

TEACHING READING STRATEGIES FROM THE COURSE TEXT-BOOK

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After observing many classes the authors of this paper became convinced that the reading skill is not being taught at all in the average classroom. When the teacher arrives at the reading text in the book, the normal procedure seems to be to go through it lockstep, with the teacher explaining or translating new lexis, after which the inevitable detailed questions at the end are asked and answered.

It seems to us that this procedure has very little to do with "reading", and is also time-consuming and basically, boring, owing both to the low interest value of texts in the average course-book, and also to the low level of challenge of the activity itself. We therefore decided it would be appropriate to suggest a series of activities which could be used to teach useful reading strategies, and would also be more challenging to the students. At the same time, bearing in mind the actual teaching situation in many Secundarias and Preparatorias, these activities would not involve any expensive equipment or time-consuming marking by the teacher: all that is needed is chalk, the blackboard and the prescribed text-book.

Before looking in detail at these reading exercises or activities we would like to say why we think the reading skill is important to Mexican students, and also to set out in some detail what the reading skill, or rather, the reading micro-skills are. Teachers who do not wish to read through this theoretical section should proceed directly to Part II.

Firstly, it is clear that many of the students are going to need to read in English when they leave Secundaria and Preparatoria. At many universities students, especially in scientific, technological and economics faculties, are expected to read text-books in English. Those universities where there are special programmes to prepare students for this task have generally found that students, even with 5 or 6 years of school English, have no idea how to read in English apart from slow, word by word translation, which frequently prevents the student from understanding the meaning of what he is reading.

Those students who do not go to university, but have their careers in commerce or tourism, frequently need to be able to read in English, for

example letters, brochures or technical manuals. Here the reading skill is part of the professional competence required.

Finally, many Mexicans travel to the United States either for pleasure or work, and it is vital for them to be able to read and understand timetables, brochures, newspaper ads, official forms, etc.

PART I - READING AS ONE OF THE FOUR SKILLS

The theory expounded in the 50's and 60's that

NOTHING SHOULD BE SPOKEN BEFORE IT HAS BEEN HEARD;
NOTHING SHOULD BE READ BEFORE IT HAS BEEN SPOKEN;
NOTHING SHOULD BE WRITTEN BEFORE IT HAS BEEN READ

led to the ordering of the four skills as follows:

LISTENING
SPEAKING
READING
WRITING

However, this theory makes no allowance for the recognised fact that students possess an innate capacity to understand more than they can produce, nor does it help to develop or exploit this capacity.

At the initial stages of a general language course (i.e. a course not specifically designed for or aimed at developing one skill only, to the exclusion or minimisation of all others), competence in reading is developed and used almost exclusively in conjunction with the production of language in the spoken form. It is, in fact, very largely a matter of transferring an already acquired skill (i.e. speaking) to a different mode of performance (i.e. reading). However, communicative acts in the written language are not exact counterparts of those of the spoken language, and should be dealt with differently.

Now, although it is true that at the elementary stage of a structurally based course, the student must necessarily spend much of his time acquiring these structures systematically and incorporating them into his overall repertoire of language, he should not be prevented from being exposed to longer instances of fairly uncontrolled language, language which is not always familiar to him. He should, in fact, be taught to grasp the important points in a passage, reject those which are irrelevant and make intelligent guesses at words or expressions he does not understand. With the exception of pre-primary children, most students come armed with a set of learning strategies in L_1 which should be exploited in the L_2 .

Unfortunately, students often fail to make this transfer of skills from the mother tongue to the foreign language. The reason for this may be found in previous language learning experience, where reading was 'taught' through translation and/or word analysis of the text.

A second belief to be questioned is the 'passivity' or 'receptiveness' of the reading skill. Can it be said to be any more passive or receptive than repeating an utterance after the teacher or copying a sentence from the blackboard? Yet both speaking and writing have always been thought of as the 'active' or 'productive' skills. How passive, then, is reading?

