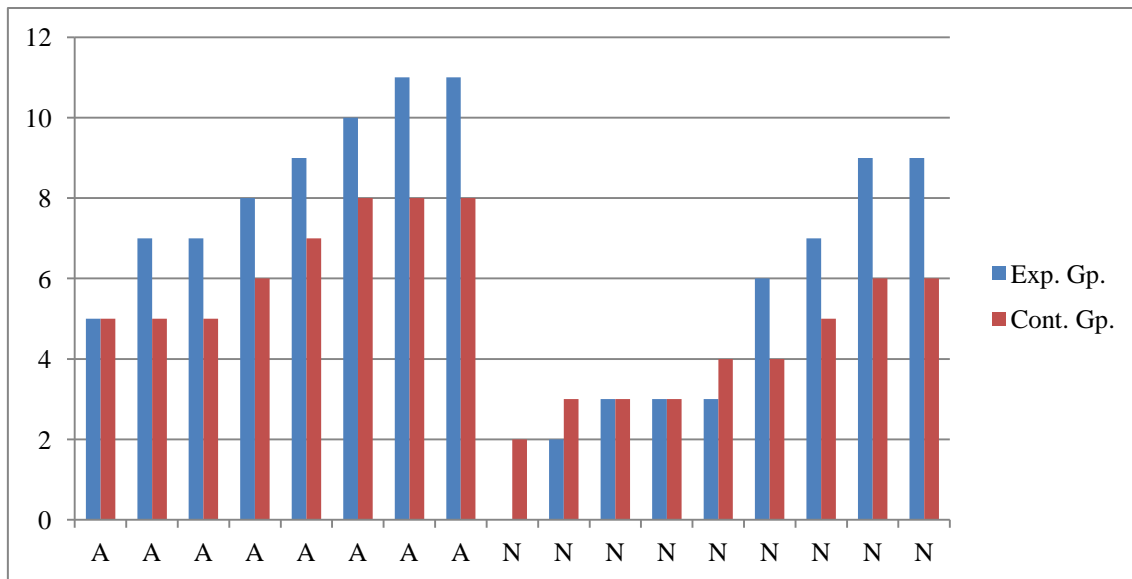


Figure 40. Post-test written composition. Number of instances of different verbs used in correct semantic context (CV). Text length 60 words approx. (A = academy student, N = non-academy student).

Lastly, a synthesis of tense and aspect usage in the written compositions was compiled. Test-takers were not required to produce perfectly spelt verbs and compound verbs; instances of the aspect and tense were noted that were clearly recognisable and correctly used yet possibly with mistaken orthography. Tense usage in productive tasks should provide evidence regarding advances in learner interlanguage and L2 competency levels (Figure 41).

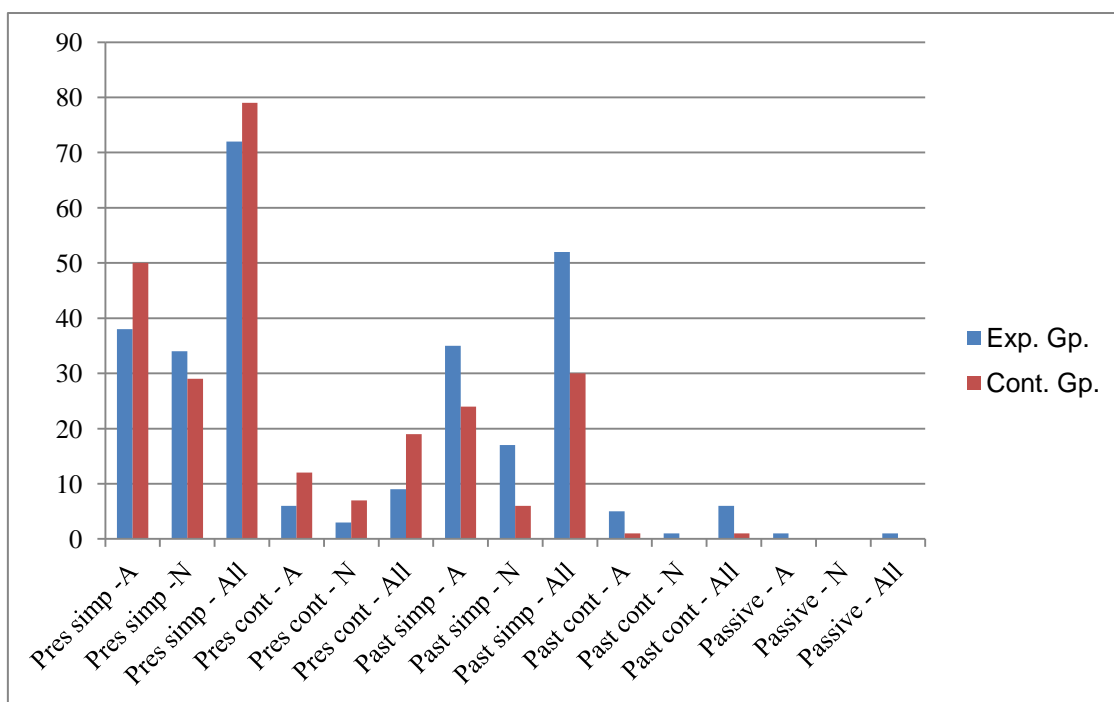


Figure 41. Post-test written composition. Instances of tenses and aspects used.  
 A = academy students, N = non-academy, All = all students.

The control group showed a tendency to produce more grammatically accurate sentences (“A” sentences) than the experimental group (Figure 38), however, the non-academy students from the experimental group proved more accurate than their counterparts in the control group. It is significant that a proportion of the non-academy students were unable to produce one fully correct “A” sentence in the written composition test. One thing to note here was a comment from the *Pedro Primero* teacher invigilating the exam. Some of the slower therefore presumably weaker test-takers failed to finish the written post-test before the forty-five minutes had elapsed (the time dictated for the test was governed by the school English class schedule). Some of the written compositions (the last task in the post-test) were handed in with very little text and obviously unfinished (though none completely blank) so a time-factor may have been one explanation. Though other suggestions why this particular group of non-academy students from the experimental group consistently failed to perform well are put forward in the qualitative section of Results (section 5.8.).



The number of instances of linking words was greater for the experimental group (Figure 39) and just under half of the control group test-takers (eight of the seventeen) failed to use even one conjunction. However, as a footnote to these findings, it must be pointed out that more than half of the control group test-takers included an unsolicited pragmatic feature into their composition texts. These students enumerated their sentences in the same way the pictures were enumerated. This unsuspected technique meant they were not required to link one clause to the next or rather do so less frequently. Why this happened is unknown and did not appear in the rigorous instruction sheet handed out to the invigilators (see annexe A9.6.). None of the experimental test-takers adopted this practice. This unfortunate occurrence means an accurate comparison between the two groups in the ability to use linkers becomes frustrated<sup>19</sup>.

The experimental group demonstrated a tendency to express their English with a greater selection of verbs (CV) than the control group (Figure 40). Even four of the weaker non-academy students used a repertoire of verb choice comparable to the control group academy students. Again, the scores for linking word and CV values may have been higher for both groups had test-takers been permitted more time to finish the written composition.

Lastly, test-takers from the experimental group showed an increased tendency to use past tense in their written composition yet no instruction was given on the choice of tense for this task (Figure 41). The control group preferred present tense (especially present simple) to express themselves. This finding is interesting as it will be remembered that the experimental group possessed no detectable knowledge of past tense awareness during the pre-test. Even the non-academy students of the experimental

---

<sup>19</sup> As a postscript to this comment see the results of the study of linkers in the speaking post-test.

group used a past tense (simple or continuous) three times more frequently than the corresponding students of the control group.

A measurement of past tense use in production tasks may prove a valuable indicator of L2 acquisition progress among test-takers. It has been stated that morphemes including tense use are acquired in a certain order (see discussion in 3.4.3). Despite rather trenchant criticism refuting much of the Natural Order Hypothesis, for example, it is common in the literature to encounter references to the belief that present tenses or verb base forms (which in English may be confused with present simple by the evaluator) are acquired before past tenses (Lightbown and Spada 1999). Before acquisition of the use of past tense markers on the verb, learners (both adults and children and often regardless of learner L1) prefer to employ semantic strategies to signal past such: “My son come. He work in restaurant” (Lightbown and Spada 1999:84). More detailed descriptions of the acquisition of past tense have been described Dietrich *et. al.* (1995) who carried out studies of narrative data from 23 migrant learners of Dutch, French, German, Swedish and English. They identified three stages in learner’s strategies for expressing past time.

- I. Using pragmatics: no past tense markers; use of context only to express past, contrasting events, using chronological order.
- II. Using lexis: past time adverbials such as “yesterday”, “then”; verbs are in base form (“go”) and are invariant or idiosyncratic forms (“going”) are used.
- III. Using morphological markers: some verbs are marked with pastness; successive increase in past tense markers and decrease in adverbials. (Dietrich *et. al.* 1995 in Ellis 2008:88-89)

Other anomalies in past tense acquisition have also been noted by Bardovi-Harlig (2000). Irregular verb forms are used in fluency production before regular forms and past continuous tends to appear after past simple.

An analysis of production material (to some extent written essays such as story writing but more especially fluency speaking activities) should offer insights into learners' acquisition stages. This would not mean an observance that one stage closes and another begins but as Lightbown and Spada explain:

On the contrary, at a given point in time, learners may use sentences typical of several different stages. It is perhaps better to think of a stage as being characterised by the emergence and increasing frequency of a particular form rather than the disappearance of an earlier one (1999:85).

Naturally, to discover tense usage stages, we must refer to production material where learners are free to express themselves and not given opportunities to monitor their output such as in discrete item tests; the latter revealing learned structures rather than acquired ones (see Krashen on the differences between “learned” and “acquired” L2, 1995). In the following sections on the post speaking test results, emphasis will be placed on unearthing “increasing frequency” in past tense verb marking preference among the test-takers in both groups to establish their acquisition stage at the time of termination of the experimental course.

### **5.7. Speaking post-test.**

The speaking part of the post-test was a key section of the data collected due to the emphasis the GW course placed on oral L2 input and production of holistic learner language. Rather than adopt a similar setup to the speaking pre-test, where learners were called into the room in pairs, each learner was examined individually. The rationale behind this decision was that for enhanced test reliability, exactly the same test would be administered to each test-taker. The instruction rubric was intended to be identical for each test-taker to ensure reliable test score collection. The author of this thesis

managed the role of examiner during the test and later Mp3 recordings were analysed by the same for evaluation. The use of silent gestures, which the learners of the experimental group were now much versed in, by the examiner to elicit increased and improved learner production was forbidden. To reassure any subsequent enquirers into test procedures all experimental test sessions were video recorded and viewing of these Mp4 files is available on demand. Experimental test-takers were neither instructed to gesture nor keep their hands still. In the event, some test-takers gestured to themselves occasionally during the tests. Test-takers from the control group were simply recorded on an Mp3 player for later evaluation purposes.

Each test-taker was asked some initial “warm-up” functional questions before the test proper began (see annexe A10. for speaking post-test design and materials). The second part of the test required test-takers to tell a story based on a five-part wordless comic strip taken from the Cambridge Flyers oral exam. To ensure an approximately similar length of the story rendering, the examiner pointed to each picture in the comic strip in turn for approximately the same amount of time. The examiner paused for each and every picture even when a test-taker made no utterances.

Part three of the speaking exam comprised two separate sections: the first a listening and then an oral rendering of the same story. This material was designed by the author and consisted of ten different pictures making up one comic strip story (see Table 4 below). The story was written by the author (see full transcript in annexe A11.7. and extract at Table 4) and recorded in Mp3 by a female native English speaking colleague. The story was also a joke with a punchline, which required no apparent cultural knowledge other than that which test-takers would be familiar with: a penguin, a trip to the zoo, an elderly couple and a policeman. The comic strip was placed before the test-taker and spoken instructions given in Spanish to listen carefully to a recording

of the story and then he/she was asked to tell the story as close as possible to the original. As the recording was played, the examiner pointed to each picture that corresponded to the audio. The story audio was played only once and with no stopping of the recording. After the recording of the complete story had finished, the test-taker was allowed a few seconds to collect his/her thoughts and was then told again he/she should tell the same story in its entirety. The examiner pointed to each picture, again, for a similar time span to allow the test-taker time to say what was uttered in the original audio recording. Naturally, the examiner had no time to note down any scores during these sessions – all marking was carried out post-exam from the audio files.

The rationale behind this testing procedure did not include the evaluation of a listening test. Listening and speaking were rather combined in one global evaluation of communicative ability. However, the real motive behind a listening-generated oral test served to proffer each test-taker with insights into the lexis and structures required to tell the story. It is a phenomenon of L2 production familiar to all long-term language teachers that however clear and recent a correct utterance in the L2 is delivered, the learner will only be able to reproduce that utterance within the boundaries of his/her comprehension capacity and interlanguage knowledge<sup>20</sup>. Therefore, a sentence the test-taker heard from the story audio:

*“Policeman Plod was walking along the street smiling.”*

was reproduced in a multitude of different ways by the learners; some more faithful to the original than others. The utterance, rather than reflect how learners heard each of the items within the sentence, was interpreted and translated into meaning (if comprehended in the first place), which was subsequently redelivered in spoken English modified and transformed into a version matching each test-taker’s interlanguage knowledge. In other

---

<sup>20</sup> Naturally, this “rule” refers to utterances of a certain length and those of two or three words could well be reproduced perfectly. As a rule of thumb, the utterances should be too long for a learner to be able to remember all the words but short enough so that he/she may comprehend and remember the meaning.

words, a test-taker who had not acquired the past continuous use of the verb would never be able to reproduce the same in his/her own utterance despite the immediacy of time of the hearing.

This technique devised by the author and based on past experience of this phenomenon from many years teaching in ELT classrooms, allowed him access to a learner's true acquisition level without eliciting language items explicitly. One of the main linguistic structures the author was interested in was the ability to express ideas in past tense so as to have a longitudinal measurement with pre-test data as well as a cross-sectional comparison with the control group. If test-takers had been requested, it was reasoned, through explicit instruction to tell the story in past tense, this could have resulted in confusion. Some may not have had the metalinguistic knowledge to separate past from present consciously, others may have balked because they did not know what past tense meant or were not able to tell the story in the past. Inevitably, the result of explicit insistence on how to render the story would have led to monitored (Krashen's monitoring) stilted utterances where test-takers reflected on form and therefore with diminished production of meaning. Only through utterances created during meaningful production can acquisition levels be assessed.

A full range of lexical items: verbs, linkers, modals, question forms, tense aspects, lexical and syntactic clues were thus provided from listening to the story audio, all of which should be accessible only to those learners who already possessed those items in their interlanguage. It thus became reasonable to extend the items to be measured in part three (only) of the speaking test to detect this item knowledge present in the test-takers' interlanguage. Therefore, in addition to the previous items for evaluation (A, B, C, 0 phrases, linkers and CV counts), a further item set was included

consisting of those employed in the original listening audio. These items were the following:

- past tense,
- comparatives,
- question forms,
- modal auxiliary 'must'.

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

<u>Table 4: Extracts taken from original audio and an experimental student's exam showing the marking rationale.</u>	
<u>Extract of original audio heard by student.</u>	<u>Student's rendering of story after listening to audio and with simultaneous reference to the visual aid of story (see below).</u>
1, Policeman Plod felt very happy.	1, Policeman Plod thought funny. B+ (Rationale: Sentence not perfect but makes some sense - B. Past tense used in context - +.)
2, The weather was better than yesterday. The sun was warmer	2, The day was better than yesterday. The sun was shining A++, A+ (Rationale: Both sentences grammatically correct – A, A. Past tense used twice, comparative used once - +++)
3, and the sky was bluer.	3, and the sky was blue. A+ (Rationale: correct clause – A. Past tense - +. 'And' not included in linker count.)
4, Policeman Plod was walking along the street smiling.	4, Police(man) Plo was go, going along the street. A+ (Rationale: Correct sentence – A. Past tense used - +.)
5 and 6, Suddenly, he saw an old man and woman coming towards him. Policeman Plod saw they had a penguin with them.	5 and 6, He wa... He saw a old woman and a old man with a penguin. B+ (Rationale: mistakes with articles – B. Past tense - +.)
7a, 'Excuse me', they said. 'We found this penguin in the street. What can we do?'	7a, The old woman say, "Sorry, we find a penguin. Where can we take that?" B, B, A+ (Rationale: 3 clauses: first, missing 3 <sup>rd</sup> person "s" – B; second, must be in past tense – B; third, correct grammar in clause and question form used – A+.)
7b, The policeman answered, 'You must take it to the zoo'. The old man and woman said, 'Good idea'.	7b, The Police(man) Plod say, "You can take that to the zoo." B, A (Rationale: 2 clauses: first, missing third person "s"; correct sentence – A.)
	Score with weighting for this extract (A=4, B=2, +=2): A x 6 = 24 B x 5 = 10 + x 8 = 16. Total for this extract = 50 points.





A difference in weighting for the speaking test was applied to the 0 score, which the author deemed deserved a negative value (-2 points) as a test-taker's incapacity to utter even one word, or just speak in Spanish, when showed a picture was considered significant regarding communicative capacity in English and should be recorded to influence the overall test score. In practice, little alteration to scores was caused by the 0 negative weighting and none to the test-taker order of scores. Though naturally, weaker learners suffered more from this punitive measure as more able students rarely left blanks in their answers. Notwithstanding, in the graphs shown below, results showing instances of usage of items (rather than positive or negative weighting scores) are also displayed where it is thought most useful.

#### 5.7.1. Speaking post-tense results.

A pronounced contrast in the number of linkers used per group is apparent in Figure 42, which is a study of instances with no weighting applied. The non-academy section of students from the control group failed to use linkers at all. If this pragmatic feature of rendering extended monologue is indicative of the more skilled

communicators, then the experimental group's communicative skills surpass those of the control group.

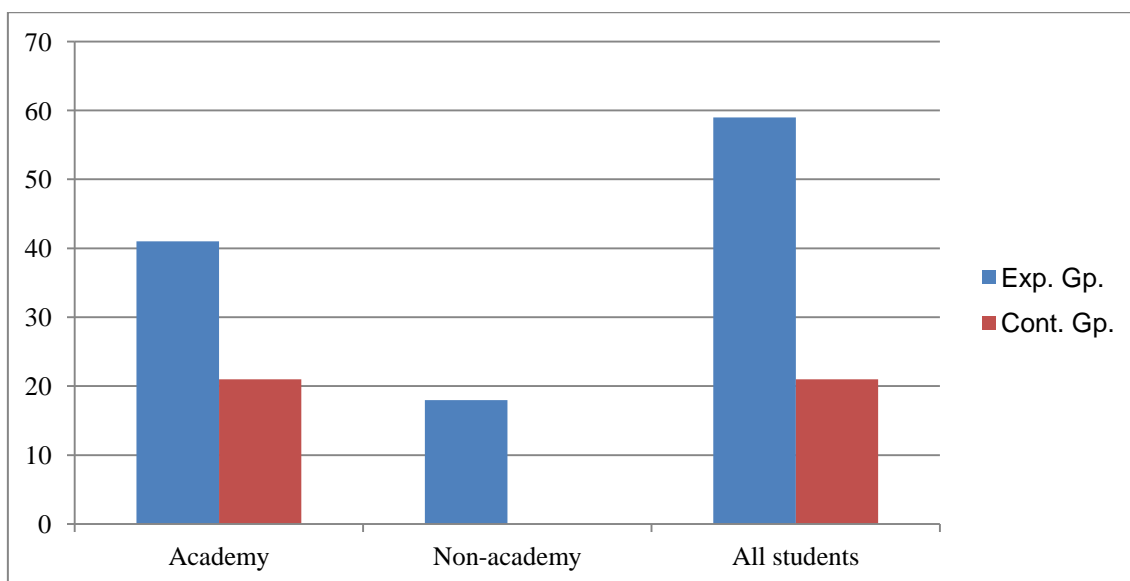


Figure 42. Speaking post-test. Number of instances of linkers used per group.

The graph (Figure 42) depicting instances of linkers used in the speaking test show similarities to the frequency of use of these items in the post-test written composition. The nature of the spoken story rendering was continuous and impossible to enumerate, as happened in the written composition post-test (Figure 39). Conjunctions and main/subordinate clause use would be expected here among learners capable of producing them. The findings of this oral fluency test leave one supposing that the motives for enumerating in the written composition by the control group was rather due to a preference to avoid linkers instead of an unwanted and uncalled for instruction given by the invigilator. Finally, there is a sharp contrast with the practical zero score for linker use (in both groups) in the pre-test speaking. However, the progress was reflected in the control group academy students only whereas the non-academy students of the same group apparently failed to acquire linkers over the academic year.

When contrasting the number of distinct verbs used (CV values), the experimental group showed a higher propensity to employ a wider verb range during

their monologues. This was especially true of the non-academy students, who used three times as many different verbs as their counterparts in the control group. A comparison with this CV value in the pre-test speaking (Figure 32) (if we are to assume a hypothetical value of equitability in the pre-test scores) now clearly shows superiority in verb range within the experimental group.

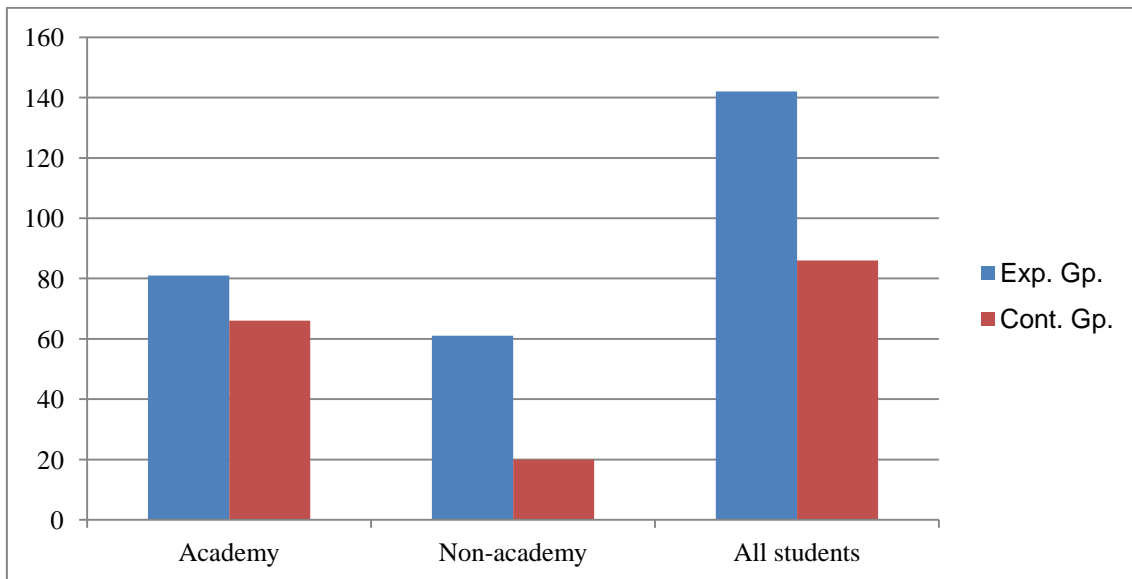


Figure 43. Speaking post-test. Number of instances of different correctly used verbs - CV value (semantically correct not necessarily grammatically).

The “A” value (correct clauses) in the speaking post-test offers interesting data. The findings now indicate a more than double number in “A” clauses uttered by the experimental group overall and a ninefold lead for the non-academy experimental students (Figure 44).

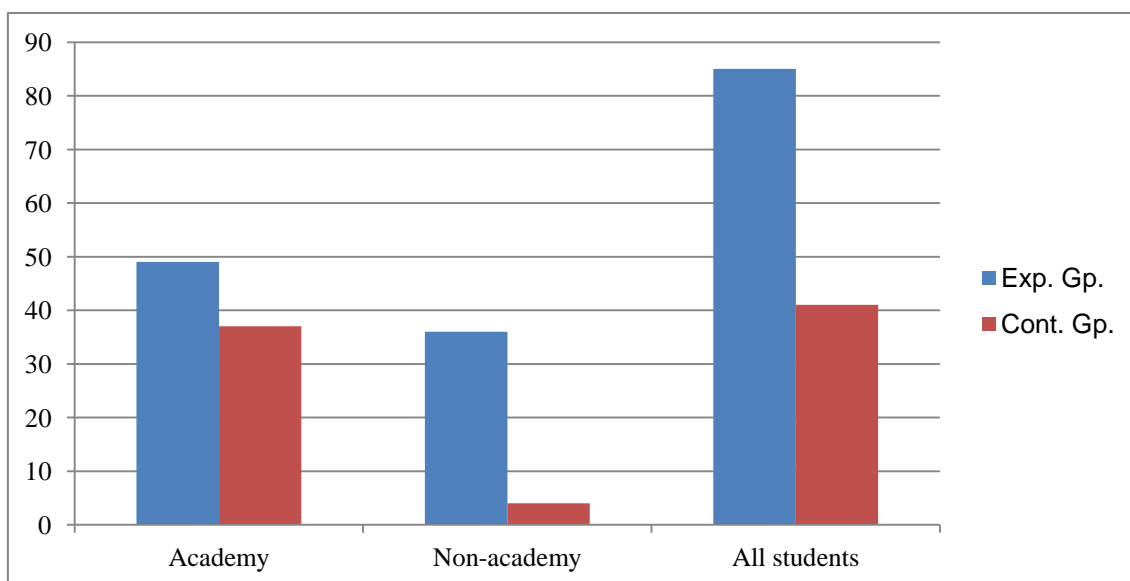


Figure 44. Speaking post-test. Number of instances of “A” sentences.

It should be remembered that the pre-test speaking gave a hypothetical twofold overall superiority to the control group. Interesting to note also is that the control group exceeded the experimental group in “A” scores at the post-test written composition (Figure 38). This contrast may be explained by an ability of the control group to demonstrate more accuracy where the task allows a degree of language monitoring and concurs with the data compiled from the results of the post-test reading comprehension and grammar scores (Figures 34 and 35). In other words, although the experimental group exceeded the control group where L2 acquired speaking skills were required the latter almost equalled the scores in tasks which required “learned” English – again the author refers here to Krashen’s “acquired” and “learned” dichotomy (Krashen 1977).

The tense/aspect synthesis findings produced values that might have been expected in view of the technique employed to implicitly draw out pastness from the test-takers via the pre-recorded audio in past tense of the penguin story. There were ninety-one instances of past tense marking produced by the test-takers in the speaking post-test overall and approximately two-thirds of these were uttered by the experimental group. Notwithstanding, verbs marked with present tense were uttered some fivefold

more than past tense overall in this test and the experimental group used present approximately twenty-five percent more frequently than the control group. As argued earlier, acquisition stages have no sharp edges and transfer from one to another is a gradual process with flux moving through both tenses. There are instances in the tests where present and past forms were included in the same sentence. Another explanation for the increased present tense usage could be contributed to the absence of any suggestion, neither explicit nor implicit, on the tense to be used in the first comic-strip story-telling. Again, the predominance in past verb marking by the experimental group offers evidence towards supposing a higher acquisition level of these forms in many of the students belonging to this group compared to the control group students (see Figures 45 to 47).

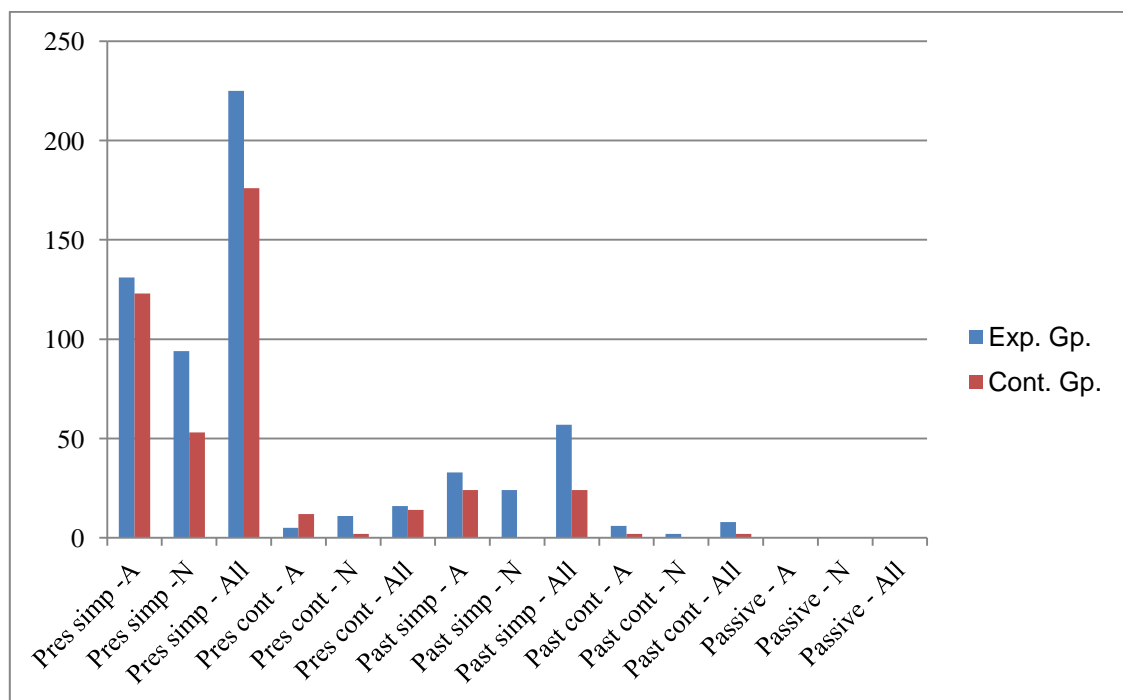


Figure 45. Speaking post-test. Instances of all tenses and aspects used.  
A = academy students, N = non-academy, All = all students.