The very term 'reading' is ambiguous. It may refer either to the recognition and significance of individual words strung together as linguistic elements, or to the value these linguistic elements acquire in communication. It is in giving a passage its full communicative value that the student is actively involved in a series of complex activities: selecting information, constructing hypotheses, altering his point of view in the face of new data.

To speak of 'a reading skill' is a gross oversimplification. Let us consider the nature of the reading skill. Reading is a complex mechanical, intellectual, cultural process involving a large number of micro-skills which, broadly speaking, can be broken down into:

- A) LINGUISTIC SKILLS, involving the mechanical or perceptual processes of DECODING, that is, the breaking down of language into its phonological, grammatical, lexical and syntactic elements, and
- B) COMMUNICATIVE ABILITIES or ENCODING, that is, the ability to interpret discourse - the association of linguistic elements with each other, how they inter-relate, and what communicative acts or functions these linguistic elements are being used to convey.¹

These two components may be further subdivided as follows:

A) LINGUISTIC SKILLS

i) At the graphological level, in terms of

- 1) - recognition of stylised shapes, or the black marks on paper.
- 2) - recognition of the breaks between individual words, sentences, paragraphs, chapters.

¹

The terms LINGUISTIC SKILLS and COMMUNICATIVE ABILITIES are those used by H.G. Widdowson in his book Teaching Language as Communication, O.U.P., 1978.

- 3) - recognition of the conventions of printing (e.g. capitals, italics, underlining; the use of graphs, diagrams, tables).
- 4) - recognition of the conventions of punctuation.
- ii) At the phonological level, the association of orthographic forms with the sounds of the language. (A factor which tends to become less important with a more experienced reader).

Orthographic form	sound
Factor	
eFFect	/ɛ/
PHotograph	
enough	

- iii) At the grammatical level in terms of

- 1) - Recognition of structures
The difference between:
- He's watching television.
 - He's reading a novel by Tolstoy at the moment.
 - He's flying to New York on Saturday.
 - He's always having trouble with the car.
- or
- John worked all morning.
 - John's worked all morning.
- 2) - Word order
- 'It's a pen.'
as opposed to
'Is it a pen?'
 - 'He speaks English better than I do.'
as opposed to
'He speaks better English than I do.'
 - 'Even John types his own letters on Saturday mornings.'
as opposed to
'John even types his own letters on Saturday mornings.'
or
'John types his own letters even on Saturday mornings.'
- 3) - Identification and location of cohesive elements both at sub-sentential and supra-sentential levels. In other words, the recognition of cohesive elements both within the sentence and between sentences, paragraphs, etc.
- Reference: He / She / They / His / Their / etc.
This / That / These / Those.
 - Substitution: One / Ones. (Give me the pink one).
Do. (John likes playing tennis and Mary does, too).
So / not. (I expect so. I hope not).

- c) Ellipsis or the omission of words or phrases in a sentence: Ten people came the first day, eight the second.
- d) Sentence linkers: and / but / so / or / etc.
First / Second / Then / Finally / etc.

Students often misinterpret a given piece of language through failure to understand the value of such connecting devices.

- 4) - At the lexical level, recognition of words in context. 'He's wearing a light suit.' 'Light' in this sentence meaning either 'not heavy/thick' or 'not dark/light in colour', according to the context in which it is set.

B) COMMUNICATIVE ABILITIES

- 1) - Correlation of formal linguistic elements with meaning.
'I can't go, I'm afraid.'
The ambiguity of the statement in its written form is obvious. Choice of meaning ('I can't go because I'm frightened' or 'I'm sorry, but I can't go') will depend entirely on the surrounding language.)
- 2) - Ability to read for implication and logical deduction.
- 3) - The relationship existing between the reader's own experience and the text or passage being read.
- 4) - Recognition of humour, sarcasm, emotional attitudes.
- 5) - Response to literary styles.
- 6) - Response to the writer's attitude to a) his subject.
b) his readers.