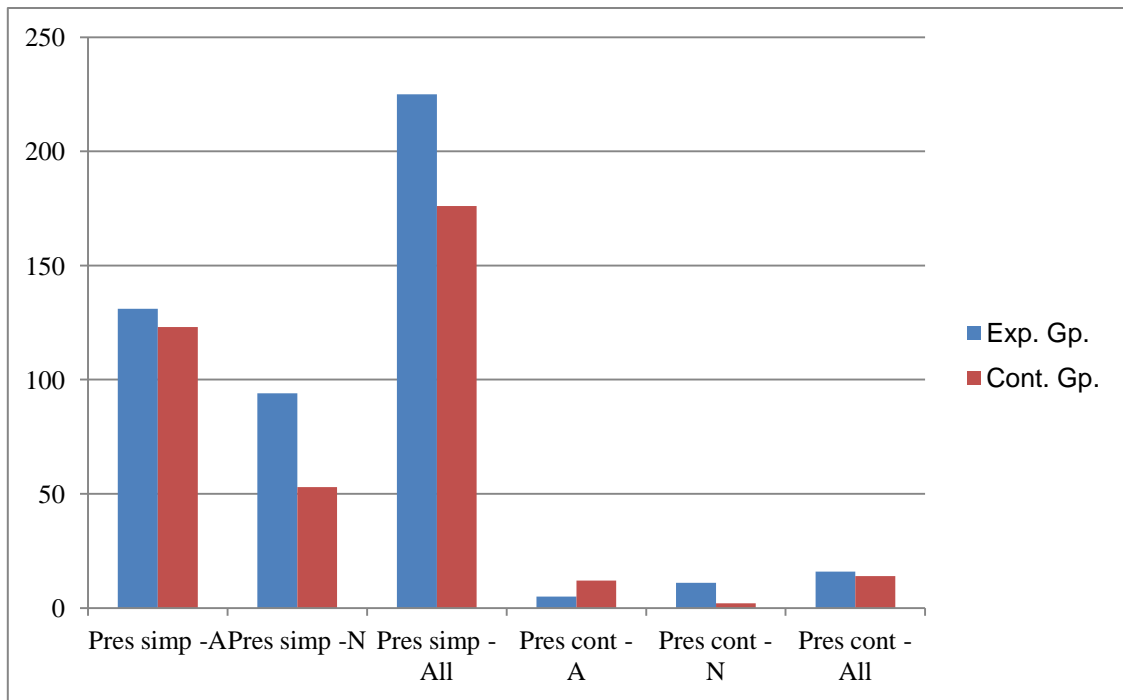


Figure 46. Speaking post-test. Instances of present tense aspects used.  
A = academy students, N = non-academy, All = all students.

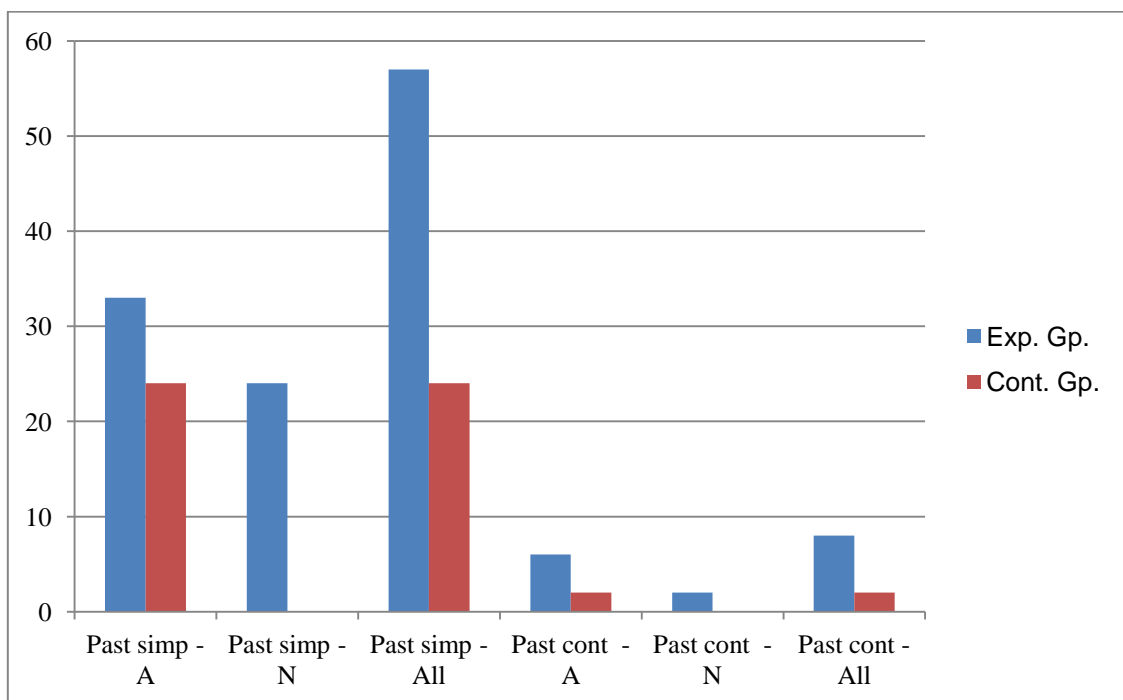


Figure 47. Speaking post-test. Instances of past tense aspects used.  
A = academy students, N = non-academy, All = all students.

The graph (Figure 48) is significant as it shows that more than double the number of experimental students chose to use past tense aspects compared to the control group. Four of the non-academy experimental group students marked their verbs with

past (on occasions if not consistently) while no non-academy control group student used past tense even once during the speaking test. The last of this series of graphs (Figure 49) reiterates the comment above that the experimental group employed past tense exactly two-and-a-half times more frequently than the control group.

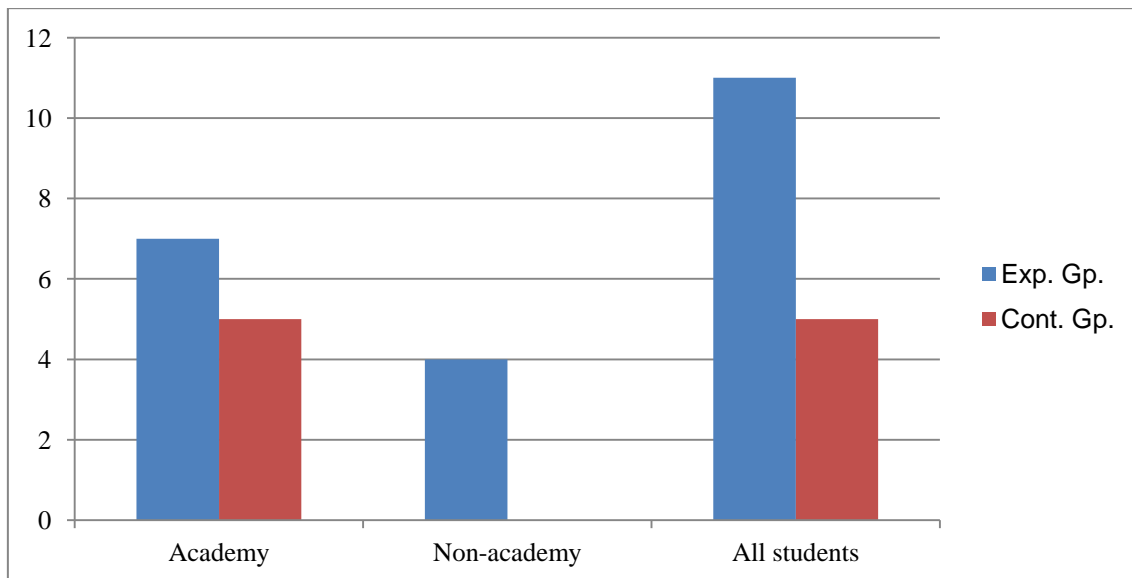


Figure 48. Speaking post-test. Number of students who used past tense aspects.

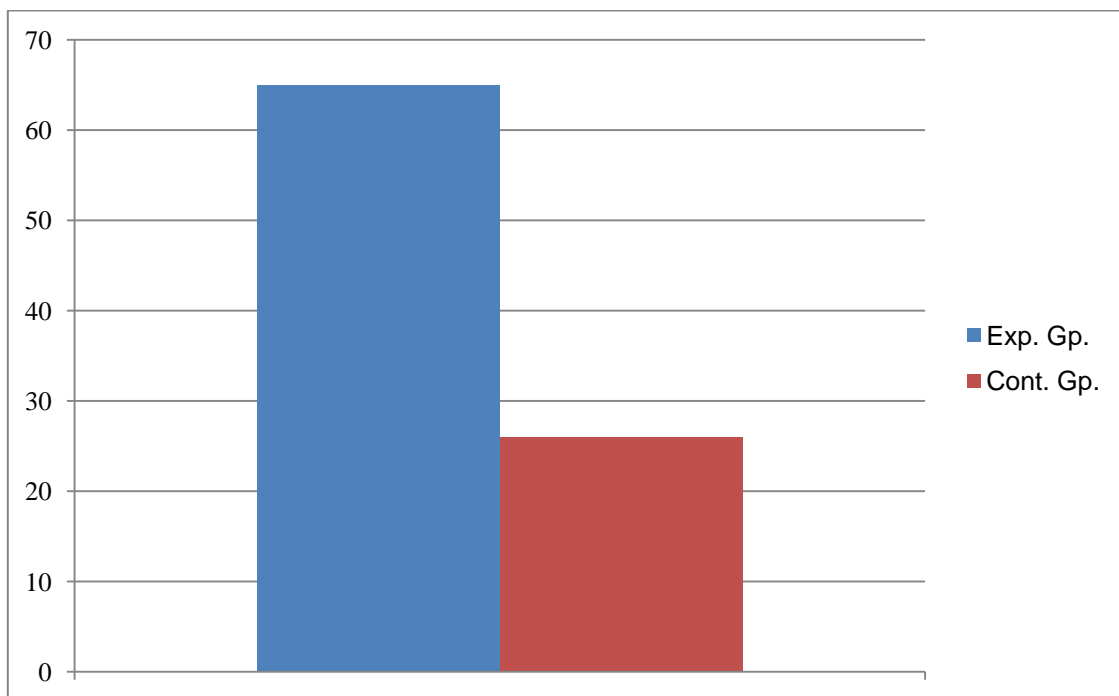


Figure 49. Speaking post-test. Number of instances of past tense aspects use.

The two following graphs (Figures 50 and 51) show total scores for the complete speaking post-test including all extra structural and lexical items evaluated in part 3

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

(monologue based on audio story) with the weightings applied. However, each total score was then divided by the number of words uttered to obtain a percentage score. The rationale behind this measure was to avoid point accumulation from lengthier monologues of C and B-type phrases and instead emphasise the higher quality performances even though shorter in monologue duration. Precautions during word count were taken to ensure score validity. Repetition (“and... and... and...”) was ignored as well as vocalised hesitation sounds. Furthermore, one recast of words and clauses was ignored in the count. The author considers this an essential and commendable communicative learner technique so should not be allowed to adversely affect scores, yet possibly overuse would reflect weaker or less confident speakers. Therefore, the example: “why don't you...? why did you...? why didn't you...?” would provide a word count of 6 (one recast ignored). Likewise, words uttered in Spanish were included in the word count as this was deemed a practice of those learners less familiar with the L2. The more multiple recasts and Spanish words uttered during the monologue, the lower the final score.

All experimental students surpassed scores of control students in the speaking post-test if a descending order of relative peer performance is taken across the two separate groups (academy and non-academy) of the 17 students (Figure 50). Notwithstanding, five academy control students proved stronger than five on the non-academy experimental students. A strong experimental non-academy group of three (see mid-graph) scored higher than any of the control group test-takers and performed better than five of their academy classmates from the experimental group. Three control group test-takers were unable to produce a positive score once weightings and word count were considered.



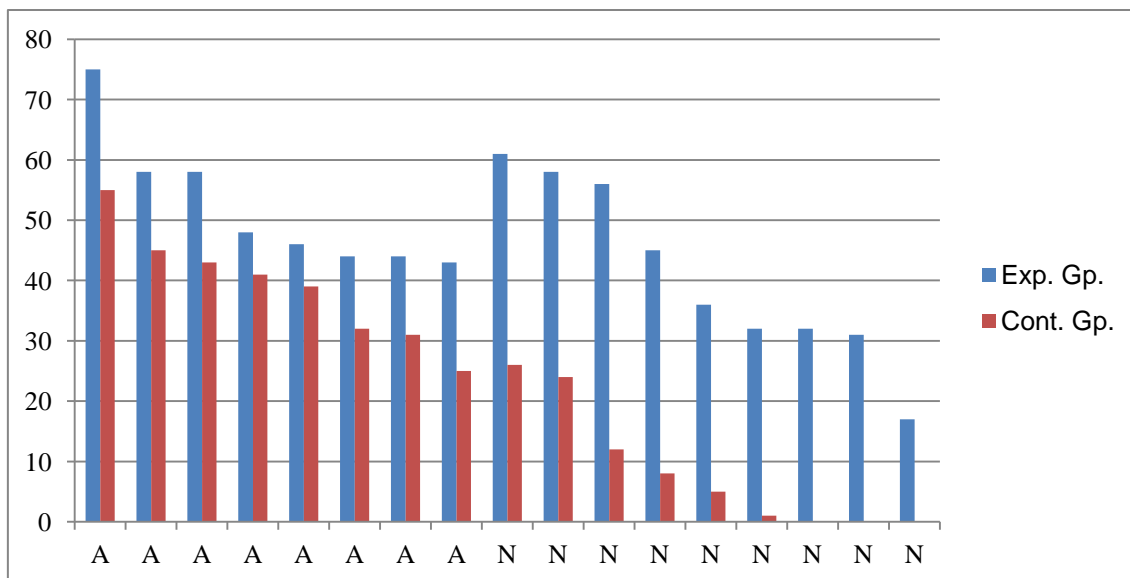


Figure 50. Speaking post-test. Total scores with weightings and word count percentages applied per test-taker. A = academy students, N = non-academy.

The average scores per test-taker for the speaking post-test (Figure 51) show a more than twofold advantage for the experimental group, which compares with almost identical averages at the pre-test speaking graph (Figure 28). Nevertheless, these global comparisons, pre- and post-test, for the speaking test must be assessed with caution owing to only a fifty percent representation evaluated at pre-test for the control group.

Measurements become more useful in assessing language acquisition improvement for both groups over the course duration if morpheme and lexical items are appraised individually. For example, if the eight test-takers of the control group selected at random for testing produced only one linker among them in the speaking pre-test (Figure 30), it would be statistically inaccurate to assume the other nine control group students would have produced significantly more<sup>21</sup>. It could be assumed then that both experimental and control groups possessed very little knowledge of linkers at pre-test – the experimental group showed no knowledge. Subsequent analysis of the

<sup>21</sup> As already pointed out earlier, the selection was not entirely random. Four control students were selected from each of the academy and non-academy groups. It is shown from viewing the findings in the other tests of this experiment that this measure secured an assessment of half of the more able and less able students over the whole control group. Having taken this precaution in selection provides more validity to these pre- and post-test scores.

speaking post-test performance shows substantial increases in linker use for both groups (Figure 42). These overall usage increases should be partly explained by the rise in opportunities offered by a more extensive speaking post-test. However, the almost threefold increment in linker use displayed by the experimental group now shows a significant proportional advance over the control group. The same reasoning can be applied to the CV, A sentence and past tense values considered for comparison. The experimental group displayed proportional increments over the control group of morphemes and lexical items in the speaking post-test not detectable during the pre-test.

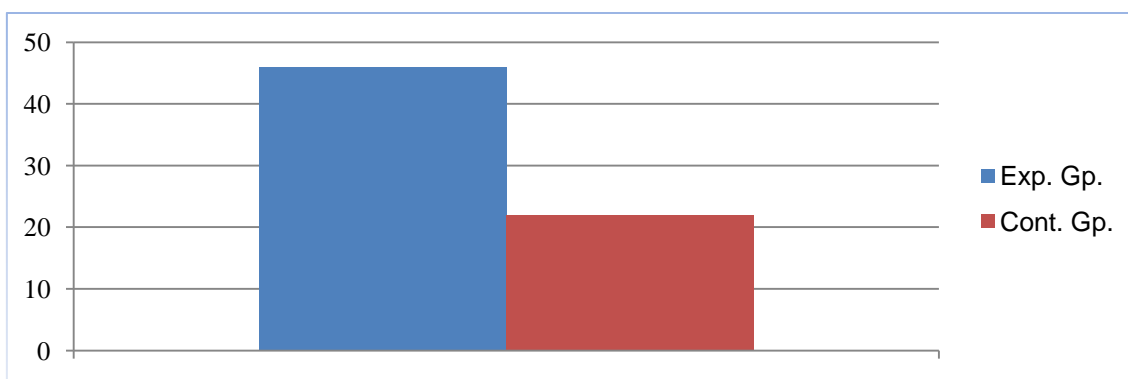


Figure 51. Speaking post-test. Average scores per test-taker with weighting and word count considerations applied.

### 5.7.2. *The north-south divide revisited.*

One outstanding result present on every graph representing the post-test scores (both speaking and written papers) is the diminished spikes of the non-academy students compared to those of the academy students in both the experimental and control groups. This feature of the graphs could have resulted in a more serious issue in classroom management and teaching than in fact arose. GW requires all learners to produce utterances in the L2 together, therefore, it was essential for all learners to learn the entire set of gestures of the most rudimentary English lexis and structures. The TR began the GW course covering the most basic vocabulary and structures usually introduced to learners in the first years of school instruction (see annexe A11.1. for first lesson). By virtue of the velocity of input and recycling inherent in the GW approach, it

was possible to offer learners exposure of the majority of lexical and structural items studied since the first year of primary and advance to language items learnt in the sixth year of primary and beyond. In the case of lexical exposure especially, the TR believes learners in the experimental group worked with a larger lexical set than usually encountered throughout the six years of primary instruction in the English language.

Notwithstanding, some learners in the experimental group (a minority) found the dynamic of gesture exposure more difficult to follow than the more advanced students as the rhythm of input and recycling had to be focused towards the majority. The implications of this division of L2 levels during the experimental course meant that although improvements in acquisition levels were recorded at post-test, some of the low-level learners struggled to keep up and their personal progress presumably suffered as a result.

Additionally, this “divide” was responsible for producing some incidents of unacceptable discipline at times and one child withdrew from the course due to anxiety at her inability to keep abreast of her peers (see more on this subject below). These findings must also be relevant to English language classrooms in schools everywhere in Spain. If “elite” groups of L2 learners are being created by those students whose families have the economic means to attend academy tuition, the subsequent disparity of levels must cause issues of level inequality in classrooms and the consequent difficulties for the teacher to manage and instruct those classes.

### **5.8. A qualitative assessment of the Gesture Way course.**

#### *5.8.1. Learners' acceptance and adaptation to GW.*

Immediately after the majority of classroom sessions with the experimental group the TR made notes on thoughts and impressions generated from the learners'

response to the class material and GW approach. The following comments are a small selection taken from those observations.

At the beginning of the first class, the TR conversed in Spanish with the students with the rationale to gain some rapport (this was only the TR's second contact with these students – the first being at the pre-test). The TR introduced a theme of Red Indians and a video was shown of a little Sioux girl doing hand signs to music (some female students in the class signed along also). It was explained how the Red Indians used gestures to communicate between the many neighbouring tribes of different tongues. The class was divided into four groups, each with a Red Indian tribe name.

Various activities interwove with the different GW phases of the class which allowed points to be awarded to the teams. Small object prizes were given monthly to individuals or teams for outstanding performance. Such a practice was not considered as introducing an unfair variable into the experimental group as the *Pedro Primero* English teacher of the control group also commended good work in “official” recognition ways which the students must have considered more important than prizes such as a Coca Cola pencil case. Indeed, not having an award scheme for a course with no student recompense whatsoever for sustained work, could have meant comparatively lower motivation and interest levels among the experimental group compared to the control. The Red Indian groups, points and award schemes were practised throughout the entire course.

After initial introductions to class management and an explanation of how gestures would be used to teach English, the first GW procedures began as explained in Methods<sup>22</sup>. A picture was placed on the projector and the TR commenced by

---

<sup>22</sup> In fact, students were well-aware that gestures were going to be used to teach English before they enrolled on the course due to feedback from their parents at the introductory parents' meeting, where this was explained and even demonstrated. Student reactions on the first day to this approach was therefore by no means a surprise to them.

introducing the gestures together with the pronunciation and requested that the students also gestured, as is standard practice. This was the TR's entry in the notes made immediately after this first class.

On starting the signing with the picture on the screen there were some giggles from one or two students but the majority took to the proceedings earnestly. I explained the importance of gesturing correctly at all times during speech. The lesson went on with occasional rewards of points to the four teams and, during the latter part of the class, the students were all signing in unison, which is the objective.

The readiness that students took to the gesture dynamic was extremely gratifying. From the very beginning the planned GW approach got underway in the same way it was to continue during the entire course. See annexe A11.1. for first two lesson stories.

The students were not beginners at English, of course, yet they had to learn all gestures of even the most basic words in order to build complete stories. The first classes offered the benefit of presenting via gesture, words the students were already familiar with; this meant that they only needed to recall the meaning of the gesture meaning and not the word itself to complete Silent Sign tasks. These visually obvious and iconic gestures for common objects and the verb "to be" were quickly assimilated and the Silent Sign dynamic operated relatively smoothly in its functioning. As time went on during the experimental course, progressively more vocabulary that students had previously not known was introduced. On average, some seven new words were presented per story/text. Two texts were presented per class, as a mean, so that over the complete course students were exposed to and encouraged to use in communicative activity approximately 350 new high-frequency headwords plus students' pre-existing vocabulary. This word count figure was substantially higher than the headword counts introduced per course in the Twister/Beep 5 or Twister/Beep 6 student's books used in *Pedro Primero*<sup>23</sup>.

---

<sup>23</sup> The TR did not carry out a rigorous word count of the school course books to establish this information and the publishers of the Beep and Twister series do not provide vocabulary glossaries. A perusal of these

There were teething problems too, however, and these had to be worked on from class to class until solutions were found. Some of the most important were the following.

- Where the TR should be positioned in the class in relation to the screen, reference notes and the students. Eventually a small desk was placed in front of the class slightly to one side of the screen.
- How to position the students so that all could see the TR and how this would best benefit the weaker ones amid their more able peers. The presence of desks was problematic and acted as a semicircular barrier between TR and students allowing them a separate “terrain” rather than common TR-student communicative ground. This barrier is all the more appreciable when gestures are the communicative medium. Consequently, less disciplined, more hyperactive students were often placed closer to the TR to enable closer and better communication. It was not possible to remove the desks from the room as the classroom used for the entire course was the school library and was in use by other students daily.
- How to handle the use of Spanish in the class among students. During Silent Sign, the students had few opportunities to talk to each other, however, when engaged in pairwork or groupwork productive exercises, Spanish became overwhelmingly dominant. The questionnaire feedback from *Pedro Primero* teachers indicated that L2-only classes were not encouraged. During the experimental course the TR rarely, if ever, used Spanish. Spanish was eventually

---

books, however, clearly shows that the headword count difference between year five and six is significantly below 350 new items. Other lexical frequencies are also relevant. The school course books introduced new syllabus vocabulary in each of the units with little or no recycling in later units. This was due to a thematic approach which presented word families that included some items of low frequency vocabulary. The rationale behind the GW new vocabulary presentation was that the lexical items did not fall into extensive thematic groups and were instead always high frequency and therefore easily recycled.

after some weeks “outlawed” altogether, which was a successful decision and respected by awarding points for L1 abstention.

- How to get the students to work in pairs and groups in a mature way for production work. It seems students were not used to this practice at school therefore training and discipline took time to implement, unfortunately. A similar comment was made by Arnott when observing teenagers in AIM classes in Canada (Arnott 2005:24). A lack of discipline from some individuals during these sessions eventually became an issue for redress. Parents and the school headmistress were contacted to intervene (annexes A4.1. and A3.2.). Indeed, the timetable of the experimental course classes coincided with a time no other members of school staff were on the premises. The TR found the lack of support from staff in authority was sensed by some students who subsequently assumed a brash and overconfident attitude in class. Furthermore, these students had never been asked before to participate orally in class for such long periods of time (DSL1). The novelty of this communicative approach may have been confusing for some students regarding what full oral participation in class actually entailed. Interestingly, unruly students were not the weaker ones language ability-wise but the more able students. The case in annexe A4.1. eventually scored the highest among the “non-academy” students in the speaking post-test and second highest of all thirty-four students. The TR also felt that the timetabling of the classes may have also been detrimental regarding behaviour; being at four o’clock in the afternoon - immediately after lunch.
- Student concentration spans with this group appeared shorter than the TR was accustomed to with smaller groups he had taught prior to this course. This meant that Silent Sign phases had to be shorter than planned and were thus interspersed

with pairwork production activities. An hour-long class proved excessive and admittedly these students were used to 45-minute English classes both at the school and the academy. With reference to the TR notes, it seems an average over the experimental course of thirty to forty minutes was dedicated to Silent Sign phases per class.

No formal student questionnaire on satisfaction was handed out to course participators, however, feedback from students and parents was very frequent. In a small town like Carmona (30,000 inhabitants), many parents of the experimental course students were the “butchers and bakers” of local establishments and therefore the TR received comments on a regular basis when shopping. All were favourable, if rather generic and not academic, such as their son/daughter was enjoying the course very much and he/she was learning a lot. Interestingly, nobody mentioned that those eight students also receiving extra classes at the local academy felt that so much English instruction was an excessive burden. At the end of the course, four groups of parents contacted the TR requesting a continuation of the GW course for their children on a paid basis.

When one observes the videos taken of the experimental course students both of the Silent Sign phases and student production story-telling (see attached CD), noticeable high energy and enthusiasm levels are unmistakable. The TR would conclude that Spanish children of these ages enjoy all opportunities to express themselves verbally and physically. GW encourages both vocal and kinaesthetic expression as a sole medium to develop L2 skills and communicative ability; such an approach could be considered an ideal for raising motivation and enjoyment levels among second-language learners.





Figures 52 and 53. GW experimental course class during Silent Sign and floor area covered by the TR. The redundancy and inconvenience of the desks are evident in this photo. There is a screen behind the TR where a picture is being projected. The abacus on the TR's table is for recording points scored from the four Indian "tribes". The TR refers to a piece of paper on the same table as a written reference for the story being gestured. During all Silent Sign phases, the TR remained standing and mobile to create a sense of communicative proximity with the students.

#### *5.8.2. A case study of student/TR intervention during Silent Sign.*

The rationale behind the GW course approach was that learners would acquire structures and lexis from the relatively ample amount of language they had exposure to via meaning-salient gestures. Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terrell once said: "...the ability to speak fluently and easily in a second language emerges by itself after a

sufficient amount of competence has been acquired through input” (Krashen and Terrell 2000:20). Indeed, this ‘emergence’ from minimal explicit instruction but heightened and accelerated comprehended input is the strategy prevalent in GW (Bilbrough 2016).

From a study of the video of students carrying out Silent Sign of the story of “Montague Pilkinson in the desert” (see CD attached for class video and transcript at annexe A11.7.), recorded at hour fifty of the fifty-seven-hour course, in a little over six class-time minutes, learners interpreted a hundred and sixty gestures and gave the corresponding word utterances in chorus (see Table 5).