In other words, is the writer merely setting down a number of facts objectively or is he putting forward a hypothesis for our consideration? Does the writer sympathise with his subject or is he being sarcastic? Should we question the writer's motives for saying what he does, the way he does, or should we simply accept what is written at face value?

Traditionally, the focus of reading has been on the linguistic or decoding skills, rather than on the communicative or encoding abilities, and it has been assumed that the acquisition of these linguistic skills would automatically guarantee the setting in motion of the intellectual processes needed for the interpretation of a text. On the contrary, over-emphasis on the mechanical, rather fragmented, aspects of the linguistic skills of reading, tends to inhibit the development of the intellectual communicative abilities.

How often have we heard our students say, 'I understand all the words but I don't know what it means'? Communicative abilities, that is the interpreting of a text, presuppose an understanding of the linguistic

skills, although the linguistic skills themselves do not include communicative abilities. In other words, the fact that the learner can understand the individual structures and lexis of a given piece of language, does not mean he can grasp the general point being made by the writer, although he can be trained to pick out the important points in a passage without necessarily understanding the mechanics of the language itself.

Having briefly discussed the role of reading as one of the four skills and the nature of the reading skill itself, we should now consider the various interpretations of the term 'reading'.

It may be used to mean 'reading aloud'. However, the complexity of this skill is considerable and often ignored; efficient, meaningful reading aloud requires a complete understanding of what is to be read before the production of the right noises can be made. Students may well learn to 'read aloud' and yet not understand the meaning of what they are reading. It is primarily an oral skill which does not necessarily further reading comprehension. Besides, it is of minor importance in every-day life; Nevertheless, as a teaching tool of pronunciation and for the identification of the written form with the spoken form of the language, it certainly has a place in the classroom, and may be considered a valid activity. For the purposes of this paper, however, the teaching of 'reading aloud' is considered irrelevant and will not be dealt with any further.

Reading may also mean 'silent reading' and this is what the authors are most concerned with.

'Silent reading' varies considerably according to the use to which the skill is being put.

This can be either extensive or intensive.

- a) Extensive reading is aimed primarily at developing fluency through a process of assimilation and discrimination and can be broken down as follows:
 - i) Survey reading or glancing at material to be read in order to get a general idea of the content or subject matter.
 - ii) Skimming, or looking for the important items in a mass of information.
 - iii) Superficial reading, or reading for pleasure.

The object in extensive reading is to cover the greatest possible amount of text in the shortest possible time, picking out the main points and relevant information and discarding or ignoring that which is not important.

- b) Intensive reading is aimed at obtaining the fullest possible response to a passage both from the point of view of detailed

information and linguistic study. The objective is to achieve comprehension of the logical argument in the text, its emotional and social attitudes and of the linguistic elements employed to achieve these ends.

In the past, comprehension exercises have been designed either to encourage detailed reading only or to test, not teach the appropriate skills. The difference between testing and teaching lies not so much in the difference in materials, but in the way these materials are handled.

'Good' questions or tasks involve students in a careful process of discrimination, in which both the text and the questions or task set need to be systematically analysed before arriving at some conclusion. Thus each question poses a problem in which the student is actively involved. The level of difficulty of a passage lies in the relationship between the passage itself and the degree of difficulty of the task to be performed.

PART II - READING STRATEGIES

Let us now look at some of the activities and exercises which can be used to teach both extensive and intensive reading strategies. Examples of most of these techniques are given in the appendix to this paper. References in brackets in the appendix refer to the numbering of activities in the list below.

Obviously we are not suggesting that the teacher use all of these techniques with every text; that would drive the students mad with boredom. We would suggest the teacher use one or two EXTENSIVE reading techniques first; then perhaps use one of the INTENSIVE reading techniques, like working on connectors or guessing vocabulary, and finally, deal with the detailed questions on the text found at the end of the reading passage in most books.

We suggest that the students should know the main grammatical structures, e.g. simple past affirmative, that appear in the text, and any vocabulary vital to the understanding of the text. However, the teacher should deliberately not teach all of the new vocabulary before the students read the text. This provides a far more realistic real-life situation for reading in another language.