Part of speech	Instances
Number of verbs conjugated	26
Number of different verbs conjugated	20
Present continuous	1
Regular past simple	6
Irregular past simple	9
Past continuous	2
Negative verb forms: <i>don't, can't, didn't</i>	3
Imperatives	2
Question forms	2
Temporal conjunctions: <i>then, later, suddenly</i>	3

The first two sentences from the story “Montague in the desert” mentioned above were analysed theoretically according to the minimal interaction these sentences would produce via Silent Sign (see section 3.2.3.). Table 2 showed theoretical interaction only whereas Table 6 below of the same sentences describes real learner and TR utterances during the Silent Sign procedure of the two sentences after analysis of the class video. The additional annotations for both TR and students that differ from Table

2 are shown in red for clarity. The order of delivery of utterances per gesture in the student interaction sections (light green) is shown reading from the top of the list downwards.

Table 6: Case study showing actual TR and student interactions and differences (in red) compared with theoretical model at table 3 (see CD for video clip). Light blue = TR; Light green = students in chorus; g = gesture only; s = spoken word only; gs = gesture and spoken word simultaneously.																																																									
<table border="1"> <tr> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">s</td> <td colspan="2"></td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">s</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">s</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Montague Pilkinson</td> <td colspan="2"></td> <td>(Saxon genitive)</td> <td>(plane)</td> <td>(past tense)</td> <td>(crash)</td> <td><u>crashed</u></td> <td>(in)</td> <td>(the)</td> <td>(desert)</td> <td colspan="2">Montague Pilkinson's plane crashed in the desert.</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="3" style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">gs</td> <td>Montague Pilkinson's</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">gs</td> <td>aeroplane plane?</td> <td colspan="2" style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">gs</td> <td>crash? crashed</td> <td colspan="2" style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">gs</td> <td>in</td> <td>the</td> <td>desert</td> </tr> </table>													s			g	g	g	g	g	s	g	g	g	s	Montague Pilkinson			(Saxon genitive)	(plane)	(past tense)	(crash)	<u>crashed</u>	(in)	(the)	(desert)	Montague Pilkinson's plane crashed in the desert.		gs			Montague Pilkinson's	gs	aeroplane plane?	gs		crash? crashed	gs		in	the	desert					
s			g	g	g	g	g	s	g	g	g	s																																													
Montague Pilkinson			(Saxon genitive)	(plane)	(past tense)	(crash)	<u>crashed</u>	(in)	(the)	(desert)	Montague Pilkinson's plane crashed in the desert.																																														
gs			Montague Pilkinson's	gs	aeroplane plane?	gs		crash? crashed	gs		in	the	desert																																												
<table border="1"> <tr> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">s</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">s</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">s</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">g</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">s</td> </tr> <tr> <td>(he/him)</td> <td>(past tense)</td> <td>(aux. do)</td> <td>(negative)</td> <td>didn't</td> <td>(possessive have)</td> <td>(some/any)</td> <td>any</td> <td>(food/eat)</td> <td>food</td> <td>(or)</td> <td>(water)</td> <td>He didn't have any food or water.</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="2" style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">gs</td> <td colspan="2" style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">gs</td> <td>He</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">gs</td> <td>doesn't didn't!</td> <td colspan="2" style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">gs</td> <td>have have got have</td> <td style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">gs</td> <td>some any!</td> <td colspan="2" style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">gs</td> <td>eat food</td> <td colspan="2" style="background-color: #e6f2ff;">gs</td> <td>or</td> <td>drink water drinking water!</td> </tr> </table>													g	g	g	g	s	g	g	s	g	s	g	g	s	(he/him)	(past tense)	(aux. do)	(negative)	didn't	(possessive have)	(some/any)	any	(food/eat)	food	(or)	(water)	He didn't have any food or water.	gs		gs		He	gs	doesn't didn't!	gs		have have got have	gs	some any!	gs		eat food	gs		or	drink water drinking water!
g	g	g	g	s	g	g	s	g	s	g	g	s																																													
(he/him)	(past tense)	(aux. do)	(negative)	didn't	(possessive have)	(some/any)	any	(food/eat)	food	(or)	(water)	He didn't have any food or water.																																													
gs		gs		He	gs	doesn't didn't!	gs		have have got have	gs	some any!	gs		eat food	gs		or	drink water drinking water!																																							

Illustrations of the bullet points made in (b) in section 3.2.5. “from gesture revelation to final utterance – an analysis of an instant in time” can be clearly seen here. Students called out answers that in some instances were recast through self-correction or counteracting, contradicting answers made by others. In all cases of words uttered from variable headword gestures, students unanimously arrived at a final correct answer. Where an exclamation mark (!) ends an utterance in Table 6, the majority or all students called out this answer repeatedly and more loudly as though to confirm their conviction of having arrived at the correct answer. It will be noticed that the TR never interrupted the process of students arranging their own thoughts and utterances.

However, the TR intervened with utterances at other junctures besides the summary at the end of the sentence. This was due to a natural reaction to reiterate correct answers that took students some time to resolve such as “didn’t”, “any” and “food”. This form of corrective feedback is called repetition and recast and may or may not benefit student learning (Lyster and Ranta 1997 and Leeman 2003), nevertheless, this teacher reaction is perhaps inevitable. In the case of the unvoiced “ed” ending of the past regular verb, “crashed”, the TR wished to accentuate the correct form and placed excessive inflection on the suffix. In this example extract, from a scrutiny of the video, there was no apparent student reaction to these repetition/recast interjections.

Students may utter correct alternative answers. In the extract, the students say “aeroplane” (and possibly “plane” too – not clearly audible) despite the TR’s expectation of “plane” (offered during the presentation phase). Students also say “drink” instead of the expected “water” and indeed the hesitations here could be due to “drink” also being acceptable in this context. The TR attempts to be aware of student alternative answers and when more than one is given at an instance, briefly praise those who gave them by repeating the items and pointing to and naming students who uttered them. In other extracts analysed on video, these praising repetition interjections by the TR produced visibly favourable reactions of pleasure from students.

Interestingly, on occasions and outside the above extract, learners brought up their own points of grammar to discuss during Silent Sign sessions. If there was interest shown by a significant number of students was appreciable then the TR stopped and answered grammar queries – albeit briefly. The video extract on one such interruption of learners’ query about the differences between “tall” and “high” can be viewed in the attached CD. If learners themselves enquire into form without the prompt from the TR it

could be assumed that learners will be more receptive to the explanations than if form explanations are thrust upon them.

On the other hand, disputed answers called out by individuals to correct utterances from the rest of the class were usually ignored (but see below on more about unwanted interruptions). The reason being, as stated previously, that if communicative environments are heavily interwoven with structure analysis, the emphasis on the former becomes shrouded and diminished and the communicative activity of “telling and listening to a story” becomes obscured (see Focus on Form, section 4.2.5.).

The above case study of just a few seconds of the fifty-seven-hour course offers support for and evidence of the DSLI philosophy previously discussed in this thesis. All class members are provided with the opportunity to simultaneously participate in thoughtful engagement with L2 English: interpreting gestures, uttering, enouncing, rectifying decisions and producing recasts of holistic meaningful language at a velocity the author cannot envisage is possible for a whole class of students to equal using mainstream approaches. It begins to explain, therefore, how the experimental group was able to develop an interlanguage previously inferior to that of the members of the control group (at pre-test stage) and move forward over one academic year to surpass the control group in acquisition knowledge and communicative ability.

### *5.8.3. Class size and influences of GW effectiveness.*

Despite the optimistic tone conveyed in the above comments, the experimental course was not without its difficulties and inconsistencies. When taking into account student numbers in the class, observations of the recorded videos have prompted the TR to state the following points. Assessing class size repercussions on GW effectiveness was possible to some extent. Minimum numbers of learners could be as few as fourteen or fifteen on some days while there were nineteen students in a full class. Smaller

numbers of students gave the TR the impression that the students present were more focused than when all students attended. Various behaviours were noted when appraising the videos post-class that led to reduced DSLI across the complete group during the Silent Sign phase.

- Some students felt they wanted to comment on something at a given moment and raised their hands or even called out for the TR's attention. Likewise, there existed altercations between students, snide or jocular remarks ignoring the current workflow of Silent Sign. These interruptions were often difficult to overlook as the students could be most insistent on being heard.
- The TR sometimes made brief comments to individual students and thereby lost attention from the majority who immediately became distracted and would turn to each other and talk in Spanish. The TR then had the uncomfortable task of attempting to regain attention from the complete group once more before continuing.

The larger the group, the more these factors influenced negatively on DSLI and global comprehension of the story and its events. Solutions were sought during the course such as reducing the time of Silent Sign phases and simplifying the material or story to cater for students with diminished concentration spans. As also mentioned here, the use of Spanish in class was also prohibited to curtail non-DSLI verbiage. In practice, however, some individuals (often the same ones) would still sometimes disrupt the desired Silent Sign dynamic. The invaluable Silent Sign phases in the GW approach required learner attention for their successful outcome. GW is not a teaching methodology; it only inputs or offers affordances of language. The gestural affordances provided by the teacher await interpretation. They strike an imaginary interface somewhere between the teacher

and learner. If the learner is not receptive to that information at that interface nor sufficiently cognitively alert to interpret it, there are no opportunities for the learner to ingest and subsequently process the language for subsequent acquisition.

On a more positive note, observations from the videos clearly showed that when students were paying attention and refrained from interrupting, Silent Sign phases with the full quota of nineteen students functioned correctly (see video on enclosed CD for successful functioning). The size of the group was not an influencing factor in the comprehension of the gestures and story as long as they could clearly see the TR. The choral arrangement of the class meant all students could participate simultaneously and individually yet also be fully aware of their peers' utterances and decisions about language – which was the desired dynamic. Indeed, despite any negative issues discussed here, the TR perceived a positive dynamic in the classes overall and an environment overwhelmingly conducive to language acquisition. Perhaps, in an authentic setting at a school and with periodical testing or feedback assessments on student progress, students might be motivated sufficiently to develop the necessary classroom discipline required to allow Silent Sign to function more effectively.

### *5.8.4. Report on the homework project.*

The homework sessions intended during the GW course were not, unfortunately, accomplished according to the original plan. Previous GW courses run by the author were more successful learner performance-wise with three class sessions per week rather than two. The frequency of exposure to lexis and structures is paramount and where time lapses between classes are lengthened, the readiness learners have for recall during Silent Sign declines. Furthermore, the control group were enjoying three classes a week of English at *Pedro Primero* so not only were they older and more mature by twelve months, they were also receiving more sessions of English.

Initially experimental group learners were requested to watch "revision" videos of the class sessions on a weekly basis where they could gesture and speak at home in front of their PC, downloading the videos from YouTube (see YouTube sources, GW homework example). It was later discovered that fewer than half the learners actually saw the videos. After ten weeks of such video homework, the author became aware that his efforts were not wholly attended to and it was difficult to check learners' assurances and promises that they were. Homework tasks were switched to Mp3 recording tasks that learners had to create of stories practised in class and load up to a closed forum hosted on the TR's website for him to appraise. Despite greater control the TR gained by this approach over fulfilment of the homework schedule, still approximately only a third to a half of learners completed the tasks. Pleading communications (annexes A4.2. and A3.2.) from the author to both parents and *Pedro Primero* administration were to no avail and homework tasks continued to be completed by a proportion of the class learners that could hardly be termed a majority.

The homework part of the project was not a successful venture, which was disappointing as the parents had given their assurances in the open-day meeting before course initiation that they would comply to the course conditions. As a result, it is ventured here that most benefits to acquisition levels gained during the experimental course were influenced relatively little from homework tasks for the majority.

Looking at the homework project in retrospect and the objectives it intended to achieve, it was encouraging to be able to mark homework that had been created entirely orally rather than the usual practice of written work and discrete item exercises in course workbooks. Such an approach did place more time demands on the TR as he was required to listen to and mark each audio file. However, if this practice were taken up by a teacher, these files could stay on the server and learners create their own "diaries" of



online projects (school intranet based, for example) accessible at any time with a password. Some learners produced recorded Mp3 files as joint projects between three or four learners and comments on the experiences from those who participated (and their parents) were enthusiastic.

Possibly, the attitude towards the completion of homework tasks would have been taken more seriously had this experimental course comprised official school study rather than an extracurricular activity.

### *5.8.5. Report on post Silent Sign activities carried out.*

Other fluency tasks carried out after Silent Sign phases as a complement the Silent Sign material were the following.

- Learners were requested to get into pairs or small groups and re-tell the stories they had just heard using comic strip type pictures or word clues as prompts (annexes A11.5. and A11.6.).
- Students came to the front to tell the stories in pairs or groups.
- A group of students acted out their stories while another narrated.
- The TR held quizzes about the events of the stories and students called out answers.
- Wooden effigies (as used by sketch-artists) were arranged on the table fixed with blu-tack representing a scene (at the beach, at dinner-time, etc.) No information was given except that students should call out phrases to build their own story according to their own imaginations). See Figure 54.
- Word prompts were also introduced in latter stages of the course to tell stories due to concerns that students had to complete written tests at the end of the course.



Figure 54. Wooden effigies with accessories placed on TR’s table in front of class for spontaneous story creation. (Close-up taken with macro lens.)

*5.8.6. Report on teaching implications with a mixed ability experimental group.*

It has already been mentioned that owing to a mixed ability group because of the presence of “academy” and “non-academy” students in the same class, teaching efficiency may have been compromised. To a certain extent this unfortunate scenario did arise. In a class dynamic such as GW, the loudest, most confident and probably most able students tend to dominate and dictate the pace of the lesson. Learners with less L2 knowledge or reduced enthusiasm can dupe the TR some of the time by gesturing and lip-moving but with little true interaction (reduced DSLI). A tentative appraisal of the experimental group student types was drawn from knowledge that enrolment had been voluntary and from observations of student behaviour and parent comments during and after the course.

- a. Able and enthusiastic learners from the academy who enjoy English and enrolled from their own volition.
- b. Enthusiastic students not from the academy and less able but enrolled from their own volition as they enjoy learning English.

- c. Students not from the academy and reluctant to enrol but forced by their parents to do so as their English exam results at school were poor. Their parents were keen for their children to take advantage of a free communicative-centred English course.

Groups a and b are shown in the results table mixed together with relatively high marks. Group c, however, despite improvement during the course and relative superiority compared to the control group's lowest achievers, scored markedly below students from groups a and b in the post-tests.

The pressure on the TR was to follow the rhythm set by the large majority of more able students. The decision was a difficult one yet, the TR believes, essential to avoid boredom among the higher aptitude students. As a probable result of favouring the majority, the overall course student attendance rate was positively high at 93%.

Comments from this group c type of students and their parents were mixed. The two students who eventually failed to finish the course were from this same student type. One of these students had ADHD. On the other hand, another c group student, though relatively much weaker than the others at the close of the course, appeared to benefit greatly from it. His mother emailed the following:

[...] y especialmente por el avance experimentado por mi hijo [...] y la motivación que ha despertado por el inglés, que nunca antes había mostrado y en la que ha influido su metodología y su capacidad de trasmisión, sin lugar a dudas. [...and especially for the progress my son has shown [...] and the motivation he now has for English, which he had never shown before and that has undoubtedly been influenced by your methodology and capacity to transmit.] (See annexe A4.3. for this and other messages of gratitude.)

No second language learning course should include multi-level ability students of the extremes perceived in this experimental group. What is true for a mainstream course of L2 English in this respect is also relevant for a GW course. On an encouraging note, it was interesting to note how initially less able “non-academy” students (student types b and c) managed not only to follow and improve their English during the

experimental course term but also in some cases score higher in the post-tests than their “academy” peers.

5.8.7. *Gestures and onomatopoeia.*

The underlying message in this thesis to date regarding GW emphasises a paradigm of artificial gestures conveying meanings without necessarily immediate L2 transference into long-term memory. This transference process into long-term memory for acquisition, it has been assumed, is carried out over time through high velocity recycled frequency of the same lexis and structures. If this model has been reiterated, it is owing to certain assumptions made and observations taken during GW procedure in the classroom. It is a model that seems to have produced the superior results in acquisition displayed by the experimental group. The TR relied on frequent recycling to enhance acquisition and placed little importance on whether learners were able to utter words from memory after only one or two expositions during the next class or the following week. The author has criticised Asher in this thesis for the importance he placed on “snapshot” memory of a recently presented L2 item “on the first exposure and placed in long-term storage for retrieval anytime in the future” (1977:1-18). How it will be retrieved in the future and in what context is the question that begs from this statement. Memory is not enough for SL acquisition. Grammatical items and complex lexis in usage especially require recycling over many exposures so that learners may make the necessary adjustments to their interlanguage over time. However, a new word immediately memorised for later recall in utterance form must be useful within a Partial Production Environment (PPE) such as Silent Sign even if the learner is unaware of its correct usage. If a learner could utter a new word through recall after only one exposure, the learner’s mind is freer to deal with other linguistic aspects such as its correct application within the L2.

From observations of the videos, the TR has noticed that after only one or two exposures of new lexis some utterances were recalled successfully days later with only the gesture as eliciting prompt<sup>24</sup>. Reasons which possibly explain this finding could be the following.

- Students did, in fact, know the word previously.
- Words are similar in learners' L1 so transfer easily in memory.
- Words are similar to previous words learnt or related to them phonemically. (The “word-likeness effect” by Gathercole, Frankish, Pickering & Peaker 1999 discussed in section 2.3.2.)

The TR tentatively points out other possible reasons.

- Gestures help learners anticipate sounds of onomatopoeic words after initial presentation: clap, cry, crash, knock, etc.
- Gestures imbue words with onomatopoeic qualities by the contours they trace or by the direction, pace and duration of the gesture's trajectory.

This last point was especially true in the videos if combined with exaggerated voice intonation which sonorously parallels gesture performance.

- Up - gesture (index pointing up) moves upwards in a movement corresponding with the time taken to enounce word. TR used high pitch in voice or quickly rising intonation.
- Down – gesture (index pointing down) sinks at speed of delivery of the long vowel diphthong. TR used deep pitch or falling intonation. (See annexe A1.4. for explanation of “down”.)

---

<sup>24</sup> In fact, locating words from viewing the videos which answered to this description was difficult as the GW teacher attempts to quickly recycle newly presented language several times within one class session. It cannot be considered particularly significant that a given word repeated in context several times in one class should be recalled the following class.

- But – both palms move forward slightly held flat and facing forward either side of body at head height. Voice intonation with doubtful tones accompany and equal gestural duration. (See annexe section A1.3. for more explanation of “but”.)

There were several more instances observed in the videos. The TR did not necessarily perform these extra-animated gestures with voice exaggeration with the conscious intention of enhancing immediate memory intake of the L2 word. On retrospect, the TR believes these gesture and voice embellishments were a natural way to illustrate and convey meaning more clearly (read about loss of artificiality below). One can perhaps draw parallels with the work of Poyatos (2002) when he mentions the existence in nonverbal communication of kinephonographs and kinetographs such as the imitation of movement and sound imitating the galloping of a running horse with or without rapping our knuckles on the table (Poyatos 2002:186).

The conclusion drawn here is that gesture properties should be studied before their design. Gestures can perhaps promote a more rapid intake into memory for utterance recall of the L2 word itself and not just recall of the word meaning. To achieve this purpose, the designer needs to place attention on how these gesture performances interact with the word phonemes at gesture performance.

5.8.8. *On the loss of artificiality of the GW gestures, and “compensatory communication”.*

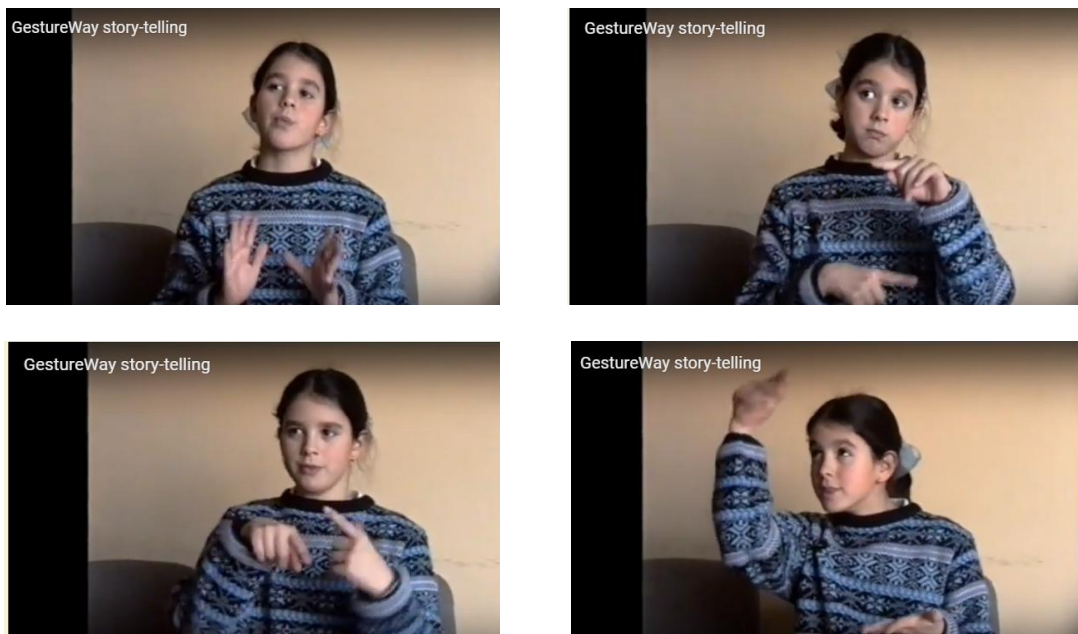


Figure 55. Production phase using gestures for story-telling (Bilbrough 2002, see full video on CD).

Offered here as evidence of the consequences of artificiality lost and the quote by Gullberg (2006:112) on “compensatory communication” is a video of a former nine-year-old GW student recorded in 2002 after three years of English study with this approach (see enclosed CD). The GW artificial gestures were so engrained in her interlanguage, she used them constantly during oral fluency production. Similar behaviour to the same or to a lesser degree was observed during oral fluency production sessions with other students and during this experimental course of just fifty-seven hours. The video offers insights into a remarkable phenomenon yet comment in this thesis cannot explore in depth the significance of this behaviour as this would require further empirical research. The two modes of expression appear to occur in parallel; one reinforcing the other rather than compensating for semantic complexities in oral English<sup>25</sup>. On the other hand, if the learner cannot express herself orally without

<sup>25</sup> One possible exception is the moment when the learner gestures “comfortable”; not able to recall the spoken word. However, rather than having a purely compensatory purpose, the principal motive for the gesture is to communicate with the teacher to elicit the correct spoken word. Such tactics are also witnessed in natural nonverbal communication. See section 2.5.1. for a list of similar theories.

gesturing, perhaps this kinaesthetic performance stimulates an immediate association with the spoken word. Perhaps an explanation simply lies in habit-forming from long-term exposure to English presented with gestures. Another possibility could be that learners feel they are obliged to gesture despite the fact this instruction is never given during fluency production<sup>26</sup>. The author has perceived that some learners prefer to use the artificial gestures to improve accuracy of oral delivery – though whether this is a conscious choice or not cannot be stated. In the example video clip provided, one notices moments of hesitation as the learner attempts to coordinate simultaneous word and gesture. Indeed, the learners who preferred to gesture were often younger and less secure about production than their more confident classmates who adopted this practice much less. Despite slightly retarded delivery of utterances when gesturing during production, students who gesture this way appear to make fewer errors - in lexical choice especially. The meaning dictates the gesture and the gesture dictates the spoken word and so if the learner expresses herself through meaning (such is the nature of true fluency production), her spoken lexical choice, based on a limited repertoire of pre-learned gestures, is more likely to be correct.

What is apparent is that the gestures in GW, designed artificially, merge over time into a process of meaningful communication and thus approximate authentic and natural expression. This is true for both the teacher using Silent Sign as for the learners during fluency production. The GW gesture phenomenon begs further exploration as it may open up new avenues of research not only into the mysteries of nonverbal communication but also into a better understanding of the relationship between natural

---

<sup>26</sup> Neither is gesturing during production denied the learner. The researcher believes it is important not to intrude on how learners decide to produce fluency for fear of interrupting with the way the beginner feels most comfortable at this initially tenuous stage.



gesture and “encouraged” gesture (see Goldin-Meadow *et. al* 1999, Roth 2003) with regards to both L1 and L2 learning.

## 6. Conclusions.

Difficulties have been experienced in SL learning research in obtaining reliable data through comparisons between methodologies for classroom instruction. The results have failed to reflect significant differences between the efficacy of one methodology and another. The reasons offered to explain this have been outlined by Ellis (2008):

- relatively little progress in L2 acquisition during the study,
- learners benefit from different types of instruction,
- different approaches may offer very similar opportunities for learning irrespective of method.

Ellis warned that “It is probably true to say that comparative method studies, even when conducted with due regard for classroom processes, have afforded very little insight into how instructional events contribute to learning” (Ellis and Lightbown in Ellis 2008:851)<sup>27</sup>.

Ellis then points out (2008:849) that one exception to these disappointing results has been the TPR studies. Furthermore, Krashen declared that “the TPR results are clear and consistent, and the magnitude of superiority of TPR is quite striking” (Krashen 1982:156). Due to similarities between TPR and GW in qualities such as kinaesthetic involvement, elements of enhanced DSLI and the absence of text during instruction, it was hoped from the outset that data collected from the GW experiment would proffer more convincing comparative results than previous studies in other methodologies.

A further deviation from former methodology studies can be outlined if the velocity input dynamic of the GW course is considered. Whereas comparisons between two methodologies may suppose very similar quantities of L2 materials presented to

---

<sup>27</sup> Furthermore, an issue that Ellis mentions as preventing clearly distinct scores between tested groups was that the course durations may have been too short (2008:849). Asher (2009:19) recommended minimum course durations of around seventy to ninety hours.

learners during the same time period, this GW course offered exposure of relatively larger amounts of lexis than were covered in the *Pedro Primero* classes (see section 5.8.1. for explanation). This unique accelerated input feature of GW could assist the researcher in explaining apparent gains by the experimental group over the control group in certain lexical and morpheme items despite the relative brevity of the course of fifty-seven hours.

As mentioned in Methods, experiment course validity was affected from more than one parallel English course running simultaneously. Instruction received at the local private academy especially introduced variables that presumably affected the validity of final post-test outcomes. The most unfortunate occurrence was the introduction of past tense forms in the academy over the GW course period. All experimental students at pre-test held no knowledge of past tense verbs so that comparisons at post-tense with the control group could have been more revealing if contrasts had involved only the GW course and school instruction. Notwithstanding, four of the non-academy students of the experimental group gave a more advanced performance than their non-academy control group peers in past tense marking. The non-academy control students had received past tense instruction both in the fifth and the sixth years at *Pedro Primero*. Furthermore, much larger proportional increments of instances of past marking were recorded among the experimental students as a complete group. There seems little explanation for this if the GW course is not considered responsible. By the end of the experimental course, the control group had received two years of instruction in past tense at the academy compared to one year for the experimental group. Indeed, the measurable superiority shown by experimental students compared to their control group peers at speaking post-test with multiple increments in

all item usage instances serves to draw positive conclusions about the influence of GW on learners' acquisition.

The written post-test offers smaller discrepancies among the reading comprehension, listening and grammar competency scores between the two groups under study. It has been suggested in Results that these findings are a consequence of the more communicative nature of the GW course containing a reduced amount of explicit instruction. However, this analysis indicates that the experimental course students were able to score similarly or better at discrete item tests on past tense, for example. It has also been posited here that the GW dynamic affords learners metalinguistic awareness and encourages structure and lexical noticing through salience albeit on a communicative plane. The results obtained for the (non-communicative) written part of the post-test at least do not refute this quality and would suggest support for firmer evidence if it were not for the assumed prevalence for discrete item teaching elsewhere.

A clear indication of accurate experiment validity can be perceived through an analysis across the entire section of the post-tense results. The graphs in Results distinctly reveal a pattern of proportional consistency in the score tendencies of both experimental and control groups. Academy students tend to show a general superiority over the non-academy learners. A sub-group of non-academy learners from the experimental group repeatedly exhibit higher scores than the rest of their non-academy peers. (A reference has been made to the existence of three sub-groups in the qualitative section of this thesis, see section 5.8.6., identified as an a, b, and c groups during the course period.)