Initially the teacher should give the students only seven or eight minutes to read the text, and do the extensive reading exercise (after the student gets used to rapid reading, the time for the average course-book text can be reduced to four or five minutes only). Students must be convinced that they can read a text rapidly and understand the main points without knowing all the words. Therefore, extensive reading questions

should try to deal with only the general idea or main points, though this is not always easy. They should also be fairly straightforward, the main idea is not to trick students but to show them that they can understand a passage.

As with all classroom innovations the teacher should be prepared to explain to the students what he is doing and why. If students feel that the activity is designed to help them, they will respond. Moreover, the new techniques should be introduced one by one, gradually, over the year. If at first the students find a technique hard, do not despair. The second or third time they will find it easier to handle.

Finally, we would say that if you feel happier asking the questions in Spanish, especially the pre-questions or vocabulary questions, that is perfectly all right. The idea is to teach them to read in English, the questions are to a certain extent testing what they have managed to understand, so if it is easier to question your students in Spanish, use Spanish. Very often students understand the passage, but do not understand the questions or task set. However, it is possible to write many questions in simple English and we think doing it this way will give you and your students greater satisfaction.

1. EXTENSIVE READING TECHNIQUES. To teach the student to scan quickly through a text, picking out main or relevant information and points.

A. Attention Focussing

In real life when we read an article or notice we have a fairly clear idea of the nature of the subject and the information that we need to extract. Thus we read through rapidly until we find the information we need. To teach our students to acquire this useful ability we can use:

- i) Pre-questions, i.e. three or four questions about important points in the text which we write on the board before the students read the text for the first time. At the end of the first quick reading the students answer the questions. (See the example with text C in appendix).
- ii) As an alternative to the above the teacher can, when appropriate, set a map or chart to be completed with information gleaned from the text. Here it often helps if the teacher fills in part of the map or chart to show the students what is required. (See passage B in the appendix). Such a map or chart could serve equally well as a summary writing technique. (See 2.E.ii below).

B. Reading for Gist

As we have said before, it is vital to teach our students to read quickly through a text and at the same time pick out the main points. Until a student can do this, reading in English will be a slow, laborious and painful task.

- i) True/False statements.
This is perhaps the simplest of all the techniques. After the students have read the passage, the teacher says or writes on the board a few statements about the main points in the text. All the student has to do is to answer true or false; a quick easy check on their understanding. The teacher may ask the students to quote part of the text to support their choice. (See Passages A and C in appendix).
- ii) Auxiliary Questions
Another simple technique, where the teacher asks a few questions after the students have read the text. The student simply needs to say YES or NO. This tests general understanding of the text, without the need for complex production. (See Passage B in appendix).
- iii) Multiple Choice
This technique is often used for testing reading. It also requires more work and preparation by the teacher to ensure that the distractors (wrong answers) are possible but not confusing. However, it is a good method for checking reading and can also be turned into a group answer, which can mean their studying the text in some detail, and explaining why they chose a particular alternative. (See Passage A in appendix).
- iv) Matching Questions and Answers
This is a technique which has the advantage both of checking their reading, and also, if done in English rather than Spanish, their command of already learnt structures. The teacher writes a few questions about the text, and then lists a number of answers in random order; it is a good idea to have more answers than questions as it makes the task one of higher challenge and more fun. The student has to match question and correct answer. Like all problem-solving games the students enjoy this activity (See Passage B in appendix).

C. Reading for inference

This once again is a vital skill for our students to possess. They must, when reading in English, be able to pick up emotional currents in the text which are not directly stated, or they will often misread, for

example, an ironic or a persuading propaganda text at its face value. Although it is not easy to find texts at the basic level which contain complexities of this kind, one can do a certain amount of preparatory work.

- i) The teacher can ask questions about the emotional attitudes of the people in the text. Here, of course, Spanish can be used at first if the students do not know words like "worried"/"angry".
Is Mrs Brown worried or angry?
Does Mary Brown like classical music?
(See Passage C in appendix).
- ii) Where appropriate the teacher can also ask questions about the author's attitude to his subject.
Does the author think Hitler was a great man?
(See Passage C in appendix).

2. INTENSIVE READING TECHNIQUES. These techniques are designed to make the student look in detail at the text from the point of view either of extracting detailed information or studying linguistic factors.

A. Reading for detail

Since this is the one reading technique practised by most course-books we do not feel we need to look at this in detail. Most course-books at the end of the passage have a list of "Wh" questions requiring information, often on minute points, from the text. This is a perfectly legitimate exercise as long as it is not the only technique practised. We would suggest that the asking and answering of these questions should be done as a group or homework activity rather than the 'teacher reading the questions, and the student answering' procedure followed in many classrooms. (See Passage B in appendix).

B. Guessing new vocabulary

As we have suggested, this is a necessary real-life skill if students are ever to escape from the slow dictionary technique of reading. To encourage the development of this skill teachers should leave some new words to be taught through the text, and should never explain or translate new vocabulary if students can guess its general or exact meaning from the context or form of the word.

- i) Multiple choice questions: On the whole these should be designed to show the student that the possible meaning of a word is determined by the context in which it is found. Therefore it is frequently better if your alternatives reflect the general area of meaning of a word rather than a precise synonym. Once again the teacher can ask the students why they have chosen a particular

alternative, and rejected the others, making them more aware of the logical processes involved. (See Passage A in appendix);

- ii) A simpler alternative choice can be used informally with an either/or question when a student asks the meaning of a word.
 - Is a caterpillar a thing, an animal or a place?
 - Is it probably an insect, a bird or a mammal?
 Only after narrowing the alternatives should the teacher either elicit or give the precise meaning or translation.

- iii) Cognates: Students should be encouraged to look for cognates in the text. No teacher should ever try to explain 'architect' or 'important'. Tell students to look at the word and they will see what it means; you will be teaching them a valuable new technique. Of course, there are false cognates like "advise" or "sensible" but the teacher should be aware of these and should draw attention to them when they appear in texts. The number of true cognates far exceeds the false.

- iv) Affixes: i.e. prefixes disloyal
 suffixes loyalty
 Students frequently ask the meaning of words like 'unhappy', 'impatient', 'friendship'. Once again the teacher should not immediately explain, but should ask them which part of the word they recognise, e.g. happy, and then ask them what 'un' usually means. The teacher can make the students aware of the usual meaning of prefixes like 'in-', 'im-', 'un-' or suffixes like '-less', '-ness', etc.

Naturally, there are problem words like 'priceless' or 'infamous' but these can be dealt with as they come up.

C. Referential Skills

Students, when asked, frequently cannot see what words in the text such as 'which', 'he', 'this' refer to, and thus misunderstand the text. This is clearly a necessary skill and one that most teachers neglect to develop.

- i) The students can simply be asked to underline or tell you which word the 'he' or 'it' refers to.
 Mrs. Jones had a word with Mrs. Brown. Then she went into the butcher's.
 Here the 'she' clearly refers to Mrs. Jones, but many students will choose the alternative.

- ii) Students can be asked to fill out a time chart, or put sentences in narrative sequence order to show their understanding of words like 'First', 'Then', 'As soon as', 'After', etc.

The teacher could also use a jumbled paragraph summary of the text to teach this, and also provide the students with an amusing problem-solving activity. (See Passage A in appendix).

- iii) The teacher can also use the text to teach the usage of a new connector. (See Passage A in appendix).

E. Summary Writing

When reading students need to be able to extract the important points from a mass of extra detail, exemplification etc. To ask students to write a summary at the basic level is too high-challenge but the skill can be introduced with the following techniques:

- i) The teacher can write a fill-in the blank exercises. Moreover, this can provide a good check on their understanding of the new words in the text and their usage. (See Passage A in appendix).
- ii) The students in a later class can be asked to re-tell orally the text they have studied. In general most students will only be able to give the main points, thus providing a summary which the teacher may then write on the board.
- iii) The teacher can ask the students to complete a chart or map according to the information in the text. This is similar to A.ii above but would be done after the text, perhaps even in a follow-up class. (See Passage B in appendix).
- iv) The teacher can write a series of questions on the board, which, if answered in full detail, would give the students a summary of the text.