It is gratifying to detect these consistent score tendencies in the tests themselves for two reasons. Firstly, it lends support for the overall testing rationale, validity and

authenticity of the tests and results and thereby offering credibility to endorse further claims made by the tests' significance regarding the GW approach. Secondly, consistency in score proportionality over a barrage of tests on different items both metalinguistic and communicative seemingly provides evidence of L2 learning being a single holistic learner "skill" rather than a series of detached and distinct skills such as reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar, etc. Common claims that a language student performs significantly better at grammar than speaking or needs to improve his/her listening skills as though each competency requires individual treatment perhaps reflects a compartmental approach to teaching procedure in class. This is the fault of the procedure – not the student. An holistic study of a foreign language should result in holistic progress in all language items. This does not mean that all items must be acquired equally. Those items or areas of language that the learner develops less will be of reduced necessity for communication. The holistic language learner will simply acquire those elements required for effective communication. If communicative ability is the only criteria for assessment, the holistic language learner will not be wanting in those prefabricated "skills" which explain away the failings of a compartmental classroom approach. Experimental group learners who performed well in communicative tasks during the post-tests also produced comparatively positive results in reading, grammar and even writing despite a substantial reduction in the exposure of the written form of new lexis encountered on the course. In contrast, non-academy control group learners scored comparatively well in post-tests in reading comprehension, listening and grammar tests yet notably poorer in the speaking post-test: three of these learners scoring a zero.

This study not only explored the introduction of artificial gesture in the English language classroom but the subsequent substitution of text by gesture. One tool has

been removed and replaced by another. The gesture tool in GW possesses qualities that facilitate learning and memory that can be likened to systems that date back over millennia. Manipulation of imagery, movement and “striking and impacting similitudes” were once the domain of orators, scholars and sages who sought encyclopaedic memory capacity, retention and recall. The ancients believed text could be retained in the mind and recalled yet not without the assistance of imagery. Modern studies on memory experts have revealed that even the most adept resort to mnemonics which draw, if not always directly on the pictorial, then at least on some semantic relationship (Chase and Ericsson 1981). Human memory requires a meaningful reference to function and to allow recall.

When embarking on the acquisition of a second language, a learner requires a reference for encounters with new L2 lexis. Without such a reference the learner lacks the means to recognise, distinguish and grasp what seem like continuous incomprehensible strings of erratic verbiage in the air. Offering the learner text as the principal reference is ill-advised. Writing, for the L2 learner, is initially devoid of recognisable imagery or semantic reference to seize and secure the spoken word in the mind. Gestures, however, serve as conceptual pegs creating instant and powerful semantic bonds between themselves and meaning. Anderson (1980) clearly states, we should go no further than that. We cannot expect imagery to fix the foreign word in the mind. Gestures are not a mnemonic for L2 lexis but a transport of its meaning and conveyor of that meaning between individuals. Furthermore, the meaning transmitted via gesture is conveyed at moments of authentic communicative interaction between those individuals – a quality usually absent in text for beginner and elementary level learners. Through gestures, impressionable notions surge from the “interlocutor” and are interpreted and ingested by the “listener”. “Gestures speak louder than written words”,

one could reason. Through their imagery and motoric interaction with the body, otherwise dull and lifeless abstractions such as dependent prepositions become salient, visual and even tactile.

Despite these claims that gestures are limited to conveyors of meaning, a rather late discovery in the experiment was a possible relationship between gesture traces and phoneme values from the words they represent. This onomatopoeic quality of a gesture surges when the user attempts to infuse meaning into the gestural performance through movement and duration which coincides with exaggerated vocalisation of the word. However, unlike Asher's insistence on the paramount importance of immediate memory intake for long-term L2 retrieval and production, the author of this thesis favours environments which lead to improved memory for the opportunities it offers the teacher to recycle language more effectively for acquisition. In SL study, memory and the ability to recall L2 items are not an end in themselves but a means to an end. The author recommends further research into this fascinating area that suggests a learner may intuit sound from the silent gesture.

One virtue of gestures in communication lies in the swiftness that meanings and ideas can be exchanged between two human beings and here probably lies the key to SL acquisition in the GW approach. One avoids the necessity to bow down to the bane of so many school language learners: memorisation. This is the mainstay of exam success in SL education present in so many Spanish schools – yet not, it is suggested here, the mainstay of success in SL acquisition. Those students who have carried out their memorisation tasks well will perform well in short-term and even long-term discrete item testing<sup>28</sup>. Unfortunately, teachers may not receive accurate data from these results regarding the language acquisition progress of their students. However, as gestures

---

<sup>28</sup> Indeed! The author marvels at the ability of his adult students, returning to the English language classroom yet again, to recite verbatim large chunks of the three-column irregular verb tables memorised at school.

allow a rapid flow of comprehended L2 affordances enhanced in meaning and salience, the natural recycling of language assists learners in acquiring new lexis and structures through an accelerated frequency of exposure in a communicative setting free from the drudgery of memorisation.

This thesis has briefly discussed the tribulations of the Andalusian state schools system regarding failings in school teaching of the English language. Initially, the private language academies appeared to remedy the problem yet the financial layout is divisive and favours those families who can afford them. Furthermore, the results of this thesis have suggested that those learners attending academies create a second, superior L2 level learner profile in the school English language classroom. This must lead to inefficient instruction and overly complex class management from the teacher all to the detriment of the learners and their progress. The most recent incentive has been CLIL and the Bilingual English Programme also riddled with complications, funding deficiencies, staff inadequacies and plodding implementation. All these solutions promote the exodus from the school English language classroom, which is deemed inadequate as a place to teach children the English they need to face the world.

The thinking and philosophy accompanying this research project on the GW approach supports language teaching which allows the return of the diaspora. Perhaps we should turn once more to the English language teacher, well-trained, forward-thinking, autonomous yet well-connected to and cooperative with his/her peers across the region, across the country. Communicative and input-flood approaches such as GW implemented in the English language classroom especially and most intensively during the primary school years could surely prepare young learners to develop proficient acquisition and language skills before moving on to secondary school. If this battle could be won, a grand triumph it would be indeed to offer all children regardless of



income, family background or location, access to quality and effective English language training within their own free school - even within their own English language classroom.

Further research on the implementation of GW-style courses in primary school settings is highly recommended. Experimental courses would provide more accurate test reliability and authenticity if held during the school's timetabled English classes and not as an extra-curricular activity. Longer experimental course durations would be preferable of at least a hundred hours and with a class frequency of three classes per week to allow more discernible margins of learner acquisition and communicative skills between the experimental and control groups. SL study for acquisition requires more time to mature in the student's interlanguage and to provide observable results than discrete item learning. Control groups would be drawn from learners of the same school year and the same school. In these days of the ubiquitous private academy in Spain, it could be difficult to find full classes where no students attend further instruction in English outside school time. This experiment has shown that although external instruction programmes are not desirable, as long as this variable is taken into account test findings can reflect and distinguish between the different student types. With regards to class and course management, the inefficiency of a language learning environment which includes disparate levels in L2 ability are not exacerbated by instruction through GW but are equally troublesome for any teaching approach. In fact, it could be reasoned that GW provides an improved environment for teaching in disparate level classes. Learners, working in chorus yet individually, are exposed to English through meanings rather than spoken or written words only so that comprehension is maintained throughout for all. Lower level students may just require more time before being able to produce L2 for themselves in fluency tasks. This

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

experiment has also shown that larger numbers of students in the classroom should not suppose a deterioration of the GW approach. The TR was able to maintain Silent Sign sessions with all learners participating equally and simultaneously. Problems arose on occasions during the course from some learners' lack of discipline and understanding of the acceptable behaviour required for the GW dynamic. Rather than the learners' incapacity to behave accordingly, the TR sensed that these learners were not accustomed to communicative-style classes. These were by no means "problem" students. The conclusion being drawn here is that an energy shift is required from a very long established student mindset of class note-taking for subsequent memorisation and revision at home to a new realisation of the need for attention within the classroom rather than outside it. If learners adapted their mindset to the importance of attending to the English during class sessions and realised that later home revision would not be their saviour for end-of-term examination success, motivation to focus on class proceedings would surely increase.

## References.

- Alibali, M.W., K. Sotaro and A. Young. 2000. 'Gesture and the process of speech production: We think, therefore we gesture'. *Language and Cognitive Processes* 15: 593–613.
- Allen, L.Q. 1995. 'The effect of emblematic gestures on the development and access of mental representations of French expressions'. *Modern Language Journal* 79: 521–529.
- Alloway, T. P., S.E. Gathercole and S.J. Pickering. 2006. 'Verbal and visuospatial short-term and working memory in children: Are they separable?' *Child Development* 77(6), 1698-1716.
- Anderson, J.R. and L.M. Reder. 1979. 'An elaborative processing explanation of depth of processing' in L.S. Cermak & F.I.M. Craik (eds.). *Levels of processing in human memory*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Anderson, J. R. 1980. *Cognitive psychology and its implications*. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman.
- Antes, T.A. 1996. 'Kinesics: The value of gesture in language and in the language classroom'. *Foreign Language Annals* 29: 439–448.
- Al-shabbi, A.E. 1993. 'Gestures in the communicative language teaching classroom'. *TESOL Journal* 2: 16–19.
- Arnott, S. 2005. *The Accelerative Integrated Method: A descriptive case-study*. Unpublished qualifying research paper, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.
- Asher, J.J. 1969. 'The total physical response technique of learning'. *Journal of Special Education*, 3, 253-262.
- Asher, J.J. 1977. *Learning Another Language through Actions. The Complete Teacher's Guide Book* (6th ed.). Los Gatos: Sky Oaks Productions.
- Asher, J.J. and R. Garcia. 1969. 'The optimal age to learn a foreign language'. *The Modern Language Journal*, 53, 334-341.
- Asher, J.J. 2009. *The Total Physical Response. Learning Another Language Through Actions*. Sky Oak Productions; 7th edition.
- Bachman, L.F. and A.S. Palmer. 2009. *Language Testing in Practice*. OUP.
- Baddeley, A., S. Gathercole and C. Papagno. 1998. 'The phonological loop as a language learning device'. *Psychological Review*, 105, 158-173.
- Baddeley, A. 2002. 'Working memory and language: An overview'. *Journal of Communication Disorders*, 36, 189-208.
- Baddeley, A. 2007. *Working Memory, Thought, and Action*. OUP.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. 2000. 'Tense and aspect in second language acquisition: form, meaning and use'. *Language Learning Monographic Series*. Malden, Mass.: Blackwell.
- Beattie, N. 1977. 'Nonverbal aspects of teaching and learning of foreign language'. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* 15: 175–181.
- Berwick, R. and A. Weinberg. 1984. *The grammatical basis of linguistic performance: language use and language acquisition*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

- Bilbrough, M.A. 2002. 'A Hand Sign Code for Faster Language Acquisition'. Paper presented at the TESOL-SPAIN Conference, Access Europe: Language as a Common Currency, Spain, 15 – 17 March.
- Bilbrough, M.A. (2002b). 'Gesture Dictionary. A description of a gesture language for teaching English.' (Unpublished work available for viewing in the attached CD/DVD).
- Bilbrough M.A. (2016). 'Accelerating input and exposure in the English language classroom'. Conference IATEFL Birmingham, UK, 13 – 18 April.
- Bilbrough M.A. (2017). 'Accelerating input and exposure in the English language classroom'. *IATEFL 2016 Birmingham conference selections*.
- Blair, A., J. Cadwallader and J. Forrest. 2007. *Twister 5 (student's book) Customised edition*. Santillana Educación, S.L. Richmond Publishing.
- Bonnett, A. 2012. 'Towards an Evidence Base for CLIL: How To Integrate Qualitative and Quantitative as well as Process, Product and Participant Perspectives in CLIL Research'. *International CLIL Research Journal 1*.
- Bower, G.H. 1967. 'Mental imagery and memory'. Colloquium address, University of Western Ontario, May 1967.
- Brault, G.J. 1963. 'Kinesics and the classroom: Some typical French gestures'. *French Review* 36: 374–382.
- Bruner, J. 1979. *On knowing*. Cambridge, MA: Belknap.
- Brunet, J. 1985. 'Le langage des gestes'. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 41: 543–550.
- Bugelski, B.R., E. Kidd and J. Segmen. 1968. 'Image as a mediator in one-trial paired-associate learning'. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 1968, 76, 69-73.
- Calbris, G. and J. Montredon. 1986. *Des Gestes et des Mots pour le Dire*. Paris: CIE International.
- Calbris G. and L. Porcher. 1989. *Geste et communication*. Paris: CREDIF-Hatier.
- Capella, M. *De nuptiis Philologiae et Mercurii*, ed. A Dick, Leipzig, 1925, pp. 268-70.
- Chase, W.G. and K.A. Eriksson. 1981. *Skilled Memory, in Cognitive Skills and their acquisition*, Ed. Laurence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Chistes Fantásticos Colección*. 2014. Ediciones Saldaña.
- Chuckney, W. *The Skeleton System*, co-published by Pilgrims Publications, Friendly Press and Hellenic, 1987.
- Cicero, M.T. 55BC. *De oratore*, II, lxxxvi, 351-4.
- Clark, H. H. 1996. *Using language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Comenius, J.A. 1658. *Orbis sensualium pictus*, Nuremberg. Reprinted by Forgotten Books Ltd. 2015. London, England.
- Corder, S.P. 1967. 'The significance of learners' errors'. *International Review of Applied Linguistics* 5:161-9.
- Coyle, D. 2010. 'Evaluating the impact of CLIL programmes', in: *Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Cambridge English.
- Cummins, J. 1994. 'Knowledge, power and identity in teaching English as a second language' in Fred Genesse (ed.), *Educating second language children: The*

- whole child, the whole curriculum, the whole community*, 33–58. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Cummins, J. 1996. *Negotiating Identities*. Toronto: California Association for Bilingual Education.
- Dalton-Puffer, C. 2007. *Discourse in CLIL classrooms*, Amsterdam, John Benjamin.
- Deese, J. 1965. *The structure of associations in language and thought*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
- De Ruiter, J. 2000. 'The production of gesture and speech' in *Language and Gesture: Window into Thought and Action*, David McNeill (ed.), 284–311. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dietrich, R., W. Klein, and C. Noyau (eds.). 1995. *The Acquisition of Temporality in s Second Language*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Dobson, A., D. Pérez Murillo and R. Johnstone. 2010. *Bilingual Education Project Spain Evaluation Report: Findings of the independent evaluation of the Bilingual Education Project Ministry of Education (Spain) and British Council (Spain)*. Ministerio De Educacion Instituto de Formación del Profesorado, Investigación e Innovación Educativa (IFIIE), and British Council, Spain.
- Doughty, C. and J. Williams. (Eds.) 1998. *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Doughty, C. 2001 'Cognitive underpinnings of focus on form' in P. Robinson (ed.): *Cognition and Second Language Instruction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dunne, B. and R. Newton. 2012. *Beep 4*. Richmond Santillana.
- Dunne, B. and R. Newton. 2012. *Beep 5*. Richmond Santillana.
- Efron, D. (1941/1972). *Gestures, Race and Culture*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Ekman, P. and W.V. Friesen. 1969. 'The repertoire of nonverbal behaviour: Categories, origins, usage, and coding'. *Semiotica*, 1, 49-98.
- Ekman, P. and W.V. Friesen. 1980. 'Facial Signs of Emotional Experience'. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*.
- Elley, W. 1989. 'Vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories'. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 24, 174-187.
- Ellis, N and D. Larsen-Freeman. 2007. 'Language emergence implications for applied linguistics – introduction to the special issue'. *Applied Linguistics* 27: 558-99.
- Ellis, R. 1995. 'Interpretation tasks for grammar teaching'. *TESOL Quarterly* 29: 87-106.
- Ellis, R. 2008. *The Study of Second language Acquisition*, ed. OUP.
- Foster, P and P. Skehan. 1996. 'The influence of planning on performance in task-based learning'. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. 18/3:299-324.
- Freedman, N. 1977. 'Hands, words, and mind: On the structuralization of body movements during discourse and the capacity for verbal representation' in *Communicative Structures and Psychic Structures: A Psychoanalytic Approach*, Norbert Freedman and Stanley Grand (eds.), 109–132. New York: Plenum Press.

- Gallardo del Puerto, F. and A.M. Martínez. 2013. '¿Es más efectivo el aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera en un contexto AICLE?' *Padres y maestros*.
- Garrett, N. 1991. 'Theoretical and pedagogical problems of separating "grammar" from "communication"' in B. F. Freed (Ed.), *Foreign language acquisition research and the classroom* (pp. 74-87). Lexington, MA: Heath.
- Gass, S. 1982. 'From theory to practice' in M. Hines and W. Rutherford (eds.). *TESOL '81*. Washington, DC: TESOL.
- Gathercole, S.E. and A. Baddeley. 1993. *Working memory and language*. Hove, UK: Lawrence Erlbaum associates.
- Gathercole, S.E., C.R. Frankish, S.J. Pickering and S. Peaker. 1999. 'Phonotactic influences on short-term memory'. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory and Cognition*, 25(1), 84-95.
- Gathercole, S.E. 2006. 'Keynote Article: Nonword repetition and word learning: The nature of the relationship'. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 27, 513-543.
- Gathercole, S.E. and T.P. Alloway. 2008. *Understanding Working Memory - A classroom Guide*. Harcourt Assessment.
- Gattegno, C. 1963. *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way* (1st ed.). Reading, UK: Educational Explorers.
- Gattegno, C. 1972. *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way*. (Second edition.) Educational Solutions Worldwide Inc.
- Gattegno, C. 1987. 'Silent Way Workshops'. *The Teacher Trainer Journal*. [http://www.tttjournal.co.uk/uploads/File/back\\_articles/Silent\\_Way\\_Workshops.pdf](http://www.tttjournal.co.uk/uploads/File/back_articles/Silent_Way_Workshops.pdf)
- Goldin-Meadow, S., S. Kim and M. Singer. 1999. 'What the teacher's hands tell the student's mind about math'. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 91: 720-730.
- Goldin-Meadow, S.H. Nusbaum, S.D. Kelly and S. Wagner. 2001. 'Explaining math: gesturing lightens the load'. *Psychological Science*, 12, 516-522
- Goldin-Meadow, S., S. Kim and M. Singer. 2003. *Hearing Gesture: How our Hands Help us Think*. Cambridge MA: The Belknap Press.
- Goldschneider and DeKeyser (2001). 'Explaining the Natural Order of L2 Morpheme Acquisition in English: a meta-analysis of multiple determinants'. *Language Learning* 51: 1-50.
- Green, J.R. 1968. *A Gesture Inventory for Teaching Spanish*. New York: Clinton Books.
- Gullberg, M. 1998. *Gesture as a Communication Strategy in Second Language Discourse. A Study of Learners of French and Swedish*. Lund: Lund University Press.
- Gullberg, M. 2006. 'Some reasons for studying gesture and second language acquisition (Hommage à Adam Kendon)'. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 44(2), 103-124.
- Hadar, U., R. Dar, and A. Teitelman. 2001. 'Gesture during speech in first and second language: Implications for lexical retrieval'. *Gesture* 1: 151-165.
- Haley, M.H. and P. Rentz. 2002. 'Applying SLA Research and Theory to practice: What Can a Teacher Do?' *TESL - EJ* Volume 5, Number 4.

- Hammarberg, B. 1973. 'The insufficiency of Error Analysis' in J. Svartvik (ed.). *Errata: Papers in Error Analysis*. Lund, Sweden: CWK Gleerup.
- Harley, B. 1998. 'Focus-on-form tasks in child L2 acquisition' in C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 156-174). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Harris, T. 2003. 'Listening with your eyes: The importance of speech-related gestures in the language classroom'. *Foreign Language Annals* 36: 180–187.
- Hauge, E. 2000. *The Role of Gesture in British ELT in a University Setting*. Southampton: Faculty of Social Sciences.
- Hostetter, A.B. and Alibali, M.W. 2004. 'On the tip of the mind: Gesture as a key to conceptualization' in *The 26th Annual Conference of the Cognitive Science Society*, Kenneth D. Forbus, D. Gentner and T. Regier (eds), 589–594. Chicago: CSS.
- Hummel, K. and L. French. 2010. 'Phonological memory and implications for the second language classroom'. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 66, 371-391.
- Jacobs, G. 1998. 'Cooperative learning or just grouping students: the difference makes a difference' in W. Renandya and G. Jacobs (eds.): *Learners and Language Learning*.
- Jousse, M. 1974. *L'Antropologie du Geste*, Paris: Gallimard.
- Jungheim, N.O. 1995. 'Assessing the unsaid: The development of tests of nonverbal ability' in *Language testing in Japan*, J.D. Brown and S.O. Yamashita (eds.), 149–165. Tokyo: The Japan Association for Language Teaching.
- Kellerman, S. 1992. 'I see what you mean: The role of kinesic behaviour in listening and implications for foreign and second language learning'. *Applied Linguistics* 13: 239–257.
- Kendon, A. 1994. 'Do gestures communicate?: A review'. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 27, 175-200.
- Kendon, A. 2004. *Gesture: Visible Action as Utterance*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Kita, S. and A. Özyürek. 2003. 'What does cross-linguistic variation in semantic coordination of speech and gesture reveal?: Evidence for an interface representation of spatial thinking and speaking'. *Journal of Memory and Language* 48: 16–32.
- Klein, K. and E. Saltz. 1976. 'Specifying the mechanisms in a levels of processing approach to memory'. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Learning and Memory*, 2, 671-679.
- Krashen, S. 1977. 'Some issues relating to the monitor model' in Brown, H; C. Yorio, C and R. Crymes. *Teaching and learning English as a Second Language: Trends in Research and Practice: On TESOL '77: Selected Papers from the Eleventh Annual Convention of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Miami, Florida, April 26 – May 1, 1977*. Washington, DC: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. pp. 144–158.

- Krashen, S.D. 1981. *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S.D. 1982. *Principles and practice in second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. 1988. *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Prentice-Hall International.
- Krashen, S.D. and T. Terrell. 1995. *The Natural Approach. Language acquisition in the classroom*. Phoenix ELT. Prentice Hall International.
- Krashen, S.D. 1996. *Under Attack: The Case Against Bilingual Education*. Culver City: Language Education Associates, California.
- Krashen, S.D. and T.D. Terrell. 2000. *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. Essex, England: Longman.
- Krashen, S.D. 2003. *Explorations in Language Acquisition and Use*. Portsmouth: Heinemann.
- Krauss, R.K., Y. Chen and R.F. Gottesman. 2000. 'Lexical gestures and lexical access: a process model' in *Language and Gesture*, David McNeill (ed.), 261–283. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Laird, E. 1998. *Simon and the Spy*. Penguin readers (Easy starts). Ed. Longman.
- Lapaire, J. 2006. *La grammaire anglaise en mouvement*. Paris: Hachette.
- Lapaire, J. 2013. 'Gestualité cogrammaticale : de l'action corporelle spontanée aux postures de travail métagestuel guidé. Maybe et le balancement épistémique en anglais' in *Langages revue trimestrielle* 192 (decembre), Le vécu corporel dans la pratique d'une langue. ed. Larousse. Éditeur : Armand Colin.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. 1976. 'Teacher speech as input to the ESL learner'. *University of California Working Papers in TESL* (10:45-9).
- Lasagabaster, D. 2008. 'Foreign Language Competence in Content and Language Integrated Courses'. *The Open Applied Linguistics Journal* 1, 31–42.
- Lasagabaster, D. and Y. Ruiz de Zorbe. 2010. *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, Results and Teacher Training*. Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Lazaraton, A. 2004. 'Gesture and speech in the vocabulary explanations of one ESL teacher: A microanalytic inquiry'. *Language Learning* 54: 79–117.
- Leeman, J. 2003. 'Recasts and L2 development: beyond negative evidence'. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 25:37-63.
- Lightbown P.M. 1983. 'Exploring relations between development and instructional sequences in L2 acquisition' in H. Seliger and M. Long (eds.): *Classroom-oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Lightbown, P.M. 1992. 'Getting quality input in the second/foreign language classroom' in C. Kramsch and S. McConnell-Ginet (eds.): *Text and Context: Cross-disciplinary Perspectives on Language Study*. Lexington, Mass.: D-C. Heath and Company.
- Lightbown, P.M. 1998. 'The importance of timing in focus on form'. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 114-138). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.



- Lightbown, P.M. 2000. 'Anniversary article: Classroom SLA research and second language teaching'. *Applied Linguistics*, 21, 431-462.
- Lightbown, P.M. and N. Spada. 1990. 'Focus on Form and corrective feedback in communicative language teaching: effects on second language learning'. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 12: 429-48.
- Lightbown, P.M. and N. Spada. 1999. *How languages are learned*, revised edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Long, D.R. 1989. 'Second language listening comprehension: A schema-theoretic perspective'. *Modern Language Journal*, 73, 32-40.
- Long, M. 1991. 'Focus on form: a design feature in language teaching methodology' in K. de Bot, R. Ginsberg and C. Kramsch (eds.) *Foreign Language Research in Cross-cultural Perspective*. Amsterdam: John Benjamin.
- Long, M.H. and P. Robinson. 1998. 'Focus on form'. in C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.) *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 15-41). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lyster, R and L. Ranta. 1997. 'Corrective feedback and learner uptake: negotiation of form in communicative classrooms'. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 19:37-66.
- Majerus, S. and M. Van der Linden. 2003. 'Long-term memory effects on verbal short-term memory: A replication study'. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 21, 303-310.
- Marsh, D. 2000. 'Using languages to learn and learning to use languages' in Marsh, D. and Langé, D. (eds.) University of Jyväskylä: Finland.
- Marcos, L.R. 1979. 'Nonverbal behavior and thought processing'. *Archives of General Psychiatry* 36: 940-943.
- Maxwell, W. 2001. *Evaluating the effectiveness of the Accelerative Integrated Method for teaching French as a second language*. Master's thesis, University of Toronto (OISE/UT), Toronto, Ontario, Canada.
- McCafferty, S.G. 2002. 'Gesture and creating zones of proximal development for second language learning'. *Modern Language Journal* 86: 192-203.
- McNeill, D. 1992. *Hand and Mind. What the Hands Reveal about Thought*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.
- McNeill, D. and S.D. Duncan. 1998. 'Growth Points in Thinking-For-Speaking' in D. McNeill (ed.), *Language and Gesture*, pp. 141-161. Cambridge University Press.
- McNeil, D. 2000. *Language and Gesture*. Cambridge University Press.
- McNeill, D. 2005. *Gesture and thought*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- McNeill, D. 2012. *How Language Began: Gesture and Speech in Human Evolution*. Cambridge, CUP.
- Messer, M.H. 2010. *Verbal short-term memory and vocabulary development in monolingual Dutch and bilingual Turkish-Dutch preschoolers*. Langeveld - Institute for the Study of Education and Development in Childhood and Adolescence.

- Meyer, O. 2010. 'Towards quality-CLIL: successful planning and teaching strategies.' *Pulse* 33.
- Miyake, A. and P. Shah. 1999. 'Toward unified theories of working memory: Emerging general consensus, unresolved theoretical issues and future directions' in A. Miyake & P. Shah (Eds.), *Models of working memory: Mechanisms of active maintenance and executive control* (pp. 28–61). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Navarro, R.B. 2013. 'Descriptive Analysis of Método Vaughan, Assets and Pitfalls of an Audiolingual'. *Porta Linguarum*. January. [http://www.ugr.es/~portalin/articulos/PL\\_numero19/8%20Betsabe.pdf](http://www.ugr.es/~portalin/articulos/PL_numero19/8%20Betsabe.pdf)
- Nobe, S. 2001. 'On gestures of foreign language speakers' in *Oralité et Gestualité. Interactions et Comportements Multimodaux dans la Communication*, Christian Cavé and Isabella Guaitella, and Serge Santi (eds.), 572–575. Paris: l'Harmattan.
- Nikula, T., C. Dalton-Puffer and A. Llinares. 2013. 'CLIL classroom discourse'. *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education* 1, 70–100.
- Nunan, D. 1989 *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. 1991. *Language Teaching Methodology*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Omaggio, A.C. 1986. *Teaching language in context: Proficiency-oriented instruction*. Boston: Heinle.
- Paivio, A. 1969. 'Mental imagery and associative learning in memory'. *Psychological Review*, 1969.
- Palmberg, R. 1987. 'Patterns of Language development in foreign-language learners'. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 9: 201-20.
- Pennycook, A. 1985. 'Actions speak louder than words: Paralanguage, communication and education'. *TESOL Quarterly* 19: 259–282.
- Pica, T. and C. Doughty. 1985. 'The role of group work in classroom second language acquisition'. *Studies in Second Language acquisition* 7: 253-48.
- Pienemann, M. 1985. 'Learnability and syllabus construction' in K. Hyltenstam and M. Pienemann (eds.): *Modelling and Assessing Second Language Acquisition*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Pienemann, M. 1995. *Second language acquisition: A first introduction*. National Language and Literacy Institute of Australia, University of Western Sydney.
- Pienemann, M. 1998. *Language Processing and Second Language Development: Processability Theory*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Pienemann, M. 2005. 'An introduction to processability theory in M. Pienemann (ed.) *Cross-linguistic Aspects of Processability Theory*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Polo-Figueroa, N. 1987. 'Los gestos en la enseñanza de una lengua segunda'. *Glotta* 2: 22–25.
- Postman, L., B.A. Thompkins and W.D. Gray. 1978. 'The interpretation of encoding effects in retention'. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 17, 681-705.

- Poyatos, F. 2002. *Nonverbal Communication across Disciplines. Volume 1: Culture, sensory interaction, speech, conversation*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Quintilian, M.F. 95. 'The Institutio oratorio on the art of memory' in *Institutio Oratoria*.
- Raffler-Engel, W. 1980a. 'Kinesics and paralinguistics: A neglected factor in second language research and teaching'. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 36: 225–237.
- Raffler-Engel, W. 1980b. 'Kinesics and second language acquisition' in *New Approaches to Language Acquisition*, Bernhard Kettemann and Robert N. St. Clair (eds.), 101–109. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.
- Rike, E.K. 1993. 'Guided Symbolic Dramatic Play as the Root of Literacy'. (pp 25-42) *The Symbolic Dramatic Play-Literacy Connection Whole Brain, Whole Body, Whole Learning* Wilkinson, J. ed. Needham Heights, MA: Ginn Press.
- Riseborough, M.G. 1981. 'Physiographic gestures as decoding facilitators: Three experiments exploring a neglected facet of communication'. *Journal of Nonverbal Behavior*, 5, 172-183.
- Rohwer, W.D. 'Verbal and visual elaboration in paired associate learning'. *Project Literacy Reports* (Cornell University), 1966, No. 7, 18-28.
- Romberch, J. 1533. *Congestorium artificiosa memorie*, Venice.
- Rose, C. 1985. *Accelerated Learning*. Accelerated Learning Systems Ltd. Aylesbury, Bucks.
- Roth, W. 2003. 'From epistemic (ergotic) actions to scientific discourse: The bridging function of gestures'. *Pragmatics and Cognition* 11: 141–170.
- Rulon, K.A. and J. McCreary. 1986. 'Negotiation of content: teacher-fronted and small group interaction' in R.R. Day (Ed.), *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition* (pp. 182-99). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Safadi, M and C.A. Valentine. 1988. 'Emblematic gestures among Hebrew speakers in Israel'. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations* 12: 327–361.
- Saitz, R.L. 1966. 'Gestures in the classroom'. *English Language Teaching* 21: 33–37.
- Saltz, E. and S. Donnenwerth-Nolan. 1981. 'Does motoric imagery facilitate memory for sentences? A selective interference test'. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 20, 322-332.
- Saltz, E and D. Dixon. 1982. 'Let's pretend: the role of motoric imagery in memory for sentences and words'. *Journal of experimental child psychology* 34, 77-92.
- Savignon, S. 2002. *Interpreting communicative language teaching*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Schmitt, N. 2000. *Vocabulary in language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Schmitt, R. 1990. 'The role of consciousness in second-language learning'. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 129-158.
- Schmidt, R. 1994. 'Deconstructing consciousness in search of useful definitions for applied linguistics'. *AILA Review* 11, (pp. 11-26).
- Schneller, R. 1988. 'The Israeli experience of crosscultural misunderstandings: Insights and lessons' in *Cross-Cultural Perspectives in Nonverbal Communication*, Fernando Poyatos (ed.), 153–173. Toronto: Hogrefe.

- Selinker, L. 1972. 'Interlanguage'. *International Review of Applied Linguistics* 10: 209-31.
- Singer, M. 1999. 'What the teacher's hands tell the student's mind about math'. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 91: 720-730.
- Sueyoshi, A. and D. M. Hardison. 2005. 'The role of gestures and facial cues in second language listening comprehension'. *Language Learning* 55.661-99.
- Sheen, R. 2003. 'Focus on form – a myth in the making'. *ELT Journal* 57: 225-33.
- Slobin, D. 1985. 'Cross-linguistic evidence for the language-making capacity' in D. Slobin (ed.): *The Crosslinguistic Study of Language Acquisition*. Volume 2, Theoretical Issues. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Elbaum.
- Smith, R.K. and C.E. Noble. 1965. 'Effects of a mnemonic technique applied to verbal learning and memory'. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 21, 123-134.
- Smith, F. 1994. *Understanding Reading* (fifth edition). Hillsdale, NJ: Erbaum.
- Sperry, R.W. 1961. 'Cerebral Organization and Behavior: The split brain behaves in many respects like two separate brains, providing new research possibilities'. *Science*. 133 (3466): 1749-1757.
- Stevick, E.W. 2007. 'Teaching foreign languages in schools: the Silent Way (Review of Second Edition 1972. Caleb Gattegno. Educational Solutions Inc.)' *Tesol Journal*,
- School of Language and Linguistics, Georgetown University, Washington D.C.
- Sueyoshi, A. and D. M. Hardison. 2005. 'The role of gestures and facial cues in second language listening comprehension'. *Language Learning* 55.661-99.
- Swain, M. 1985. 'Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development' in Gass, S. and Madden, C. (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition*, pp. 235-256. New York: Newbury House.
- Swain, M. 1993. 'The output hypothesis: Just speaking and writing aren't enough'. *The Canadian Modern Language Review* 50(1): 158-164.
- Swain, M. 1995. 'Three functions of output in second language learning' in G. Cook, and B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principle and practice in applied linguistics* (pp.125-144). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Swain, M. and S. Lapkin. 1995. 'Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language learning'. *Applied Linguistics* 16: 371-391, p. 371.
- Swain, M. 2000. 'The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue' in *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*, James P. Lantolf (ed.), 97-114. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Taleghani-Nikazm, C. 2008. 'Gestures in Foreign Language Classrooms: An Empirical Analysis of their Organization and Function' in *Selected Proceedings of the 2007 Second Language Research Forum*, ed. Melissa Bowles, Rebecca Foote, Silvia Perpiñán, and Rakesh Bhatt, 229-238. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Project.
- Terrell, T. D. 1986. 'Acquisition in the natural approach: The binding/access framework'. *Modern Language Journal*, 70, 213-227.

- Tulving, E. and D.M. Thomson. 1973. 'Encoding specificity and retrieval processes in episodic memory'. *Psychological Review*, 80, 352-373.
- Vygotsky, L.S. 1987. *Thought and language*. Edited and translated by E. Hanfmann and G. Vakar (revised and edited by A. Kozulin). Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Watson, J.B. 'Psychology as the behaviorist views it'. *Psychological Review*, 1913, 20, 158-177.
- Willis, D. 2010. 'The Language Syllabus: Why Not Start With Lexis?' *IH Journal of Education and Development* (Issue 29).
- Willis, J. 1996. *A Framework for Task-Based Learning*. Longman.
- Wolfgang, A. and Z. Wolofsky. 1991. 'The ability of new Canadians to decode gestures generated by Canadians of Anglo-Celtic backgrounds'. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations* 15: 47-64.
- Wong-Fillmore, L. 1985. 'When does teacher talk work as input?' in S. M. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 17-50). Rowley, MA: Newbury.
- Wood, G. 1967. 'Mnemonic systems in recall'. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 58 (6, Pt 2).
- Woodall, W.G. and J.P. Folger. 1981. 'Encoding specificity and nonverbal cue context: An expansion of episodic memory research'. *Communication Monographs*, 48, 39-53.
- Woodall, W.G. and J.P. Folger. 1985. 'Nonverbal cue context and episodic memory: On the availability and endurance of nonverbal behaviors as retrieval cues'. *Communication Monographs*, 52, 319-333.
- Wright, A. 1989. *Pictures for Language Learning*. (ed. Michael Swan) Cambridge University Press.
- Wundt, W. 1970. 'The psychology of the sentence' in Arthur Blumenthal (ed. and trans.), *Language and Psychology: Historical aspects of psycholinguistics*, pp. 20-33. New York: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Wylie, L. 1985. 'Language learning and communication'. *The French Review* 57: 777-785.
- Yates, F.A. 1966. *The art of memory*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Yoshimura, F. 2006. 'Does manipulating foreknowledge of output tasks lead to differences in reading behaviour, text comprehension and noticing of language form?' *Language Teaching Research* 10: 419-34.
- Zydati, W. 2000. *Bilingualer Unterricht in der Grundschule: Entwurf eines Spracherwerbskonzepts fr zweisprachige Immersionsprogramme*. Ismaning: Hueber.

### **YouTube sources:**

- Lapair. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7N0N-1v4sY4>
- Marsh, D. 2014. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OL5Cqi35dZk>
- TPR children. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bkMQXFOqyQA>
- TPR adults. [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=\\_UTk3WXB9-8](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_UTk3WXB9-8)
- GW homework revision lesson 1.

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fYTFhR-cOJ4&t=63s>

GW homework revision lesson 2.

[https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=L\\_jvj4bwMvQ](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=L_jvj4bwMvQ)

GW homework revision lesson 3.

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VVeSxL5y6EQ>

GW homework revision lesson 4.

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gAUZ5k59JoE>

GW homework revision lesson 5.

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bsARLWy2XIk>

GW homework revision lesson 6.

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cOUpXAUZCGE>

GW homework revision lesson 7.

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=S59F1k9mOBs>

GW homework revision lesson 8.

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zJ0yDOLVHPQ>

### **Wikipedia sources:**

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Giotto> (on Giotto).

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Memoria> (on *memoria*).

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Montessori\\_education](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Montessori_education) (on the life of María Montessori).

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maria\\_Montessori](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maria_Montessori) (on the work of Montessori).

### **Internet sources:**

ACEIA website: <http://www.aceia.es/>

CLIL Report. <http://docplayer.net/13779901-Improving-the-effectiveness-of-language-learning-clil-and-computer-assisted-language-learning.html>

EF English Proficiency Index. 2015.: <http://www.ef.com.es/epi/regions/europe/spain/>

GestureWay extract. 2015. 'Montague Pilkinson in the desert' (2015):

<http://www.gestureway.com/index.htm>

GestureWay production with gestures (2003): <http://www.gestureway.com/output.htm>

Le Soleil in Canada. 2002. <http://www.aimlanguagelearning.com/media/>

LOE. 2006.: [http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Spain/Spain\\_LOE\\_eng.pdf](http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Spain/Spain_LOE_eng.pdf)

Nasreddin 'The Dinner Party' British Council Project (Bilbrough 2015):

<https://handsup4.files.wordpress.com/2015/12/stories-alive-story-based-activities-for-young-learners.pdf>

New York Statesman. 2013.: <http://www.newstatesman.com/politics/2013/07/why-spain-experiencing-english-language-boom>

North Shore News. 2002. <http://www.aimlanguagelearning.com/media/>

Richard Vaughan. 2012.: <http://www.capital.es/2012/11/09/richard-vaughan-fundador-de-vaughan-systems-si-volviera-a-empezar-hoy-no-vendria-a-espana/>

The Brampton Guardian. 2002. <http://www.aimlanguagelearning.com/media/>

The National Post on Aim. 2002. <http://www.aimlanguagelearning.com/media/>

## **Annexes.**

### **Annexe 1. Categories of GW gestures.**

An analysis of gesture categories was first described by Efron (1941) then a more extensive description was provided by Ekman and Friesen (1969, 1980). Poyatos (2002) elaborated on this system further and to date provides an extended categorisation of “interactive and non-interactive behaviors” in nonverbal communication. The categories offered here represent an analysis of the gestures included in the Gesture Dictionary (Bilbrough 2002b) according to definitions laid down by Poyatos.

#### **A1.1. Emblems: Gestures for words.**

Emblems are defined by Poyatos as “a gesture unambiguously represented by a verbal equivalent in a given culture” (2002:167). A sub-category of emblems have been termed as the following.

- **Arbitrary:** Gestures for which we do not know their iconic origin, eg. the shoulder shrug and corresponding eye movements. Unlike Poyatos’ definition, GestureWay (GW) hand signs are not necessarily supported with facial gestures and the dictionary description omits reference to them completely. However, in practice (and as observed during the video recordings), as the teacher attempts to express meaning through the hand signs, facial gestures and body movement naturally accompany the corresponding hand gestures. The arbitrary gesture for *greet* for example (a wave of the hand) begs a widening of the eyes during its performance. The gesture for *may* as a modal for expressing possibility is better conveyed with a side-to-side movement of the head and a raising of the jaw which pushes out the lips. When conveying meaning through GW, accompanying facial expression and body movement with gestures of this nature

should only enhance meaning transmission while their absence must presumably detract from the message.

- Intrinsic: "... a gesture resembles its referent (eg. if a nurse makes a swallowing gesture to a deaf patient.)" (2002:167). However, as Poyatos points out, although intrinsic gestures appear to resemble an action, different cultures may employ other means to convey the same message. An example given is *to eat* - in Spain represented by the fingertips held together and the hand jabbing towards the mouth while the Navajo Indian rubs his stomach. In the UK, to simulate *to eat* the hands may gesture holding a knife and fork moving backwards and forwards in front of the mouth. The index pointing to one's chest is the gesture for *I, me* and part of the double gestures for *my* and *mine*. According to Poyatos this sign, used in Spain to denote oneself may be different in the US where the thumb of the lateral part of the hand against the chest is used (2002:172).

It was decided from the outset to use gestures that would be, if possible, identifiable by the learners' culture. It seemed unreasonable to introduce signs that required unnecessary explanation (for example, the UK gesture of *to eat*) when the objective is to convey and elicit meaning as clearly as possible. If a learner's culture can be drawn on for a source of recognisable gestures, this approach should be taken full advantage of.

EAT: Fingers held together at tips and hand moves towards mouth with fingers pointing towards mouth as though inserting food.



Figure A1: Extract from Gesture Dictionary (Bilbrough 2002b) – see CD enclosed.

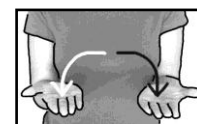
Poyatos states: "obviously, the iconic value of some intrinsic emblems is known only to those who know their origin, as with the Spanish bullfighting gestures of taking a pass, meaning that someone is being manipulated" (2002:167).



## A1.2. Kinesic gestures.

Poyatos suggests, “naturally, given the possible semantic blend in a nonverbal facial expression, an emblem can carry more than one meaning...” (2002:169). The gesture for *book* (a tome) and *to open* are the same. Although the assumption is that learners distinguish between the two meanings by the semantics of the sentence or by grammatical context, there is a natural tendency to perform the same gesture with a kinesic variation for each meaning. The first, *book*, is rather mechanical and quick in delivery denoting the inert object while the second, *open*, is carried out more deliberately, the shoulders arch backwards and there is a widening of the eyes – as though conveying that an opening action is really taking place.

BOOK: Horizontal praying hands, fingers pointing forward. Hands open and fall leaving palms facing up.



OPEN: Gesture for BOOK opening.



Figure A2. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing “book” and “open” (Bilbrough 2002b).


During the initial creation of the gesture code for GW, no kinesic intervention was intended or deemed necessary as gestures are clearly performed actions and ambiguity between similar gestures avoided by context so significance recognition can therefore be assumed. However, despite the artificiality of the gestures employed in this approach, genuine and real-time communication is always the objective.

### A1.2.1. Kinesic speech markers.

These include pointing (deitics) to designate the personal pronouns. Pointing to “absent referents” is considered common as natural kinesic speech markers (2002:173). In GW, the pointing gesture denotes the first and second person singular and plurals. The pronouns “we” and “us” are a closed circling gesture from the speaker’s chest moving round towards the other persons present in the class and back to the speaker’s

chest in an all-inclusive gesture. This coincides with Poyatos' "personal inclusive pronouns". "We could (inclusive sweeping hand movement) all contribute, right?" (2002:173). The GW second person plural pronoun (pointing to more than one learner present) expresses plurality by indicating several learners in succession. The third person singular and plural pronouns use the sideways and slightly backwards thumb jerk to express the idea of a person or persons not being directly addressed. The teacher may have to use physical displacement such as moving over to one group of students, looking at them and jerking his thumb at a student group not being directly addressed to illustrate the third person more clearly. This idea of distinguishing kinesically between the second and the third persons in the same utterance is illustrated by Poyatos: "Tom and Mary are conversing, and [then] Tom addresses John: 'you should take her' (slight head-tilt towards her [Mary] without breaking eye-contact with John) 'to the movies...'" (2002:172). While eye-contact is maintained with the learner, artificial gestures angled away could successfully be employed to signify third parties.

Possessive adjective/pronoun gestures used in GW coincide with Poyatos' description of Spanish natural gestures for "mine" being the flat palm across the chest. This first gesture being easily recognisable, it is then assumed that the significance of possessives of other persons will be comprehended by combining the personal pronoun gestures with the flat palm across the chest. The gestures for "my/mine", "your/yours", "his/his", "her/hers", "its", "our/ours", "their/theirs" are then a combination of two consecutive semi-gestures, respectively.

<u>First semi-gesture</u>	<u>Second semi-gesture</u>
I – Speakers index pointing to speaker’s chest.	Flat palm across chest...
You - Pointing with index to student.	
He/Him - Thumb jerk to one side.	...makes the meanings into (ordered consecutively here):
She/Her - Holding right ear lobe between forefinger and thumb.	my/mine,
It - Little finger jerk to one side.	your/yours,
We/Us - Circular forefinger gesture starting and ending at the chest.	his,
They/Them - Thumb jerk to one side (gesture trembles*)	her/hers,
	its,
	our/ours,
	their/theirs.

\*All signs performed with trembling hands at completion signify plurality.

Figure A3. How pronouns become possessives with accompanying semi-gesture (Bilbrough 2002b).

The rationale behind the creation of these gestures was derived from an assumption that Spanish learners of English can recognise natural gestures common to their own culture. The recognition of natural gestures will facilitate the comprehension of quasi-artificial gestures. This is especially the case if the introduction in the classroom of the possessive adjectives/pronouns, for example, is demonstrated with the complete set of gestures together and in a perceivable order such as pronoun order for verb conjugation.<sup>29</sup> As long as personal pronoun gestures have been pre-taught, the accompanying semi-gesture “mine” speech marker (flat palm against chest) combined with personal pronouns gestures gel into a logical sense and should be apparent and memorable. Furthermore, the presence of an identical second semi-gesture concluding each artificial gesture should help to illustrate that the entire set of gestures belong to

<sup>29</sup> Developing the gesture code for GW also took into account the Spanish educational system’s approach to grammar instruction in the native tongue. Children of nine and ten years of age are already aware of basic grammar terms and the standard order of personal pronouns in verb tables.

the same grammatical family – possessive pronouns/adjectives. The concept of common semi-gestures (also called “base” and “specific” gestures) within the same grammatical or lexical family has been adopted throughout the Gesture Dictionary.

Demonstrative pronouns and adjectives are also included in Poyatos’ description of speech markers: “Those two colleagues [pointing successively] are the best in the East” (2002:173). The gestures must, however, necessarily consolidate and standardise the apparent vagueness of natural gesture. Natural gesture may be performed and interpreted on a sub-conscious level. This differs from gestures designed for GW which must be explicit and deciphered at the conscious level.

The GW gestures for the four demonstratives consist of the index finger of the right hand pointing to the other index held close to it: “this”. “These” is signalled by holding two fingers out from the left hand to show “more than one”. “That” and “those” are similar gestures but the distance between both hands is appreciably greater to demonstrate a comparatively physical difference between speaker and referent. Artificial gestures cannot rely on natural nonverbal communication gestures alone to convey meanings between teacher and learner. Although proximity to recognisable human gestures were uppermost in the mind of the creator of gestures for GW, when compiling the dictionary, alternative means of relaying ideas to learners had to be adopted. In fact, in some cases an alternative illustrative source for the transmission of concepts was preferable. The gestures for the demonstratives, for example, while using the designating finger as in natural kinesic communication, more closely resembles the diagrams given in EFL text books for learners which help explain the concept (much simplified for beginners) of the role of the demonstratives in English.



## This

THIS: (Demonstrative). Right index pointing to the left and also pointing to left fist held with back of hand upwards about three cms. from right index.<sup>30</sup>



## That

THAT: (Demonstrative. 'That one is mine', 'that's a good idea'.) Starts as the sign for THIS but the left fist immediately moves quickly towards the left and stops 60 cms. from right index, which is still pointing to it. (i.e. showing the greater physical difference between objects when referred to as 'that'.)



## These

THESE: The sign for THIS but with the first two fingers of right hand closed together (i.e. to show plurality).



## Those



THOSE: The same as THAT (demonstrative) but the first two fingers of right hand are closed together to show plurality.



Figure A4. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing demonstratives (Bilbrough 2002b).

Due to the lack of ubiquity of natural gestures it is not always practicable to incorporate them into an artificial gesture code. One example of this is pluralisation. Poyatos explains: “what determines it is not the plural pronoun or adjective but the spatial relationship described: ‘several in the room spoke’ can be expressed by a hand-sweep gesture at the same time, but ‘There are several people in that car’ cannot”

<sup>30</sup> The above are the original gestures depicted in the Gesture Dictionary. However, some adaptations and improvements were later made; the demonstratives were changed so that only one pointing finger is used which points to one outstretched index finger (this, that) and two outstretched index fingers (these, those).

(2002:173). In GW, a standard artificial gesture to describe plurality of all nouns was indeed required for the purposes of showing plurality at any given moment and situation. The trembling of the hands at the completion of a gesture was decided upon due to an observation of an occasional gesture of rapid hand movement to depict a large quantity: hands held loosely open and forward of body, palms facing each other some forty centimetres apart, both hands gyrate quickly within a reduced space. For example, in the utterance, “there were loads and loads of them!”.

### **A1.3. Conjunctive and punctuation markers.**

These are said by Poyatos to be present in natural gesture. ““But listen, said she, smilingly putting up her finger to check my impatient reply”” (2002:174). It has been observed in videos of a GW class that the teacher places rhythmic stress on the gesture for the conjunction “but” in mid-sentence. The artificial gesture for “but” is apparently very different from the Brontë gesture in the quote above in that it consists of raising both hands above shoulder level and to either side of the body, palms open and facing forward. However, it achieves a similar effect of creating pause (if needed) by arresting the utterance for the introduction of an awaited contradiction.

BUT: Hands held flat, palms forward, fingers pointing up, shoulder level.



Figure A5. Extract from Gesture Dictionary (Bilbrough 2002b).

Punctuation markers in a basic form have naturally been added to the dictionary as a necessity. Poyatos stated:

...kinesic markers punctuate the verbal sentence as clearly as we punctuate a written one [...] invented in an attempt to represent or evoke the reality of speech [...] (2002:174). ““I – certainly – did – NOT””, said Coavinses, whose doggedness in utterly renouncing the idea was of that intense kind that he could only give adequate expression to it by putting a long interval between each word...’ Dickens, BH, VI” (2002:175).

When performing Silent Sign, the absence of information on verbal intonation, speech pauses, timing, voice pitch and loudness from the teacher can mean students

misinterpret the sentence structure and fail to detect its separate parts linguistically. If we consider this extract from a Silent Sign session: “Mrs Jones felt tired so she sat down. On the road ahead of her a strange man was approaching.” there could be an assumption that the prepositional phrase “on the road” is the complement of the verb phrase “she sat down”. Although a simple pause could help to indicate the end of a sentence, in practice there may be other frequent stopping and starting of Silent Sign due to student errors, needs for repetition and unplanned pauses for oral explanations to add clarity. A clearer way of gesturing the end of the sentence is to use an emphatic gesture. The gesture used emulates written punctuation of the full stop. The right index jabs forward while held to the right of the body. On the other hand, after completion of a sentence where the finish is not obvious, learners may still be left “half-sentence” with intonation cut short at the unexpected ending. In situations of sentence length misinterpretation, the teacher re-gestures (after saying and gesturing: “again”) the complete sentence allowing students to graduate intonation accordingly.

Confusion may also occur when listing a number of objects or verbs as learners fail to detect at first how these words fit in syntactically with the rest of the sentence parts. Consider a sentence: “A teddy bear, a doll, a car, a skipping rope and an old bike were my favourite toys when I was a child.” Without a signal to indicate a list of objects, students can become disorientated mid-sentence expecting a verb. Furthermore, as many GW gestures share the same sign for the noun and the verb, mistakes are probable. The gesture of the index tracing the shape of a comma after each object facilitates students’ mental visualisation of the sentence structure and helps correct intonation.

When gesturing longer texts such as stories, it is often useful to indicate the end of a paragraph and the beginning of another.

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

Mr. Bates is an old man now. He's 92 so he doesn't work but he likes working at home. He likes making furniture: tables and chairs. It's not easy for him to make furniture. It's very difficult because he works with a hammer and he can't see very well. One day, Mr. Bates doesn't feel well so he goes to the doctor. There's a doctor who lives near him in his street. He goes in and... (From material written for the experimental Gesture course (2014/15).

Communicating the end of the first paragraph in this story allows students to practise the altered intonation used at the beginning of new paragraphs compared to intonation used for a new sentence. The artificial gesture for a new paragraph is: both hands held open, palms down, and hands move down and to the right ie. pushing something away. (This sign was inspired by the Spanish for a new paragraph, *punto y aparte*.)

Questions in Silent Sign may cause problems if the teacher wishes to elicit correct intonation such as rising or falling tone. There is a sign for the do/does/did auxiliary verb, which in most cases will indicate the start of the interrogative. However, there may be exceptions that can lead to confusion such as a negative imperative: “don't sit there!” and the question form “don't you want to sit there?” A recognisable punctuation technique from written Spanish was taken to indicate the presence of a question rather than a sign from natural gesture. By tracing the ‘?’ symbol in the air, the teacher can denote the beginning of a question before it is gestured rather like the ‘¿’ symbol in a Spanish text. This allows the students uttering during Silent Sign to be aware of the interrogative form. However, the problem is still not resolved. Let us consider the following examples of questions.

“Do you like going for walks...?”

“Do you like going for walks in the country...?”

“Do you like going for walks in the country and watching birds?”

The problematic linear delivery of gestures in GW during Silent Sign means that neither the next word nor a punctuation gesture can be envisaged before it is signed. A question such as the last in the group of three above can prove confusing as to where it will



actually finish. Learners may anticipate the question will end at “walks” or “country” and insert rising pitch prematurely. Subsequent punctuation gestures post-word will be too late to correct question intonation. To avoid always using the “repeat the whole sentence” technique as mentioned above, an approach is recommended to allow students to finish the question with the correct intonation in real time. As intonation in questions rises (or falls, as with question words, *where, when, what, etc.*) on the last syllable only, a signal from the teacher just before this final word, can elicit the required change in voice pitch. To date, this signal has been a verbal command: “rise”, “fall”, “pitch” depending on what extent question intonation is being practised.

Poyatos suggests that proxemic shifts can:

...also act as markers, even as punctuators, such as when we lean toward one’s interlocutor to unconsciously coincide with the more relevant stresses and words, or lean back to coincide with the end of a phrase and its final junction and low pitch ending (2002:176).

Notwithstanding, although an attempt at imitation of such paralanguage markers to indicate sentence ending is appealing, in practice the teacher cannot depend on students’ correct interpretations of these. Although evidence is offered to show that the teacher’s natural body language during Silent Sign helps students to comprehend *meaning* with more accuracy, whether kinesics help students correctly gauge syntactical elements of a sentence during artificial gesture input is still not known. The suggestion is that by gesturing to students as though speaking to them verbally and meaningfully, the teacher is more likely to convey kinesic punctuation markers naturally, which might possibly benefit students to intuit the various sentence parts.

#### **A1.4. Space, time, pace and distance markers.**

Poyatos states: “space markers, and [...] time markers, represent the direct reference to the two basic dimensions of human life, space and time, which together with sound and movement dominate our experience of the world and social life”

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

(2002:177). He suggests that nonverbal communication of size, area, distance and location are invariably kinesic. In developing the gesture code for GW, consideration was first given to existing naturally occurring gestures and how they could be incorporated into the dictionary. The obvious ones were:

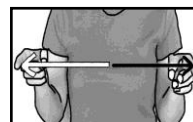
**BIG / LARGE:** Hands held flat, about 70 cms. apart, fingers and palms facing each other. ie. showing something big.