Many of you who read the above list of suggested new activities may feel slightly appalled, and wonder how it is possible to bring all of them into your teaching. We would like to remind you once again that all of these activities should not be used with every text; select two or three of the most appropriate. Secondly, do not try to introduce all of these techniques within a month or two. Spread out their introduction over a year or more, and always be prepared to explain in detail to your students what they are doing, and why. Finally, we would say that if you do use some of these above techniques you will be teaching your students necessary, real-life reading skills, and will also be giving your classes greater variety and interest.

Select Bibliography

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APPENDIX"TEACHING READING STRATEGIES FROM THE COURSE TEXT-BOOK"SAMPLE MATERIAL

PASSAGE A. (from BASIC JUNIOR ACE, Book 2, Brinton, et al).

3 Last Monday at about 10 o'clock in the evening there was a robbery at Higgin's Bank on the corner of Cat Street and Wilson Street. There was a policeman in the street and there was a watchman in the bank. At five to ten the watchman went to the office and phoned his wife. While he was calling her, the thieves climbed in a window up-
stairs and opened the safe. They made a noise and the watchman heard them. When he went into the bank, a big man was taking the money out of the safe and a thin man and a girl were putting it into a bag. The big man saw the watchman and hit him with a gun.

10 At 10 o'clock the policeman heard a noise in a store on the other side of the street. He saw a television in the window. There was a good football game on TV so he watched it. While he was watching the game, the thieves ran out of the bank and got into their car. They took \$5,000,000.

15 When the policeman went back to the corner, the watchman was calling, 'Help! Help!' and the thieves were driving to San Francisco. They were laughing.

READING FOR CIST (1.8.i.)TRUE / FALSE

1. The watchman saw the thieves when they climbed into the bank.
2. There were three thieves in the bank.
3. Last Monday there was a robbery in a TV store.
4. The thieves stole a car.

READING FOR GIST (1.B.iii.)MULTIPLE CHOICE

- Last Monday at about 10 o'clock
 - the street was empty.
 - the bank was empty.
 - some thieves robbed the bank.
- The watchman called his wife.
 - The watchman was at home with his wife.
 - The watchman and his wife were in the bank.
- The watchman phoned his wife
 - after the thieves left.
 - before the thieves arrived.
 - when the thieves arrived.
- The policeman didn't see the thieves because
 - he was watching television.
 - he was talking to the watchman.
 - he was playing football.

"GUESSING" NEW VOCABULARY. (2.B.i.)

- "A watchman", line 3, is a type of
 - thief.
 - policeman.
 - shop assistant.
- "The safe", line 6, is a type of
 - metal box.
 - bag.
 - office.
- "A gun", line 9, is
 - a part of the body.
 - a thing to write with.
 - a pistol.

SENTENCE MATCHING AND RE-WRITING. (2.D.iii.)

Match the following sentences correctly and then re-write them using WHILE

The thieves climbed in the window upstairs.

The watchman went into the bank.

The thieves ran out of the bank.

The policeman went back to the corner.

The big man was taking the money out of the safe.

The policeman was watching television.

The thieves were driving to San Francisco.

The watchman was calling his wife.

JUMBLED SENTENCES. (2.D.ii.)

Re-write the following sentences in the right order.

- One of the thieves saw the watchman and hit him with a gun.
- They escaped in their car with \$5,000,000.
- While the thieves climbed in a window and opened the safe, the night watchman was phoning his wife.
- Last Monday there was a robbery at Higgin's Bank.
- Suddenly he heard a noise and went upstairs.
- Then the thieves ran out of the bank.

RE-WRITING EXERCISE. (2.E.i.)