**SMALL / LITTLE (size):** Right index and thumb pointing more or less held about 2 cms apart. (i.e. showing something small).



**LONG (temporal or spatial):** Indexes of both hands move apart horizontally to delimit something long or show part of body that is long ie. delimit long nose, hair, tail etc. (Note, to distinguish between the temporal and the physical, we can sign LONG + TIME (clock) in a phrase like, 'a long wait'.)



**TINY / MINUTE etc. (size):** Like sign for SMALL but with tip of index and thumb together and sign is held closer to eyes to show it is difficult to see.

**HUGE / ENORMOUS:** Like sign for BIG but hands shake somewhat to emphasise larger size. Hands are also held much further apart.



**TALL / HIGH:** Flat right hand, palm down, held up high above head delimiting something tall.



Figure A6. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing space, time and distance markers (Bilbrough 2002b).

The above gestures for size together with many etceteras are recognisable to Spanish students and even more so if an introductory explanation is given (such as the new language presentation phase requires in the GW approach).

Communicating the idea of “area” was not so obvious. It was decided to divide the world into two different categories to facilitate recognition and recall of gestures. To do this, “base” gestures (BG) are required. These are gestures inserted before the

“specific” gestures (Spec. G). A BG for area/place conveys to the learner that we are about to sign an area and also whether it is man-made or natural.

PLACE 1: (This sign indicates man-made places and is used before a specific sign.) Two indexes held out and together, pointing downwards. Indexes move horizontally in opposite directions to the sides for about 30 cms. then both move towards body parallel to each other.



PLACE 2 (This sign indicates natural spaces and is used before a specific sign.) Right hand held open, fingers spread and palm down at chest level, which moves out and round in a horizontal circle about 40 cms. across.



Figure A7. Base Gestures for areas (Bilbrough 2002b).

The preliminary BG allows the teacher to convey the meaning of places by combining them with recognisable Spec. G’s.

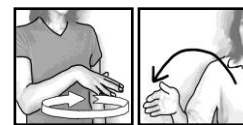
LIBRARY: Sign for PLACE 1 + BOOK.



BANK: Sign for PLACE 1 + MONEY.



HILL: Sign for PLACE 2 + flat right hand delimits rounded hill.



JUNGLE / FOREST: Sign for PLACE 2 + TREE but the right hand rotates at the elbow. ie. to show lots of trees.



PARK: sign for PLACE 1 + TREE.



Figure A8. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing artificial and natural spaces (Bilbrough 2002b).

“Distance markers (as for time), especially far distance, are kinesic (‘very far,’ with a forward raised arm movement)...” (Poyatos, 2002:178). The raised arm to show “far” is used in GW gesture. To ensure correct understanding, a BG of “near” is brought in to demonstrate contrast (see figure A9 below). Physical distance can also be illustrated by the time taken in executing the gesture itself: “He [a Coahuila chief] made

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

one of his slow, impressive gestures – a wave of his hand indicating great distance...” (2002:178). Adopting a similar technique, when signing a gesture like “way” (see figure 9 below) in the phrase “a long way off”, the time taken tracing the path can take longer than when signing “it was just a short way” even though a gesture for “long” and “short” are also included.

Adverbs used to denote distance such as “away” and “off” in “she went away on holiday”, “he went off to another country”, accompany the verb with a temporal gesture that can be slowed to convey the idea of a greater distance. Temporality in GW gesture execution becomes a useful if not an essential technique to place emphasis on certain lexical elements and thereby raise students’ interest in the Silent Sign text. Without uttering a word, the teacher is able to introduce rhetoric into the Silent Sign text deepening student involvement in the plot of the story. Take for example the line from the a Silent Sign adaptation of the poem, *The Inchcape Rock*:

The ship hit the rock and the water quickly came in through a large hole. The pirates shouted and screamed. Then the ship sank... down... down... to the bottom of the black sea. (From materials for Experimental course, 2014.)

While the first two sentences are gestured with some speed, pace can be changed for effect and meaning enhancement at the last sentence and the two signs “sank” and “down” slowed considerably; the gesture for the adverb is also repeated to help convey the vast depths of the black sea.

NEAR left hand held flat, edge on, fingers pointing forward while about 10 cms. to the right of left hand, right index is held pointing forward.



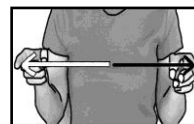
FAR (opposite of ‘near’) sign for NEAR + right index moves forward and up and then dips down when arm is extended with index pointing down.



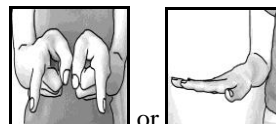
WAY (as in 'on his way to somewhere' 'it's a long way off' (time or distance) 'he flew the rest of the way', 'ask the way'.) Right index points down and draws a meandering path moving horizontally away from you.



LONG (temporal or spatial/physical) with indexes of both hands move them apart horizontally to delimit something long or show part of body that is long ie. delimit long nose, hair, tail etc.



SHORT (temporal or spatial/physical) with both indexes delimit something short or show part of body that is short i.e. delimit short nose, tail etc. or for 'short person' delimit with flat hand the low head of someone very short i.e. at waist level. The first sign is used for time expressions, 'a short time'.



AWAY / OFF (as in 'he went off/away', 'go away!', 'go away on holiday') right index held pointing down moves diagonally forward to the right and lifts to the horizontal so that index is pointing forward.



DOWN (adv. prep. downwards) opposite of sign for UP (upwards)

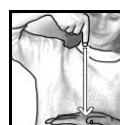


Figure A9. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing time and distance markers (Bilbrough 2002b).

#### A1.4.1. Time markers – past tense.

It seems evident from Poyatos' description of typical time markers that there is a similarity between these and distance markers: "Cuando fuera, que yo no lo sé, en los tiempos antiguos; allá... - señalaba hacia lejos con la mano" (2002:178). Compare this quote with the Coahuila chief's quote above. In the gesture code for GW, the same gestures are used for the adverbs "long" and "short" whether they refer to space or time with techniques brought in (temporal slowing of execution) to express distant times.

Although time adjectives offered little problem when creating signs for GW, an issue arose when attempting to designate the tense of verbs and thus the predicate part of the sentence. It is a philosophy of the GW approach to introduce cognitive linguistic "problem-solving" and thus salience of grammar morphemes into Silent Sign where possible and when not overly confusing for the learner (see section 3.2.4. for how salience is implemented). This is an opportunity to elicit student feedback of Silent Sign

which involves an active mental exertion on the part of the learners to reproduce the tense forms of the verbs.

There is no gesture for the past verb forms such as “went”, “was going”, “had gone/been”, “had been going”, etc; the parts of the verb are expressed through the GW gestures in the infinitive. This means that the above verb examples would be signed: “go”, “be go”, “have go”, “have be go”. A past tense sign precedes the verb or compound verb structure to indicate past and signal to the students the need to make the necessary changes to the infinitives at utterance.

HE + PAST TENSE SIGN + GO + HOME + LATE = He went home late.

SHE + PAST TENSE SIGN + BE + WATCH + TELEVISION = She was watching television.

PAST TENSE SIGN right index is held, pointing up, on extended arm. Index is then placed, pointing backwards on right shoulder. (This sign is used before the auxiliaries like ‘do’ (to sign ‘did’) or before the verbs (to sign past tense).



Figure A10. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing past tense sign (Bilbrough 2002b).

#### A1.4.2. Time markers - present tense and present actions.

GW signs are devoid of any accompanying tense gesture if the verb expresses a present simple aspect context (habitual actions, facts and frequency). The verb sign used is simply the infinitive calling on the students to make necessary third person singular changes from their interlanguage knowledge.

JOHN + GET UP + AT... = John gets up at (8 in the morning.)

THE + MOON + GO + ROUND... = The moon goes round (the Earth.)

However, it has been useful to introduce a sign to express real present time, that is, actions happening in or around the present. As present action is nearly always represented with present continuous, a present action sign substitutes the auxiliary “be” in the compound present continuous structure. Apart from the cognitive value this adds to Silent Sign by demanding the conjugation of the auxiliary “to be” and the necessary

addition of the “ing” form of the verb, this sign is intended to help fuse the present continuous structure with the idea of “nowness”. In Spanish especially, present action can easily be expressed with simple forms of the verb and this seems to conflict with the correct use of the present continuous in English.

JOHN + NOW SIGN + GO + TO + THE + CINEMA + NOW. = John is going to the cinema now.

NOW sign for TIME (clock) with right hand, while left hand with the tips of all fingers and thumb together is placed, horizontally, with the tips of the fingers pointing backwards against base of right hand. Also verb “to be” in present continuous.



Figure A11. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing auxiliary “be” with present continuous for actions happening in the present (Bilbrough 2002b).

#### A1.4.3. Time markers – future tense.

In the English language, it is commonly agreed among grammarians that there are only two tenses of the verb: past and present. To express future, we require the assistance of auxiliaries, which often introduce a semantic element: going to = plans; will = intention, promise, threat, etc; may, might, could = possibility, permission, etc. It is this meaningfulness of the modal auxiliary especially that necessitates a corresponding sign in GW. Below is an extract from the dictionary showing the different signs for the semantic variations of “could”. In reality, some of these attempts to gesture the meanings of modals have gone no further than this dictionary. It is unusual for learners of GW courses to attain the advanced language levels where such gestures would be required.

COULD: (Used for asking a little more politely: 'Could I have another one, please?') sign for CAN (permission) + PLEASE



COULD: (Conditional of 'can' ie. second conditional. 'If you went, then he could go too' ie. the meaning is 'he would be able to go') sign for WOULD + CAN (permission or ability depending on context)



COULD: (Future or present possibility. As in 'it could rain but it's not likely', 'he could be out', 'you could well be right'.) Sign for SMALL + POSSIBLE (present possibility). (The use of 'small' here is to demonstrate a smaller possibility. Do not sign 'small' in negative sentences or questions.) (However, to express a future possibility, we can show the sign for POSSIBLE + in exactly the same place as the sign 'possible': right hand holds index pointing left, this then arcs forward about 15 cms. i.e. in the future.) (Note: when signing the negative, sign NOT before the arching index which denotes future or past). Note: in usage 'could' does not always seem to express a very small possibility so the sign 'small' could be misleading sometimes. eg. 'I think you could well be right'. (Also see 'past possibilities' and COULD (perfect infinitives.)



present possibility



future possibility

COULD: (Past of 'can' (ability) (permission) eg. 'I could swim by the time I was four'. 'He told me I could go'). Sign for PAST + CAN (ability or permission depending on context)



COULD: (Possibility with perfect infinitives. To express the possibility that past events happened. eg. 'He could have missed the bus'). Sign for SMALL + POSSIBLE (you must then sign + HAVE AUX (type 1 or 2) which expresses past). (See TIME MACHINE) (Also see COULD future or present possibility.)



COULD: (To express possibilities in the past. ie. past of CAN (general possibility) eg. 'When we were small, my little sister could be horrible to me at times') sign for PAST + POSSIBLE.



Figure A12. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing different gestures for modal meanings of “could” (Bilbrough 2002b).

#### A1.4.4. Time markers – expressing “will”.

There exists, of course, the simple future where the auxiliary “will” is used. Furthermore, the modal GW sign uses can be overly complex and even unnecessary for many Silent Sign situations. A generic “will” sign is therefore useful and a simple future sign can denote “will” without the rather complex nuances of varying semantics.



WILL / FUTURE (aux. verb): Index finger rests on sternum, pointing left, and then arcs forward so that forearm is almost fully outstretched horizontally.



Figure A13: Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing sign for generic “will” (Bilbrough 2002b).

### A1.5. Pictographics: drawing objects in the air.

Poyatos states: “Pictographs are movements, usually manual, which, accompanying speech mostly, trace in the air or on a surface the shape, contour or volume of a bidimensional or tridimensional referent...” (Poyatos 2002:183). When gesturing objects with artificial gestures, it is useful to adopt one of three fundamental types of pictograph or even combine these types for more clarity.

#### A1.5.1. Movement.

Imitates a typical action often associated with the referent such as “rain”: the fingers wiggle up and down as the hand moves down.

RAIN: Right hand held with fingers spread palm down held above head height. Fingers tremble as you lower hand (raindrops).



Figure A14. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing gesture for “rain” (Bilbrough 2002b).

#### A1.5.2. Hand-shaped.

The hand or hands are held in such a way as to represent a recognisable iconic form of the object such as “moon”: the hand is held in the form of a crescent.

MOON: Right hand held above head cupped to show crescent moon.



Figure A15. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing gesture for “moon” (Bilbrough 2002b).

#### A1.5.3. Finger-traced.

One or both index fingers trace the contour of the object such as “bottle”: both fingers draw either side of a typically shaped bottle.

BOTTLE: Trace bottle shape with both indexes.



Figure A16. Extract from Gesture Dictionary (Bilbrough 2002b).

Often it is preferable to combine these approaches for further clarity such as “aeroplane”: the hand is held with the little finger and thumb as the wings while the fist is moved horizontally.

PLANE / AEROPLANE: Fist held at chest level, out from body, with little finger and thumb extended (wings). Hand moves to the left.



Figure A17. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing gesture for “plane” (Bilbrough 2002b).

However, as the purpose of GW is also to encourage learning by obliging students to take mental decisions about language, ambiguity in meaning may be purposely introduced. The artificial gesture for “book” has already been discussed, where the gesture is (almost) identical to the sign for “open”. This means that pictograms are used to convey verb actions as well as the meanings of objects. The sign for “oven”, “roast” and “bake” are identical. Students are required to separate these words by context and/or grammar of the signed sentence.

BAKE / ROAST / OVEN (cake, meat): Sign for HEAT + both indexes trace rectangle ie. oven.



Figure A18. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing gesture for “bake” (Bilbrough 2002b).

### A1.6. Deictics – pointing to things.

This category mentioned by Poyatos (2002:179) is obviously difficult to employ in an artificial gesture system as the object we wish to designate may not be present. However, in some circumstances we can use the hands to represent a complete object or entity and then proceed to point out its various parts.

BRANCH (tree): Right hand signs TREE, left index points to branch (finger).



LEAF (plant): Sign for TREE while left hand delimits a small oval-shaped leaf on one of the 'branches'.



PARTS OF THE BODY: Can be shown by pointing to them on your body esp. EYES, NOSE, MOUTH or use the 'dummy', which is better for larger members: LEGS, FEET, CHEST, ARMS, BACK etc. to show the DUMMY: right hand is held up vertically, palm forward, to the right of right shoulder. Second and third fingers are folded against palm, thumb, index and little finger extended. Little finger and thumb are 'arms' top of index is 'head', legs are down the wrist. Then by tracing with tip of left index or together with second finger or with the flat of the hand or fingers, we can show the various members. For indicating smaller parts of the body below the waist, see some individual entries in dictionary.



'dummy'

Figure A19. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing gestures for parts of the body (Bilbrough 2002b).

### A1.7. Kinetographs: imitating what moves (and sounds).

This approach, such as with the gesture for the aeroplane (above), is also described in Poyatos (2002:185). Many are simply the incorporation of movement to more clearly illustrate the identity of an object: car, tap, door, bird, etc. Without such movement, the physical rendering of the intended object may be unconvincing. Movement should be characteristic of the object in question and even, if necessary, vocal sound could be added which imitates a typical action (see “Echoics, imitating what sounds” Poyatos 2002:184). Sounds to accompany the above examples could be, respectively: brmm-brmm, ssshhhh (running water), squeaking door, cry of an eagle.

CAR: Action of holding and turning steering wheel with both hands.



TAP (for water): Right hand does twisting action of turning a tap.



DOOR (general). Both forearms are held vertically in front of you and together. They then move apart to the sides still held vertically. ie. action of a door opening.



## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

**BIRD:** Hands held flat, at neck height, palms facing down or slightly towards you. Fingers of right hand pointing left and of left hand pointing right. Holding the above hand positions, the two thumbs interlink at their bases. The 'wings' can now flap.



Figure A20. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing kinesthograms (Bilbrough 2002b).

Other gestures describe action verbs so movement is essential to convey the correct meaning: a sinking ship, a flying plane, a person diving in a pool, etc.

**SINK** (go down in water): Sign for WATER (river) then right index traces object sinking in zig-zag motion moving downwards.

**FLY** (verb): Sign for PLANE (or BIRD).



**DIVE:** Left hand held at shoulder height, flat and palm down, fingers pointing forward. Right index, pointing down and resting on back of left hand, jumps up and to the right then 'falls' down about 60 cms. ie. a diver diving off a diving board. (sign WATER at the bottom of sign if appropriate).

Figure A21. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing action verbs (Bilbrough 2002b).

Lastly, movement is brought into gesture creation when transmitting words which describe a relatively long temporal phase. This is the case of, “morning” and “evening” but not “midday” or “midnight”. The first two include the moving arc of the rising or setting sun while the second two a moment in time.

**MORNING:** Left hand held edge on, flat, palm facing towards you, fingers pointing right. Index and thumb of right hand form 'O' (the sun) and other fingers extend. The sun is hidden behind left palm then 'rises' and stops about 30 cms above left hand.



**EVENING:** Performed in the opposite way to MORNING.



Figure A22. Extract from Gesture Dictionary showing long temporal phases (Bilbrough 2002b).

Another aspect concerning kinesthograms includes an association with onomatopoeic qualities (see section in Results 5.8.7. for discussion).

## **Annexe 2. Enrolment and authorisation letters between TR and parents.**

### **A2.1. Invitation to parents to introductory meeting prior to enrolment.**

28/05/2014

Estimados padres:

Por la presente, quisiera informarles acerca de un curso gratuito de inglés que ofrecemos como actividad extraescolar a lo largo del año académico 2014/2015 para los alumnos de 4º actual, es decir, 5º del próximo curso.

El curso es gratuito porque se trata de una investigación de la Universidad de Sevilla sobre un método acelerado en el aprendizaje del inglés hablado. Este método de enseñanza del inglés oral ya tiene éxito en países como Canadá con resultados extraordinarios en la adquisición de este idioma. El profesor que impartirá el curso es un profesor nativo de Inglaterra.

Por lo tanto, para saber más sobre este curso y para apuntarse, convocamos una reunión para los padres el martes 3 de junio a las 17.00.

Plazas limitadas.

Confiado en su asistencia.

Firmados:


M, S y Mike

[Author's note: M y S being the then teachers of these students]

**A2.2. Request for parent authorisation for making video recordings of learners during the experimental course.**

All parents signed the letter below and originals have been filed.

16/10/2014

 <b>JUNTA DE ANDALUCÍA</b> Consejería de Educación C.E.I.P. " PEDRO I "	<b>AUTORIZACIÓN PARA EL USO EDUCATIVO DE IMÁGENES DE LOS ALUMN@S.</b>
---	---

Para la participación en el Proyecto de investigación de la enseñanza del inglés en las aulas y en colaboración con la Universidad de Sevilla, es condición indispensable la grabación de las sesiones para su posterior estudio y evaluación.

Probablemente se solicitará la divulgación de las mismas; si alguna familia desea que la cara de su hijo/a salga difuminada, deberá marcar la opción deseada.

Los alumnos/as cuyas familias no autoricen las grabaciones no podrán participar en este proyecto.

Rogamos firmen la autorización y la entreguen al tutor/a antes del 26 de septiembre.

-----  
Don/Doña \_\_\_\_\_

con DNI \_\_\_\_\_ como padre/madre o tutor del alumn@  
\_\_\_\_\_ de 5º curso de Primaria del CEIP Pedro I.

**AUTORIZO a Michael Bilbrough, como responsable de este Proyecto a un uso pedagógico** de las imágenes y grabaciones realizadas en el desarrollo de este proyecto.

SI Deseo que la cara de mi hijo/a aparezca difuminada.

NO Deseo que la cara de mi hijo/a aparezca difuminada.

En \_\_\_\_\_ a \_\_\_\_\_ de \_\_\_\_\_ de 2014

FIRMADO : (padre, madre, tutor legal)

**A2.3. Authorisation from parents to upload video recording of learners in GW classes to teacher's website.**

All parents, whose children appear on videos, signed the letter below and originals have been filed.

4 de marzo de 2015

Email: mike.bilbrough@gmail.com

Autorización.

Autorizo a Michael Bilbrough (NIE: x1088167z), profesor de inglés e investigador en metodologías del aprendizaje de segundas lenguas, a subir a la página web de GestureWay, página dedicada a la promoción científica y didáctica del sistema de gestos manuales para enseñar inglés, tanto fotos como videos tomados en el curso actual de inglés en *CEIP Pedro Primero* que incluyen tomas de mi hijo/hija. Entiendo que dicho material es puramente representativo de la técnica de GestureWay y que ningún dato personal de mi hijo/hija como su nombre o apellidos será divulgado a terceros o usuarios de dicha página pero que puede que la cara de mi hijo/hija esté perfectamente reconocible en dichos videos y fotos. Este material permanecerá en propiedad de Michael Bilbrough.

Nombre y apellidos del  
alumno (hijo/hija):

Nombre y apellidos de uno de los  
padres o guardador legal:

Firmado:

Fecha:

**Annexe 3. Selection of correspondence between TR and *Pedro Primero*.**

**A3.1. Request for permission to observe classes and denial plus subsequent request for teacher questionnaire completion.**

23 March 2015

Hola Mikel.

He hablado con M y MA de la posibilidad de que estuvieras presente en su clase. Las dos me han preguntado que si era imprescindible, porque piensan que no se sentirían cómodas con un profesional dentro del aula. Las dos me han comentado que si es necesario para el proyecto accederán, pero que si es algo de lo que se puede prescindir prefieren no hacerlo, ya que no se sentirían relajadas para dar la clase. Un saludo.

Buenos días, M<sup>a</sup> de Gracia

Desde luego no voy a hacer nada que no sea para el bien del proyecto y que no sea importante. ¿Imprescindible? Bueno, en la investigación hay datos que se consiguen y otros que no para varias razones. Es una cuestión de procurar conseguir lo que se pueda. Pero de alguna manera debería obtener datos de qué está pasando dentro del aula en las clases de inglés en Pedro I o mi propio procedimiento en el aula no tendrá mucha validez.

Si la reacción de las profesoras es como me la describes, quizás haya otra manera. Se trata de completar una plantilla que incluye la planificación de una clase de inglés típica - una clase por profesora (1º y 5º de primaria) y un cuestionario. Tendrán que completar la plantilla escrita y enviarme la misma más las copias de las páginas del libro de texto (o otros materiales que han utilizado en la clase). Dichas plantillas deben ser firmadas por tí (no por las profesoras) dando autenticidad de que hayan sido completadas por M y MA.

Si están conformes con esto, enviaré la plantilla. De todas maneras, ahora sería después de Semana Santa para coincidir con un ritmo normal de clase.

Saludos,

Mike



### **A3.2. Communication with headmistress of Pedro Primero primary school: request for intervention regarding poor homework returns and discipline issues.**

The headmistress of *Pedro Primero* had previously addressed the class in person and insisted that those students who interrupted the lesson proceedings refrained from doing so. She also called on students to complete the weekly homework tasks.

17/02/2015

Estimada María de Gracia:

Aunque el comportamiento esté mejor en clase - lo que más me preocupa son los alumnos que no hacen los deberes. Esta semana, sólo 8 de los 19 alumnos han hecho deberes. No insisto en 100% de envío de deberes todas las semanas pero algunos alumnos (ver lista) no han hecho ninguno.

Nombres:

AC

JM

AC

RS

LM

Se trata de realizar una grabación en audio y enviármela. He enviado ayuda repetida por email en cómo se puede hacer esto: programas gratuitas para bajar, paso a paso instrucciones en cómo se hace - pero nada. BG, por fin, me envió la primera grabación esta semana. No se tratan de los alumnos que se portan los peores - AC y R son buenos alumnos en clase.

Pregunto si podrías comunicarte con todos realmente, recordándolos de la importancia de la atención en clase y de hacer los deberes en casa - el acuerdo inicial que tuvimos con los padres al matricularse y francamente la actividad para hacer en casa es cosa de 10 minutos nada más.

Lástima que lo gratuito tenga lo más menosprecio.

Saludos,

Mike Bilbrough

Pequeños triunfos (esto entre tú y yo): hasta el alumno menos dotado en inglés (JC) y con grandes problemas en el habla, se esfuerza para enviarme los deberes todas las semanas - y qué progreso está haciendo el chaval, ¡lo digo en serio!

**Annexe 4. Selected correspondence: behaviour and parent satisfaction.**

**A4.1. Behaviour issue of a student. Despite the problems recorded here, this student scored the highest mark among the non-academy students of the experimental course.**

25-04- 2015. Buenas tardes, señora A.

Lamento comunicarla que el jueves pasado tuve que enviar a su hijo fuera de la clase durante unos 10 minutos. Yo estaba pidiendo a todos que hicieran los gestos y I no quiso colaborar. Es cierto que a I tiene la tendencia de portarse de manera inmadura de vez en cuando.

Por otra parte, I es un niño muy listo y su inglés hablado sí va mejorando bastante en este curso y cuando se porta bien en clase y participa, aporta mucho a la dinámica del grupo. Si pudiera colaborar así en todo momento, sería un alumno ideal.

Espero que pueda hablar con él para convencerle de lo importante que es participar correctamente en clase en todo momento.

Esperando su colaboración, le saluda muy atentamente,

Mike Bilbrough (profesor de inglés I - curso extraescolar)

Buenos días. Disculpe que no le haya contestado antes pero acabo deletéreo su correo.

Le pido disculpas por el comportamiento de mi hijo. Hablaré con él hoy y espero que este episodio no vuelva a repetirse. Le agradezco todos sus esfuerzos por enseñarles inglés a nuestros hijos y esta falta de respeto no volverá a producirse.

Le agradecería que me comunicara si observa en él ese cambio de actitud en lo sucesivo.

Muchas gracias.

A.

Hola, A.

Gracias por su repuesta. Estoy seguro de que I es capaz de una participación más constante y una actitud más positiva. Le comunicaré cómo sigue. Tiene talento para el inglés.

Por otra parte, veo que últimamente (últimas 3 semanas) I no me envía los deberes semanales. Entiendo que tendrá muchos deberes del colegio pero si pudiera encontrar 15 minutos por semana para hacer estas tareas, estaría agradecido y I aprovecharía más el curso.

Saludos,

Mike Bilbrough

Estimado maestro:

En relación a lo que me refiere sobre los deberes de I, me consta que los ha hecho en mi presencia, pero hemos tenido que enviar el ordenador a arreglar y las últimas semanas ha hecho los deberes desde mi Ipad usando una aplicación diferente. Tal vez el sistema operativo sea distinto y ese sea el motivo.

Mañana regresa su padre, que es el que entiende de estas cosas , y si no lleva la tarea hecha mañana que sepa que es por este motivo.

Realizará la tarea pendiente en el fin de semana. Muy agradecida. A

*A4.2. One of many emails requesting cooperation with completing the homework tasks.*

One of the failures of the homework project could have been the enormous burden parents and students already encountered with the existing daily homework load from school. Research of this kind should preferably take place within normal class time and substitution of previous course thereby not increasing an already busy workload.

Estimados padres y alumnos:

Envío los deberes para esta semana que se trata de otra grabación. Si tienes problemas en grabar en Mp3, puedes enviármela en WAV. Esta actividad sólo tardará 10 a 15 minutos.

Ruego hagáis un esfuerzo. Puedo hacer mucho por vuestros hijos y sus avances en inglés pero necesito la cooperación de todos - sobre todo los alumnos. Tengo que señalar que algunos alumnos no se portan bien en clase - una atención más aplicada se requiere para apreciar un avance en el inglés. Ningún método funcionará si el alumno no presta atención. Espero ver una mejora en este aspecto la semana que viene.

Por otra parte, los alumnos que se están aplicando en clase sí están logrando grandes pasos en inglés hacia adelante y estoy muy contento con ellos (¡veréis los resultados!) - y no tiene nada que ver que si estos alumnos están matriculados o no en la academia de Sean.

Todavía hay alumnos que no me han enviado la información para abrir su blog inglés. De estos alumnos necesito:

- 1) Un nombre de su avatar.
- 2) Una pequeña foto de su avatar.

Además, todos los alumnos deben enviarme la grabación de esta semana.

Aquí está la página para ver los deberes y los enlaces a los blogs:

<http://www.englishspanishlink.com/gestureway/alumnos/avatar-list.htm>

Que paséis un buen fin de semana,

Mike

**A4.3. Selection of emails from parents expressing gratitude and continuation of the course.**

Buenas noches. Agradecerle nuevamente el trabajo realizado con los niños y expresarle nuestro pesar de que este magnifico proyecto no haya tenido continuidad. Un saludo. M. 29-02-2016.

Gracias por su labor con los niños de inglés, en nuestro caso pensamos que nuestra hija A (Paddington) esta teniendo una gran evolución con sus clases, por ello agradecemos su entrega y dedicación. Un cordial saludo. Esperamos que tenga unas buenas vacaciones de Semana Santa. Familia G.G. 28-03-2015.

Te agradezco mucho tu esfuerzo, he visto el mucho que aprendió A. Un saludo. Dios te bendiga. A. 24-3-2015.

Buenas tardes, soy la madre de J alumno del CEIP Pedro I. En primer lugar quiero agradecerle el trabajo realizado con los/as alumnos/as participantes en el proyecto de inglés que tuvo lugar durante el curso académico pasado y especialmente por el avance experimentado por mi hijo J y la motivación que ha despertado por el inglés, que nunca antes había mostrado y en la que ha influido su metodología y su capacidad de trasmisión, sin lugar a dudas.

Y en segundo lugar, me gustaría saber si habría alguna posibilidad de seguir con esta formación, durante el curso académico que ahora comienza, es decir 2015-2016, ya que ha sido una experiencia positiva para los/as niños/as y considero que seriamos muchos los padres y madres que apoyaríamos dicha iniciativa, ya sea dentro o fuera del colegio.

Agradeciendo nuevamente su labor y en espera de su respuesta, le saluda atentamente. 13-9-2015.

Muchas gracias, Michael, a mi hijo le sirvió de mucho, esta muy contento contigo y con tus clases, es una pena no poder continuar otro año mas aunque no fuera en el colegio. Un saludo. S. 15-09-2015.

Muchísimas gracias por todo el trabajo realizado y esperamos que los resultados sean satisfactorios para sus intereses. Para nosotros y sobre todo para nuestra hija A la experiencia ha sido de gran interés y creemos que su nivel de inglés mejoró, por ello nos gustaría la posibilidad de tener una continuidad en dicho método de estudios. ¿Seria posible esta opción? Si esta dispuesto a seguir trabajando (de alguna forma privada, llámese academia, clases particulares...) nos gustaría que nos tuviera informado para tener la posibilidad de continuidad en GestureWay. Saludos R.G. 16-09-2016.

**Annexe 5. Official agreement of collaboration.**

**CONVENIO DE COLABORACIÓN ENTRE LA UNIVERSIDAD DE SEVILLA Y CEIP Pedro I (Carmona – Sevilla) PARA llevar a cabo trabajo experimental sobre la enseñanza-aprendizaje de inglés como L2 a través de un sistema de gestos.**

Sevilla a 22 de septiembre de 2014.

**REUNIDOS**

De una parte, el D. Manuel García León, Vicerrector de Investigación de la Universidad de Sevilla, en virtud de su nombramiento de marzo de 2012, con capacidad para suscribir o autorizar la celebración de contratos y convenios de investigación en nombre de la Universidad, de sus centros y de sus profesores, en virtud de lo dispuesto en el artículo 20.k) de los vigentes Estatutos de la Universidad de Sevilla, aprobados por Decreto 324/2003, de 25 de noviembre.

De otra parte, Dña, María de Gracia Alonso Pérez, Directora del CEIP Pedro I, sito en Carmona (Sevilla) en la C/ Barranquillo s/n.

Las partes, actuando en nombre y representación de sus respectivas instituciones, se reconocen recíprocamente capacidad y competencia para formalizar el presente Convenio y, a sus efectos,

**EXPONEN**

Primero.- Que la Universidad de Sevilla posee, entre otros, como objetivos básicos, según su Estatuto la docencia, estudio e investigación, así como la generación, desarrollo y difusión del conocimiento con especial atención a la Comunidad Autónoma de Andalucía, y que actualmente el Departamento de Filología Inglesa (Lengua Inglesa) trabaja en proyectos de investigación, relacionados con el objeto de este Convenio, como la enseñanza-aprendizaje del inglés como segunda lengua a través de un sistema de gestos.

Segundo.-Que CEIP Pedro I está interesado en participar en dicho proyecto de investigación con el objeto de mejorar la enseñanza-aprendizaje de inglés en su centro y para ello permiten que se lleve a cabo la experimentación pertinente con su alumnado.

En virtud de cuanto antecede, ambas partes acuerdan materializar su colaboración mediante la firma del presente Convenio y de acuerdo con las siguientes cláusulas.



## CLÁUSULAS

### **PRIMERA.- Objeto**

Constituye el objeto del presente Convenio la colaboración entre la Universidad de Sevilla y el CEIP Pedro I para llevar a cabo trabajo experimental de un proyecto de investigación sobre la enseñanza-aprendizaje de inglés como L2 a través de un sistema de gestos.

### **SEGUNDA.- Dirección y equipo de los trabajos**

Los trabajos que se realicen por la Universidad de Sevilla, en virtud del presente Convenio, serán llevados a cabo por ésta a través de un equipo de trabajo que dependerá exclusivamente de ella a todos los efectos legales y económicos.

El responsable del CEIP Pedro I, María de Gracia Alonso Pérez, será responsable de la coordinación de los trabajos que se realicen en el centro al que representa.

La dirección científica y técnica de los trabajos, corresponde al profesor Dña. Gloria Álvarez Benito, adscrita al Departamento de Filología Inglesa (Lengua Inglesa) de la Universidad de Sevilla e investigadora principal del grupo de investigación JULIETTA, dentro del cual se enmarca este proyecto.

El equipo de trabajo estará integrado por la persona responsable de la dirección científica y técnica de los trabajos y por el personal que la Universidad de Sevilla designe.

El CEIP Pedro I no asumirá con las personas que forman parte del citado equipo de trabajo de la Universidad de Sevilla, relación jurídica de ninguna clase, ni administrativa, ni laboral, ni estatutaria, ni funcionarial, ni mercantil, dependiendo a todos los efectos de la Universidad de Sevilla.

Los miembros del equipo de trabajo, podrán permanecer en las dependencias del CEIP Pedro I para llevar a cabo los tests de evaluación de los estudiantes así como para la experimentación necesaria para el proyecto, así como para cualquier otro fin necesario para la correcta realización de los trabajos objeto de este Convenio y la debida coordinación con el personal del CEIP Pedro I.

Si por impedimento, debidamente constatado, la persona responsable de la dirección científica y técnica de los trabajos no estuviera en condiciones de asegurar la dirección y supervisión de los mismos, estos pasarán a ser dirigidos por personas de cualificación equivalente, a propuesta de la Universidad de Sevilla, mediante acuerdo de la Comisión de seguimiento a la que se refiere la Cláusula Octava.



### **TERCERA.- Obligaciones y actuaciones de las partes firmantes del Convenio**

#### A) Obligaciones y actuaciones del CEIP Pedro I:

- Proporcionar al equipo de trabajo cuantos datos e información sean necesarios, y estén disponibles, para la realización de los trabajos que son objeto del presente convenio.
- Participar con su personal en las reuniones técnicas de seguimiento de los trabajos.
- Colaborar con el equipo de trabajo de la Universidad de Sevilla en las tareas necesarias para el desarrollo y ejecución de este proyecto.
- Hacer mención a este convenio en caso de publicación de resultados, tal como se especifica en la cláusula QUINTA de este convenio

#### B) Actuaciones y obligaciones de la Universidad de Sevilla:

- Designar al personal integrante del equipo de trabajo y ejercer, a través de la persona responsable de dicho equipo, la dirección científica y técnica de los trabajos con responsabilidad máxima sobre las tareas del mismo.
- Efectuar las actuaciones contempladas en este Convenio e informar al CEIP Pedro I, en la forma y fechas que se acuerden entre ambas partes, del estado de los trabajos.
- Poner a disposición del proyecto los medios necesarios para el desarrollo de los trabajos.
- Desarrollar los trabajos técnicos necesarios para el buen fin del objeto del Convenio y, en particular, colaborar con el personal técnico del CEIP Pedro I en las tareas necesarias para el desarrollo y ejecución de este proyecto.
- Asesorar a al CEIP Pedro I a través de la implantación de procesos formativos que den soporte a la producción de información (este punto se refiere a la posibilidad de impartir cursos/talleres sobre el objeto del convenio).

### **CUARTA.- Confidencialidad de la información y secreto estadístico**

La Universidad de Sevilla, como responsable de la realización de los trabajos, se compromete a tratar de forma absolutamente confidencial la información, tanto la recibida del CEIP Pedro I, como la obtenida en el desarrollo de los trabajos, durante la vigencia del presente Convenio, de conformidad con lo dispuesto en la Ley 4/1989, de 12 de diciembre, y la Ley Orgánica 15/1999, de 13 de diciembre, de Protección de Datos de Carácter Personal y su Reglamento de desarrollo, aprobado mediante Real Decreto 1720/2007, de 21 de diciembre.

De acuerdo con los artículos 9 al 13 de la Ley 4/1989, de 12 de diciembre, de Estadística de la Comunidad Autónoma de Andalucía, quedarán obligados a preservar el secreto estadístico todos los miembros del equipo de trabajo, y por ello habrán de quedar inscritos en el Registro General de Agentes Estadísticos con carácter previo a la cesión de los datos, de conformidad con lo establecido en el Decreto 345/2011, de 22 de noviembre, por el que se regula la organización y el funcionamiento del Registro General de Agentes Estadísticos de Andalucía. Dicho carácter de Agente Estadístico se perderá al finalizar la vigencia del Convenio, sin perjuicio de lo establecido en el artículo 13 de la Ley 4/1989.



#### **QUINTA.- Titularidad de los trabajos**

La propiedad de los resultados de investigación, documentos e informes que se generen como consecuencia de la ejecución y desarrollo del presente Convenio corresponderá a la Universidad de Sevilla. En la medida en que estos resultados sean susceptibles de protección legal, la titularidad de los derechos de propiedad industrial y/o intelectual relativos a las invenciones que pudieran derivarse del desarrollo y ejecución de este acuerdo corresponderá a la Universidad de Sevilla, apareciendo como inventores los investigadores de la Universidad de Sevilla que hayan participado en el desarrollo del proyecto.

En cualquier caso de difusión de los trabajos se hará mención al presente convenio y se reconocerá la autoría del equipo de trabajo, mencionando su vinculación a las instituciones firmantes.

#### **SEXTA.- Financiación**

Las actuaciones previstas en el presente Convenio no generarán contraprestaciones financieras entre las partes firmantes.

#### **SÉPTIMA.- Vigencia**

El presente Convenio entrará en vigor a la fecha de su firma y tendrá vigencia hasta la finalización del proyecto, pudiéndose éste renovarse de mutuo acuerdo si las investigaciones y desarrollo del mismo no hubiesen producido todavía el fruto esperado y ambas partes consideren oportuna su prosecución.

#### **OCTAVA.- Comisión de Seguimiento**

Ambas partes acuerdan que antes de plantear ante la jurisdicción competente todo litigio, discrepancia, cuestión o reclamación resultante de la ejecución o interpretación del presente acuerdo o relacionado con él, directa o indirectamente, será planteado ante una Comisión Paritaria (tres representantes de cada una de las dos entidades) que se creará para tal efecto y que estudiará el problema y ofrecerá una solución concordada. A pesar de su carácter no vinculante, ambas partes tratarán con su mejor empeño de aceptar la solución ofrecida por la Comisión.

#### **NOVENA.- Régimen jurídico y jurisdicción aplicables**

El presente Convenio tiene naturaleza administrativa y se encuentra excluido de la aplicación del Real Decreto Legislativo 3/2011, de 14 de noviembre, por el que se aprueba el Texto Refundido de la Ley de Contratos del Sector Público, en virtud de su artículo 4.1.c. Así mismo se regula por los artículos 6 y 8 de la Ley 30/1992, de 26 de noviembre, de Régimen Jurídico de las Administraciones Públicas y del Procedimiento Administrativo Común.





Por otro lado, a tenor de lo dispuesto en el artículo 8.3 de la Ley 30/1992 citada, las cuestiones litigiosas que se pudieran suscitar durante la vigencia del mismo serán sometidas a la jurisdicción contencioso-administrativa, de conformidad con su Ley reguladora 29/1998, de 13 de julio.

Y en prueba de conformidad, firman por triplicado ejemplar, a un solo efecto, y en todas sus hojas, el presente Convenio en el lugar y fecha arriba indicados.

**POR LA UNIVERSIDAD DE SEVILLA**

**POR CEIP PEDRO I**

**Fdo. D Manuel García León**

**Fdo.: Dña. María de Gracia Alonso Pérez**

**Annexe 6. Liability insurance policy taken out for duration of course.**



RESPONSABILIDAD CIVIL SERVICIOS

**Condiciones generales y particulares**

Nº POLIZA/SPTO. 1331400009593 / 0

**Nº POLIZA/SPTO. 1331400009593 / 0**

**ASEGURADOR**

**REALE SEGUROS GENERALES, S.A.** SANTA ENGRACIA, 14-16, 28010 MADRID  
 CIF: A78520293

**TOMADOR**

**BILBROUGH ., MICHAEL** CL ELIO ANTONIO, 15  
 NIE X1088167Z 41410 CARMONA  
 SEVILLA

**EFFECTO DEL SEGURO, DURACION Y FORMA DE PAGO**

**Efecto:** 0 h. del 02/10/2014 **Duración del Seguro:** TEMPORAL NO RENOVABLE  
**Vencimiento:** 0 h. del 31/05/2015 **Forma de Pago:** DE UNA VEZ

**IMPORTE DEL RECIBO Y DOMICILIO DE PAGO**

Importe del Recibo	Periodo	Prima	Consortio	D.G.S.	Impuestos	Total
	Del 02-10-2014 al 31-05-2015	40,63	0,00	0,06	2,44	<b>43,13 €</b>
Anual						<b>43,13 €</b>

**Domicilio de Pago:** BANCO ESPA/OL DE CREDITO / \*\*\*\* \* 5271

Los importes que aparecen a continuación corresponden al periodo indicado como "Efecto del Seguro" en estas Condiciones Particulares. En caso de duración "Anual Renovable o Temporal Renovable" se comunicarán, con la antelación debida, las primas correspondientes al periodo de renovación.  
 En la Renovación, la prima se calculará conforme a la tarifa que tenga establecida la Compañía a dicha fecha.

**ASEGURADO**

**BILBROUGH ., MICHAEL** NIE: X1088167Z  
 CL ELIO ANTONIO, 15  
 41410 CARMONA



RESPONSABILIDAD CIVIL SERVICIOS

## Condiciones generales y particulares

Nº POLIZA/SPTO. 1331400009593 / 0

### DESCRIPCION Y CARACTERISTICAS DEL RIESGO ASEGURADO

**Descripción de la Actividad objeto del seguro :**

Profesor de enseñanza: Impartición de curso de idiomas en el CEIP Pedro I (Carmona).

**Características de la actividad objeto del seguro :**

Base de calculo de la prima : PERSONA/S EMPLEADA/S

**Cantidad : 1**

El Asegurado declara que la cantidad indicada corresponde al último ejercicio contable (31 de diciembre del año inmediatamente anterior a la fecha de efecto de la anualidad en curso)

Tasa de regularización : 27,0869€

Ambito Territorial de la actividad objeto del seguro : Territorio Nacional

Copia firmada a devolver a la Compañía

www.reale.es

4

**Annexe 7. Pilot test versions.**

**A7.1. Rubric 1.**

**a) Respuestas cortas negativas y afirmativas.**

Contesta a estas preguntas. Utiliza estas palabras: do / does / don't / doesn't

1) Does Lucy have a computer?

Yes, she \_\_\_\_\_.

2) Do you go to school on Mondays?

Yes, I \_\_\_\_\_.

3) Does Paco live in London?

No, he \_\_\_\_\_.

4) Do snails eat ice-cream?

No, they \_\_\_\_\_.

5) Does the astronaut work in the space station?

Yes, he \_\_\_\_\_.

**A7.2. Rubric 2.**

This was the preferred version and the model adopted for the written pre-test.

**a) Respuestas cortas negativas y afirmativas.**

Rellena los espacios para contestar a estas preguntas.

**Ejemplo:**

Do you go to school on Sundays?

No, I don't.

1) Does Lucy have a computer?

Yes, she \_\_\_\_\_.

2) Do you go to school on Mondays?

Yes, I \_\_\_\_\_.

3) Does Paco live in London?

No, he \_\_\_\_\_.

4) Do snails eat ice-cream?

No, they \_\_\_\_\_.

5) Does the astronaut work in the space station?

Yes, he \_\_\_\_\_.

**Annexe 8. Pre-test written and speaking materials and marking sheet.**

**Prueba inicial GestureWay (CEIP Pedro I) Septiembre 2014**

**Nombre del alumno:**

**a) Frases afirmativas en presente simple.**

Lee las frases y fíjate en los dibujos. Escribe el verbo en su forma correcta.


**Ejemplo:**


Karim and Lucy  walk to school on Mondays.

1) Tom  \_\_\_\_\_ letters on Saturdays.

2) Dad  \_\_\_\_\_ on Sundays.

3) Lucy and Tom  \_\_\_\_\_ songs on Saturdays.

4) The teacher  \_\_\_\_\_ to the English class on Tuesdays.

5) I  \_\_\_\_\_ to music on Fridays.

**b) La forma de los verbos.**

Lee las frases y fíjate en los dibujos. Escribe un verbo en su forma correcta.

**Ejemplo:**

Paco has got a guitar. He



plays the guitar a lot.

1) He has got a bicycle. He likes



\_\_\_\_\_ in the park.

2) Paco likes sport. He



\_\_\_\_\_ football in the evenings.

3) Paco likes astronauts and the planets. He wants



\_\_\_\_\_ to the moon.

4) He hasn't got a lot of books. He doesn't like



\_\_\_\_\_.

5) Paco likes the park. He can



\_\_\_\_\_ trees.

**c) Preguntas en presente simple.**

Escribe las preguntas de estas frases.

**Ejemplo:**

Karim and Tom skate in winter

Do Karim and Tom skate in winter?

1) You wear a jumper in winter.

\_\_\_\_\_?

2) The monkey eats ice-cream in summer.

\_\_\_\_\_?

3) The brown bear sleeps in caves in winter.

\_\_\_\_\_?

4) Lucy goes to the beach in summer.

\_\_\_\_\_?

5) I play in the park in winter.

\_\_\_\_\_?

**d) Preguntas con el verbo “to be”.**

Rellena cada espacio con la forma correcta del verbo “to be” para hacer preguntas.

**Ejemplo:**

Is Lucy a good student?

1) \_\_\_ Karim in the park?

4) \_\_\_ the hospital in the town?

2) \_\_\_ you Spanish?

5) \_\_\_ Mum and Dad in the museum?

3) \_\_\_ the aliens on the moon?



**e) Frases negativas con el verbo “to be”.**

Escribe estas frases con el verbo “to be” en el negativo.

**Ejemplo:**

My dad is from the UK.

My dad isn't from the UK.

1) Lucy is at school.

Lucy \_\_\_\_\_ at school.

4) The boys and girls are in the gym.

The boys and girls \_\_\_\_\_ in the gym.

2) There is a lion in the zoo.

There \_\_\_\_\_ a lion in the zoo.

5) I am very happy today.

I \_\_\_\_\_ very happy today.

3) There are monkeys in the zoo.

There \_\_\_\_\_ monkeys in the zoo.

**f) La forma negativa – los verbos.**

Escribe estas frases con el verbo en el negativo.

**Ejemplo:**

You like eggs and sausages.

You don't like eggs and sausages.

1) I want an ice-cream.

I \_\_\_\_\_ an ice-cream.

4) Karim goes to the cinema with Mum and Dad.

Karim \_\_\_\_\_ to the cinema with Mum and Dad.

2) This insect eats vegetables.

This insect \_\_\_\_\_ vegetables.

5) The children can see the planets through the telescope.

The children \_\_\_\_\_ the planets through the telescope.

3) She's got a ladybird in her bag.

She \_\_\_\_\_ a ladybird in her bag.

**g) Presente continuo para acciones en el presente.**

Estas personas y animales están haciendo cosas ahora mismo. Utiliza las palabras para escribir las preguntas como en el ejemplo.

**Ejemplo:**

What Mum cook

What is Mum cooking?

1) What he drink

\_\_\_\_\_?

2) Where they go

\_\_\_\_\_?

3) What Lucy wear

\_\_\_\_\_?

4) Where the children play

\_\_\_\_\_?

5) What you write

\_\_\_\_\_?

**h) El pasado de los verbos.**

¿Cuál es el pasado de estos verbos?

**Ejemplo:**

Make - made

1) Paint - \_\_\_\_\_

4) Go - \_\_\_\_\_

2) Play - \_\_\_\_\_

5) See - \_\_\_\_\_

3) Eat - \_\_\_\_\_

**i) Comprensión lectora.**

Lee el texto y contesta las preguntas. Escribe tus respuestas en inglés.

Karim is on holiday. He likes to do lots of different things. In the mornings he goes canoeing. In the afternoons he goes swimming with his friends in the river. He never goes climbing. At six o'clock he has dinner and in the evening Karim and his Mum tell stories.

- 1) What does Karim do in the mornings?

\_\_\_\_\_?

- 2) What does Karim never do?

\_\_\_\_\_?

- 3) Where does Karim go swimming?

\_\_\_\_\_?

- 4) What time does Karim have dinner?

\_\_\_\_\_?

- 5) When does Karim and his Mum tell stories?

\_\_\_\_\_?

**j) Texto escrito. El día de Lucy y tu día.**

Lee este texto:

Lucy gets up at six-thirty. At seven o'clock she has breakfast and she leaves the house at half past seven. Lucy arrives at school at eight o'clock and has her English class at nine thirty. At 12 o'clock she plays basketball with her friends.

Ahora escribe acerca de tu día. Puedes utilizar las palabras y expresiones en el texto del día de Lucy para ayudarte si quieres.

I get up at...

**k) Completa estas preguntas con una palabra adecuada por espacio.**

Ejemplo 1: **Paco:** “ What do you do on Saturdays?”

**Sara:** “I play football.”

Ejemplo 2: **Paco:** “ What time do you have breakfast?”

**Sara:** “I have breakfast at 8 o'clock.”

1, **Paco:** “ \_\_\_\_\_ do you get to school every morning?”

**Sara:** “I walk.”

2, **Paco:** “ \_\_\_\_\_ football team do you prefer: Betis or Sevilla?”

**Sara:** “I prefer Betis.”

3, **Paco:** “ \_\_\_\_\_ do you play with at school?”

**Sara:** “I play with Carmen.”

4, **Paco:** “ \_\_\_\_\_ are you wearing your coat?”

**Sara:** “Because it's cold.”

5, **Paco:** “ \_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_ money have you got?”

**Sara:** “I've got five euros.”

6, **Paco:** “ \_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_ do you go swimming?”

**Sara:** “I go swimming three times a week.

**1) Completa estas preguntas con una palabra adecuada por espacio.**

Esta es la agenda de Sara para la semana que viene. Escribe una frase completa EN INGLÉS que dice qué va a hacer Sara cada día.

MONDAY	Carmen (telephone after school).
TUESDAY	Basketball at school (6 o'clock)
WEDNESDAY	Paco (help him with maths)
THURSDAY	Cinema with Dad (8 o'clock)
FRIDAY	Homework (do it in the evening)
SATURDAY	English study.
SUNDAY	Bed all day.

- 1, On Monday, Sara \_\_\_\_\_.
- 2, On Tuesday, Sara \_\_\_\_\_.
- 3, On Wednesday, Sara \_\_\_\_\_.
- 4, On Thursday, Sara \_\_\_\_\_.
- 5, On Friday, Sara \_\_\_\_\_.
- 6, On Saturday, Sara \_\_\_\_\_.
- 7, On Sunday, Sara \_\_\_\_\_.

**A8.1. Warmer exercise before speaking test.**

**Dime qué ves en cada uno de estos dibujos. Por ejemplo: (the teacher named an object).**



6 / 13 / 53 / 267    4 / 15 / 89 / 376    3 / 19 / 86 / 472    8 / 12  
 / 18 / 573



## A8.2. Speaking pre-test score sheet and questions.

Name S1:	Name S2:
----------	----------

**Question 1. Vocab test:**

0 – 10 S1:	0 – 10 S2:
------------	------------

**Question 2. General questions:**

<b>A = Correct full-sentence answer.</b>		<b>C = Partially accurate.</b>	
<b>B = Minimum correct answer.</b>		<b>0 = Not understood, silent or wrong answer.</b>	
	1) Where are you from?		1) Where do you live?
	2) How many brothers and sisters have you got?		2) How many English classes have you got this week?
	3) What day is it today?		3) What month is it?
	4) What time do you have lunch?		4) What time do you have breakfast?
	5) What's the weather like today?		5) What's the weather like in summer?
	6) What is your favourite sport?		6) What is your favourite food?
<b>&lt; CHANGE TURNS &gt;</b>			
	7) Where is the pen?		7) Where is the pencil?
	8) Can you ride a horse?		8) Can you play the violin?
	9) What food do you like?		9) What sports do you like?
	10) Where do you go on holiday in summer?		10) Where do you go at weekends?
	11) How do you spell "table"?		11) How do you spell "chair"?
	12) What numbers are these? (see vocab sheet)		12) What numbers are these? (see vocab sheet)

**Question 3. Picture and story questions:**

<b>A = Correct full-sentence answer.*</b>		<b>C = One-word answers.*</b>	
<b>B = Lesser partially correct 2 word+ answer.*</b>		<b>0 = Not understood, silence, Spanish, nonsense, noun-naming.</b>	
	a) Mira este dibujo. ¿Me puedes decir en inglés qué está pasado aquí? (picture 1)		a) Mira este dibujo. ¿Me puedes decir en inglés qué está pasado aquí? (picture 2)
	b) Empieza otra vez aquí y cuéntame en inglés toda esta historieta: 1, 2 y 3. (Story 1)		b) Empieza otra vez aquí y cuéntame en inglés toda esta historieta: 1, 2 y 3. (Story 2)

\*At least one action verb required in question 3a to continue to 3b.



Story 1. Bilbrough 2014.





Story 2. Bilbrough 2014.

**8.2.1. Speaking pre-test extra.**

Dime una frase utilizando estas palabras:

(Teacher enounces each verb in turn. Ask “when?” if no time adverb given in answer.)

Give example. “MADE. Yesterday I MADE a chocolate cake in the kitchen.”

1, WENT

2, SAW

3, WATCHED

4, WROTE

5, HAD

6, STUDIED

7, ATE

8, WAS

9, LEARNT

10, RAN

Annexe 9. Listening, reading and writing post-test.

A9.1. Post-test listening part 1.

Flyers Listening

**Part 1**  
- 5 questions -

Listen and draw lines. There is one example.


Sarah                      William                      Paul                      Emma

Vicky                      Michael                      Richard

A9.2. Post-test listening part 2.

Part 2  
- 5 questions -

Listen and write. There is one example.



Redbridge Police Station

**Name:** ..... ELISSA ..... Jones

1 **Has lost a:** .....

2 **Where lost:** In the.....

3 **Things inside:** ..... books

4 **Colour:** .....

5 **Name inside:** ..... Jones

## A9.3. Post-test reading comprehension.

## Part 1

– 10 questions –

**Look and read. Choose the correct words and write them on the lines. There is one example.**

	a hospital	a bank
	<p>You can go to this place if you want to watch a film. <span style="float: right;">a cinema .....</span></p> <p>1 You can go to this shop to buy medicine and other things. <span style="float: right;">.....</span></p> <p>2 This is a place you go to if you want to catch a plane. <span style="float: right;">.....</span></p> <p>3 If you want to be one of these, you need to be very good at drawing or painting. <span style="float: right;">.....</span></p> <p>4 You usually see this inside a big tent. You might see horses, lions and elephants here. <span style="float: right;">.....</span></p> <p>5 This is someone who works in the theatre, in films or on TV. <span style="float: right;">.....</span></p> <p>6 People laugh when they see this person with his round, red nose, big feet and strange clothes. <span style="float: right;">.....</span></p> <p>7 An ambulance might take you here if you are very ill. <span style="float: right;">.....</span></p> <p>8 You go to this place if you want to get money or talk to someone about your money. <span style="float: right;">.....</span></p> <p>9 This person makes you better when you have a toothache. <span style="float: right;">.....</span></p> <p>10 This person writes in a newspaper about things that have happened. <span style="float: right;">.....</span></p>	
a library		an airport
a chemist's		an artist
a secretary		a dentist
a clown		a cinema
a mechanic	a circus	a café
		a journalist

**A9.4. Post-test Discrete item grammar.**

Grammar. (Choose one answer and write it in the spaces.)

**Example:** Dave saw a plane flying in the sky.

seed / see / saw / sawed

1) Yesterday, John and Mary \_\_\_\_\_ watch television.

don't / didn't / wasn't / weren't

2) Usually my mother \_\_\_\_\_ cook on Sundays.

don't / wasn't / weren't / doesn't

3) In this picture, the man is \_\_\_\_\_ to a policeman

talked / talk / talks / talking

4) There \_\_\_\_\_ a beautiful girl at the party yesterday evening.

was / were / is / are

5) There \_\_\_\_\_ any apples in the bag.

aren't / isn't / is / are

6) We \_\_\_\_\_ waiting for a bus.

was / is / were / didn't

7) Mr Jones \_\_\_\_\_ to the town centre every Saturday.

go / goed / goes / don't go

8) Why \_\_\_\_\_ you take my school bag yesterday?

do / does / are / did

9) \_\_\_\_\_ Jimmy study a lot?

does / do / is / isn't

10) He \_\_\_\_\_ eating his lunch when I arrived.

is / are / were / was

Bilbrough 2014.

**A9.5. Post-test written composition.**

**Write the story**

Look at the comic below. Write this story in about 60 words.



Flyers CUP 2013.

### **A9.6. Writing, reading and listening test – instructions to invigilators.**

**Note:** This exam can be done in 45 minutes but you will need to start on time and have the first mp3 file ready and sound already tested so there are no delays.

Give out all exams packs. The pages are in order. You will start with the listening tests.

**PLEASE ENSURE THERE IS NO COPYING.**

Ask students to write their **FULL name** at the top of the first exam sheet.

**Tell students in Spanish:** “You should use pencils. If you make a mistake, you should rub it out or cross it out clearly.”

#### **1) Listening Part 1** (Duration 4 minutes)

- **First page** on the exam pack.

- **Tell students in Spanish:** “You are now going to do a listening test. You will hear this listening exercise twice. You should draw lines only. Listen to the example.”

- Open mp3 “**listening-part\_1**” from pen-drive. (There is no need to explain anything else. The example question is explained in the recording. Play the COMPLETE mp3 only ONCE. (The listening is repeated twice on this recording.)

#### **2) Listening Part 2** (Duration 3 minutes and 10 seconds)

- Students turn to the second page of the exam pack.

- **Tell students in Spanish:** “You are now going to do another listening test. You will hear this listening exercise twice. Write one or more words in the spaces.”

- Open mp3 “**listening-part\_2**” from pen-drive. Tell students: (There is no need to explain anything else. The example question is explained in the recording. Play the COMPLETE mp3 only ONCE. (The listening is repeated twice on this recording.)

The rest of the exam is reading and writing but you will **go through the instructions of each page before they begin.**

#### **3) Reading and writing Part 1** (10 questions)

- Students turn to the third page of the exam pack.

- **Tell students in Spanish:** “Choose the correct words and write ONE word on each line.”

#### **4) Grammar** (10 questions)

- **Tell students in Spanish:** “Now turn to the next page. Look at the example. Write one word from the list of four words in the space for each question.”

#### **5) Story writing.**

- **Tell students in Spanish:** “Look at the next page. It is a comic. Here you must write a story about the five pictures. Write about 60 words. Write the story under the comic.

Please do not help students with any questions they have about the exam answers. Help on how to do the exam (after you have explained everything) should be kept to a minimum. **PLEASE CHECK FULL NAMES ARE ON FIRST SHEET WHEN YOU COLLECT IN THE EXAMS.** (Please separate my “quinto” students from the others.)



## Annexe 10. Post-test speaking.

### A10.1. Part 1. Telling a story from the comic strip.



Flyers CUP 2013.

### A10.2. Part 2. Transcript of recording and picture story-guide of pre-listening prompt.

Policeman Plod felt very happy. The weather was better than yesterday. The sun was warmer and the sky was bluer. Policeman Plod was walking along the street smiling. Suddenly, he saw an old man and woman coming towards him. Policeman Plod saw they had a penguin with them. 'Excuse me', they said. 'We found this penguin in the street. What can we do?' The policeman answered, 'You must take it to the zoo'. The old man and woman said, 'Good idea'. The next day Policeman Plod was walking along the street again when he saw the same old man and woman with the same penguin. He said, 'Why didn't you take that penguin to the zoo?' The old man answered. 'We did. And he enjoyed it very much so now we're taking him to the park and this evening we're going to take him to the cinema.'

(After listening, test-takers told the story using the same picture prompt.)



Compilation from Internet images. Bilbrough 2014.

## **Annexe 11. Examples of story materials used for gesturing.**

### **A11.1. Lessons 1 and 2 of experimental course.**

The initial list of words comprises the presentation phase. The TR uttered and gestured these words while referring to the illustration on the screen at the front of the class. The students gestured and uttered each word with the TR. Then the Silent Sign phase follows. The TR gestures in silence while the students gesture and “tell the story” in chorus.

Part 1 (presentation phase).

hello and welcome. my name is Michael.

look, listen, gesture and repeat.

house (see picture), man, window, plant, table, (small table, big table) teapot, cup, cat, television, picture, head, cupboard, bottle, sitting-room, ship.

look! this is a man, this is Arthur, Arthur pinkerton.

this is Arthur’s cat.

this is Arthur’s television.

this is Arthur’s table.

this is Arthur’s head.

look, listen, gesture and repeat.

on - the television in on the table (repeat).

in – the bottle is in the cupboard (repeat).

next to – the cup is next to the teapot (repeat).

under – the cat is under the table (repeat).

above – the picture is above Arthur’s head (repeat).

(Silent Sign phase.)

Look! This is a house. Look! This is a sitting-room. In the sitting-room there is a man. His name is Arthur Pinkerton. Arthur is at home. At “house” – no – at home. Arthur is at home. Arthur is in the sitting-room. This is a window. Here, there are two plants. This is a table. Here, there is a teapot on the table and next to the teapot there is a cup. Arthur Pinkerton has got a cat. It is Arthur’s cat. It is under the table watching television. The television is on the left of the sitting-room. Over here, there is a television. It is Arthur’s television. It is on a small table. On the left of the window there are two pictures. Over here, there are two pictures. There is another picture above Arthur's head. It is a picture of a ship.

Part 2 (presentation phase).

dresser; cupboard (a cupboard / two cupboards / three cupboards); bottle; glass; plate (a plate / two plates / three plates / four plates / five plates); three big plates, two small plates; drawer (a drawer, two drawers); this draw is open, this drawer is closed.

look, listen, gesture and repeat.

behind – the dresser is behind Arthur

below or under (below is under then hand moves down and stops and shakes once.)

top – at the top

at the top of the cupboard there are three cupboards.

bottom – at the bottom

at the bottom of the cupboard there are two drawers.

on the right – on the right of the sitting-room there is a dresser.

on the left – on the left of the sitting-room there are two pictures.

look, gesture and speak.

(Silent Sign phase.)

Look! On the right of the sitting-room, over here behind Arthur Pinkerton there is a dresser. At the top of the dresser there are three cupboards. In the cupboard on the left over here, there is a bottle and there is a glass. Below the cupboards there are five plates; three big plates and two small plates. There are two drawers at the bottom of the dresser. The drawer on the right this drawer here is open and the drawer on the left here is closed.



Bilbrough 2014.

**A11.2. Lesson 12. Examples of published story materials used for gesturing.**

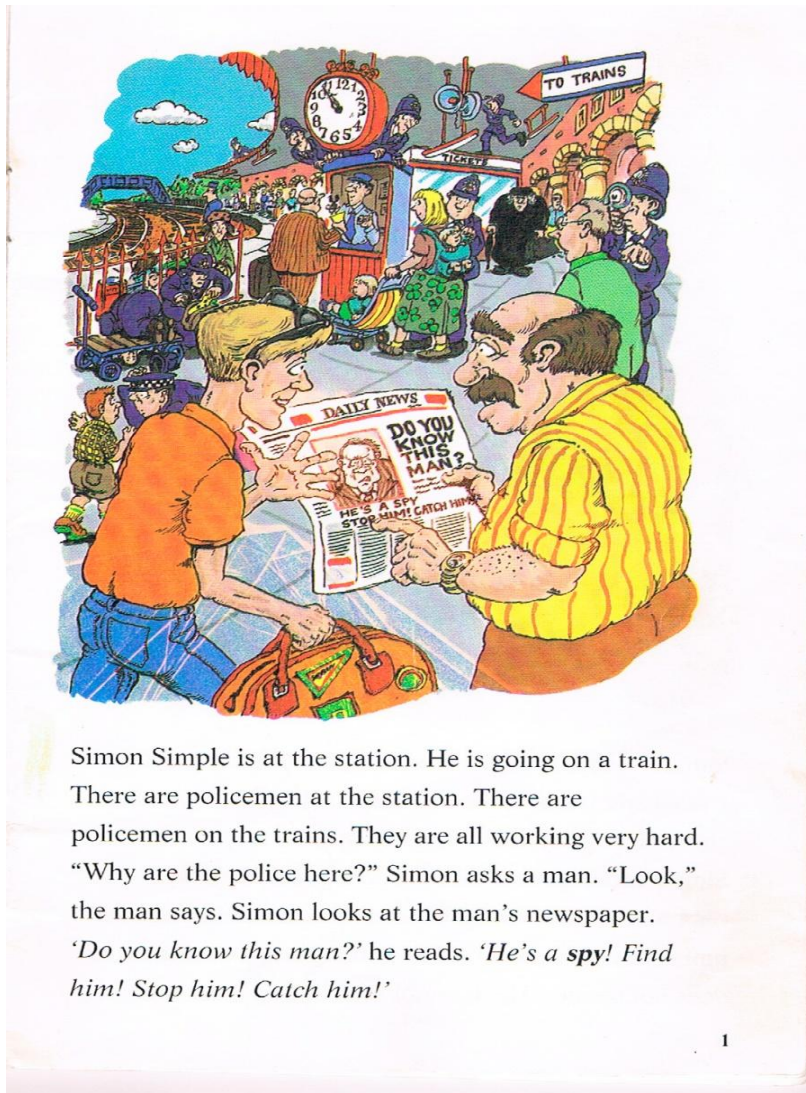
The story here is taken from a graded reader (Laird 1998). The pages of the book were projected on a screen. To complete the whole book required several classes.

Simon and the Spy. Part 1.

(Presentation phase.)

station	work hard	jeans / suits / revise clothes
train	a spy	they can see in pic.
policeman / policemen.	Find / Stop / Catch (students	What's the time now?
work / are working	act out)	umbrella
	student(s)	fast / slow
		bag

(Silent Sign phase.)



Simon Simple is at the station. He is going on a train. There are policemen at the station. There are policemen on the trains. They are all working very hard. "Why are the police here?" Simon asks a man. "Look," the man says. Simon looks at the man's newspaper. 'Do you know this man?' he reads. 'He's a *spy*! Find him! Stop him! Catch him!'

"Simon and the Spy". Page 1. Laird 1998.

**A11.3. Lesson 25. Presentation and Silent Sign phases.**

(Presentation phase.)

holiday

fed up

sky

grey / blue

what's the weather like? (like. i like soup...no..it's different)

cloudy / cold (opp. of hot) / windy / rain / hot / sunny

all the time (he doesn't stop watching tv etc.)

summer (opp. of summer is winter)

love (fred loves spain)

want

leave (some place. tearful farewell.)

stay (in a hotel)

swim

sea

lie

beach

month (7 days are a week and 4 weeks are a month)

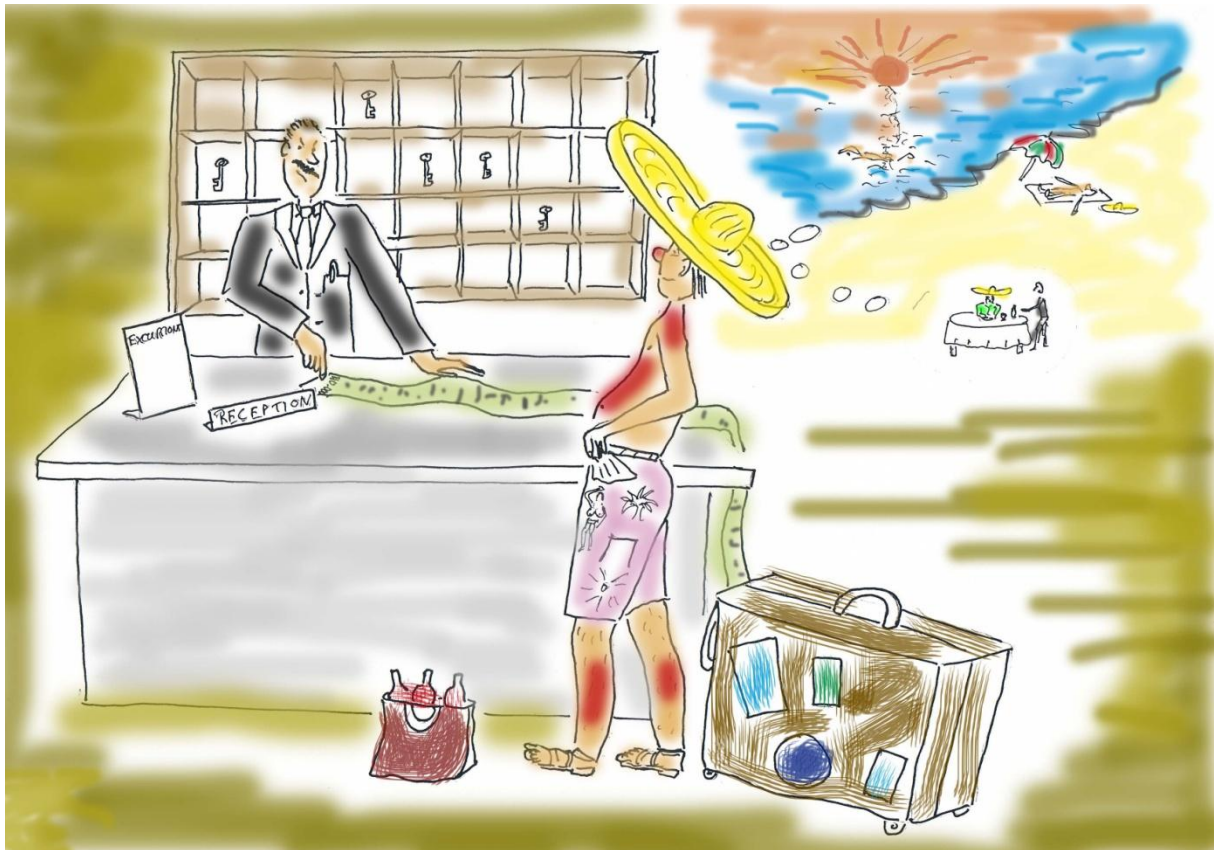
(Silent Sign phase.)

Fred lives in England but now he is on holiday in Spain. He's fed up with England because the sky is always grey and cloudy and it's cold and windy and it rains all the time. It doesn't rain in Spain in summer. It's hot and sunny and the sky is always blue. Fred loves Spain and he doesn't want to leave. He wants to stay in Spain. He wants to swim in the warm sea and lie on the beach every day. In the evening he wants to go out to expensive restaurants. He stays one month in a hotel. Then the day comes to leave. Fred goes to pay his hotel bill but he hasn't got any money. The hotel manager is very angry and he says, 'Pay your bill or you don't leave here.' Fred thinks and then says: 'All right, what is the weather like here in winter?'

## A gesture-based approach to teaching English as a Second Language

These comprehension questions on the story above were also given through Silent Sign. The students, in effect, asked themselves the questions and then answered them.

- 1, Why is Fred in Spain. Because he is on holiday.
- 2, What's the weather like in England? The sky is always grey and cloudy and it's cold and windy and it rains all the time.
- 3, What's the weather like in Spain in summer? It's hot and sunny and the sky is always blue.
- 4, What does Fred want to do every day? He wants to swim in the warm sea and lie on the beach.
- 5, What does Fred want to do in the evenings? He wants to go out to expensive restaurants.
- 6, Why can't Fred pay his hotel bill? Because he hasn't got any money.
- 7, Does Fred want to stay in Spain? Yes, he does.



Bilbrough 2014.

#### A11.4. Quick jokes for Silent Sign.

Several short jokes such as the following example appeared to help students focus better on the material owing to the more varied and changing input. Words shown in red were presented before the Silent Sign phase.

One day, Dad was in the **kitchen cooking** the lunch and little Johnny was in the sitting-room **trying** to do his homework. But he was **feeling sleepy**. **Suddenly**, Johnny **heard** a noise outside in the garden. He **decided** to look. So, he stood up and looked out the window. **He couldn't believe his eyes!** He thought he was **dreaming!**

He saw his mother fighting a very big green monster. The monster was very ugly, with long hair, long, sharp teeth and horrible red eyes. Johnny ran to his Dad in the kitchen.

“Dad, Dad”, he shouted. “A monster is fighting Mum in the garden!”

“Don't worry!” said Johnny's Dad. After lunch we'll take the monster to hospital.

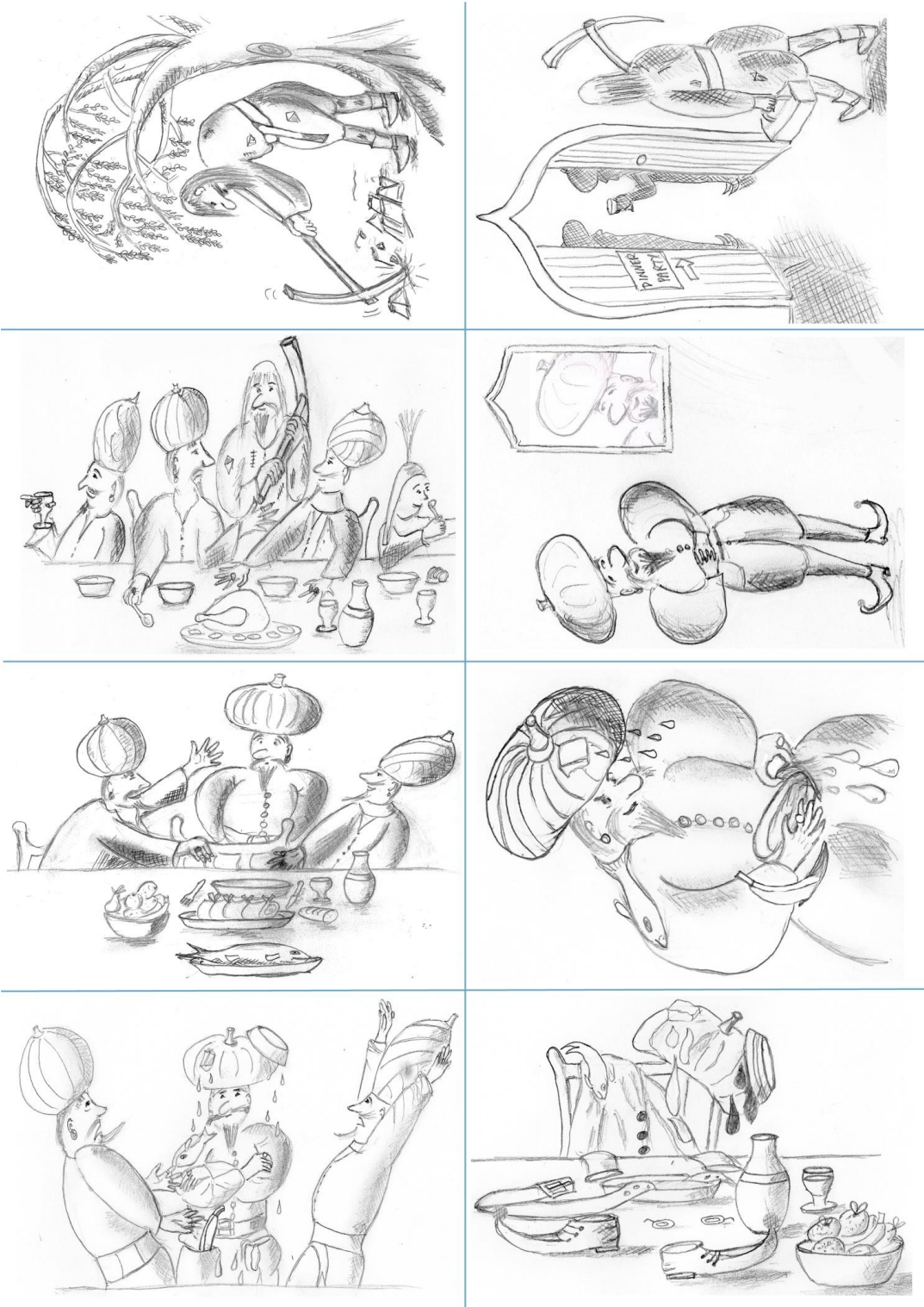


Mike

Image for projection to students. Bilbrough 2014.

**A11.5. Picture story prompts for fluency production tasks post Silent Sign.**

This was a TR produced work of a Nasreddin story originally commissioned by the British Council for the Hands Up project and used in this experimental course (Bilbrough, 2015 Internet sources, Nasreddin “The Dinner party”). Learners worked in pairs or groups, re-ordered the pictures and told the story to each other orally.



“The dinner party” Bilbrough 2015.



### A11.6. Lesson 40. Post Silent Sign stories for retelling with written prompts.

These were three short story jokes the students learnt through Silent Sign in one class. At the production stage, the three images were projected on the screen with the written prompts. The students then retold the stories to each other in pairs.



Johnny monster / Mummy / don't like... / don't worry... / leave it / vegetables



Mother to another / son / how lucky! / sweets? / no / watch TV? / no / late? / never / 3 months old



Patient / doctor / must help / I shout / doctor: sit down, tell me / shouted / telling you / idiot

Pictures and prompts for reproduction. *Chistes Fantásticos* (2014).

**A11.7. Lesson 45. Silent Sign videoed session.**

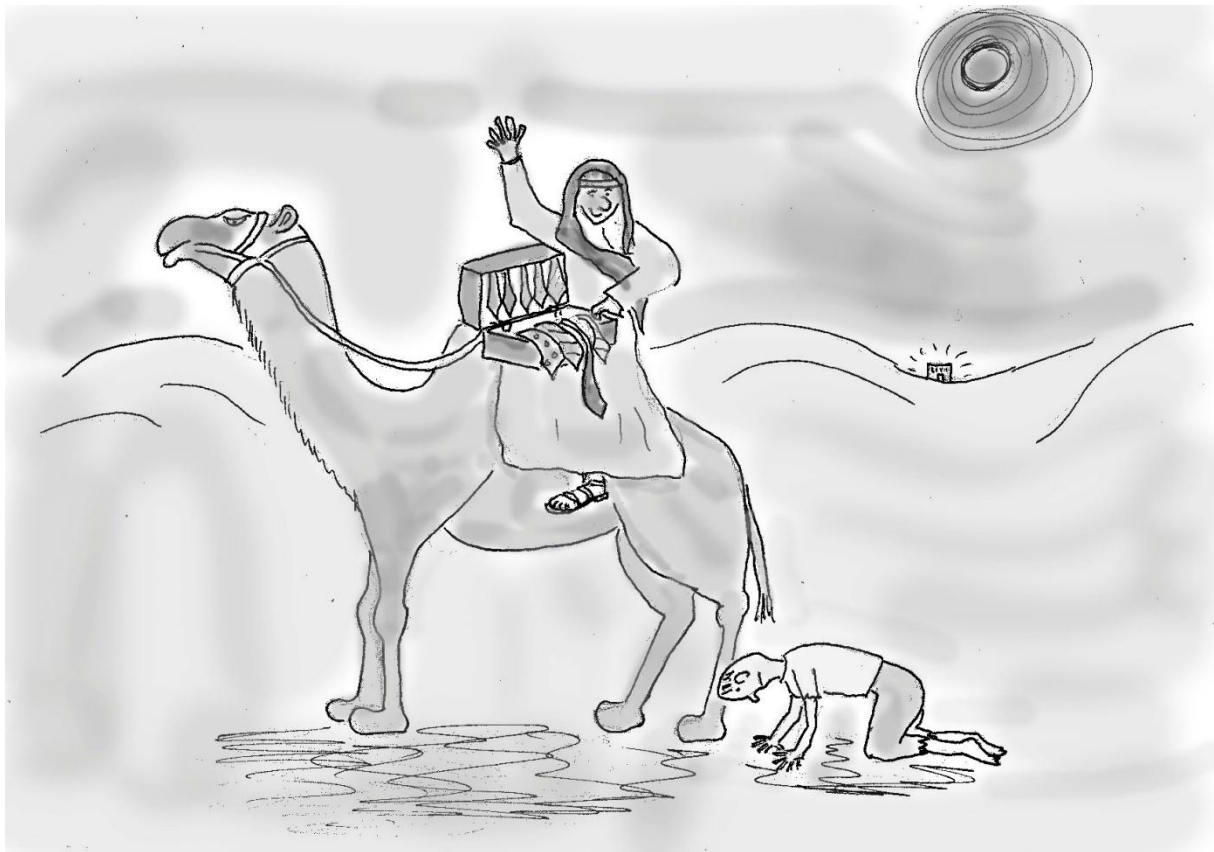
For video recording of students gesturing this story during Silent Sign, see attached CD.

Montague Pilkinson's plane crashed in the desert. He didn't have any food or water. He was hungry and thirsty. His leg hurt and he was a long way from a city or town. Then, suddenly, he saw a man. He was riding on a camel and carrying a suitcase. Montague Pilkinson waved to him. He said, "Please, give me water, water!"

The man said, "Good afternoon. Do you want to buy a tie?"

He opened a suitcase with lots of ties. "I've got red ties, blue ties, (TR elicited more colours and designs) long ties, short ties. Which one do you want?"

Montague Pilkinson was angry, "Give me water! I don't want a tie you stupid man. I'm dying". The man went away. But later, suddenly, in the desert Montague saw a beautiful white hotel. "Oh, Thank you, God. Thank you!" he shouted. Montague arrived at the door of the hotel but the doorman stopped him. "Sorry, sir" said the doorman, "but you can't come in here without a tie!"



"Montague Pilkinson in the desert." Picture for projection. Bilbrough 2014.

**Annexe 12. Student diploma for course completion.**

The reverse side of the diplomas handed out to all participants of the GW course included a rationale of the scoring system used. The TR wanted to convey the language competency stage the students had reached rather than a one to ten assessment of exam results.



Learning language through gestures.

**Diploma Curso de Inglés**  
**(Gestureway)**

**Gestureway.com en un curso de inglés  
enseñado por gestos manuales**

Expide el presente DIPLOMA a:

**DOÑA ALUMNA**

Por haber superado con fecha 30 de octubre de 2015 la evaluación de los conocimientos de inglés adquiridos durante el curso de inglés oral (de 55 horas) con la calificación de:

**A2,5**

(Ver dorso para explicación de la nota recibida)

Carmona, a 1 de marzo de 2016



Fdo: Michael Bilbrough (profesor del curso)

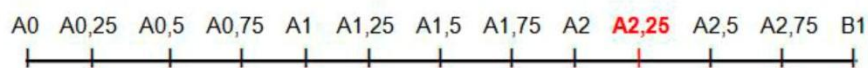


Learning language through gestures.

### Explicación de la evaluación de la nota.

Si GestureWay ofrece el idioma extranjero al alumno de manera global – frases completas y sin destacar una estructura gramatical más que otra, no sería justo, pedir que el alumno sepa reproducir en un examen en un momento dado una serie concreta de estructuras o una lista específica de vocabulario.

Cada alumno aprende a su ritmo y según sus habilidades cognitivas, poderes de concentración, aptitud, etc. Por este motivo, la evaluación mide, en vez de una nota del 0 al 10, dónde se encuentra cada alumno en una línea de conocimiento del idioma. Esta línea comienza con conocimiento cero y sigue hacia la derecha abarcando más conocimientos de tanto vocabulario como estructuras gramaticales y destrezas comunicativas. Para mis alumnos de quinto de primaria (2014 a 2015) la nota se leerá así:



En este ejemplo, este alumno ha alcanzado conocimientos de A2,25 en una línea donde A0 es igual a cero nivel y B1 es igual a un nivel “intermedio” (Examen Cambridge PET superado). Con este sistema no hay ni aprobados ni suspensos. Se trata de un sistema de evaluación que más asemeja a la realidad de la adquisición verdadera del idioma para cada niño.

Para ver videos y fotos de los alumnos durante el curso, ver páginas de: <http://www.gestureway.com>