Last Monday _____, at about 10 o'clock, two _____ and a girl went into _____ and _____ \$5,000,000.

There was _____ in the bank, but he _____ the thieves when they _____ because he _____ his wife. When he _____ a noise, he went to investigate, but one of the thieves _____ and _____ with a gun.

There was a policeman _____, but he didn't see _____, because he _____ a football match in a store window.

PASSAGE B. (from BASIC JUNIOR ACE, Book 2, Brinton, et al).

ATTENTION FOCUSING. (1.A.ii.)

(This exercise could also be used for summary writing, after intensive study of the passage - 2.E.iii.)

WEEK	PLACE STAYED IN	PLACES VISITED
1	Mexico City	
2		
3		Beautiful Buildings
4		

Fred Davison stayed in Mexico for four weeks. He had a lovely time.

In the first week he visited Mexico City with Carol and Javier. They took him to the Zócalo, the Anthropology Museum and Chapultepec Park. The sun was shining when he visited Chapultepec, but it was not hot. He took a lot of photographs and wrote some postcards to his friends in England.

In the second week he went to Yucatán and saw the ruins at Uxmal and Chichén Itzá. It was very hot in Yucatán. After he visited the pyramids, he went to Isla Mujeres and swam in the sea. He saw some dolphins while he was swimming.

In the third week he visited Oaxaca and Acapulco. It was raining in Oaxaca but it was not cold. Fred painted some pictures of the beautiful buildings in Oaxaca. He is a good painter. While he was painting a picture an American tourist came and asked, "How much is the picture?" Fred sold it for 200 pesos!

In the fourth week he was in Mexico City again. He went to some parties with Carol and Javier and visited the Museum of Modern Art. Then last Sunday he visited Carlos' ranch in Hidalgo.

Now he is in England again. He is showing his father and mother some photos and some presents he bought in Mexico.

MARKING QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. (1.B.iv)

- | | |
|--|------------------------|
| 1. How long did Fred Davison stay in Mexico? | a) Twice. |
| 2. Where did he see dolphins? | b) Yes, for 200 pesos. |
| 3. What was the weather like in Oaxaca? | c) It was very hot. |
| 4. Did Fred sell any pictures? | d) In the fourth week. |
| 5. How many times was he in Mexico City? | e) Warm and wet. |
| | f) No, he didn't. |
| | g) One month. |
| | h) In Isla Mujeres. |

READING FOR GIST - YES / NO QUESTIONS. (1.B.ii.)

1. Did Fred have a good time in Mexico?
2. Was the weather good during his holiday?
3. Did he go to any pyramids?
4. Did he paint pictures in Acapulco?
5. Did he visit Mexico City only once?
6. Is he in Mexico now?

READING FOR DETAIL. (2.A.i.)

1. What was the weather like when he went to Chapultepec?
2. When did he go to Isla Mujeres?
3. Where did he see the dolphins?
4. How much money did he get for his painting?
5. When did he visit the Museum of Modern Art in Mexico City?
6. How many archeological ruins did he visit?
7. What did he do on his last Sunday in Mexico?

PASSAGE C. (from 'My Third English Book', Hans, Astivia, Ramírez).

"ATTENTION-FOCUSING" QUESTIONS (1.A.i.)

1. Where did Beethoven spend most of his life?
2. Which other composers worked with Beethoven?
3. What happened to Beethoven when he was older?
4. What are the dates of Beethoven's life?

LUDWIG VAN BEETHOVEN

Ludwig van Beethoven, one of the greatest musicians of all times, was born in Bonn, which is now the capital of West Germany.

He was born in 1770 and lived in Germany until 1782, when he went to Vienna, Austria.

- 5 There he began to work with Mozart, but he had to go back to Germany because his mother was very sick. She died and Beethoven worked very hard to help his sister and brothers.

- 10 One day in 1792, Haydn went to Bonn and Beethoven showed him his music. Haydn thought that it was very good, so he took Beethoven with him and they went to Vienna. There, Beethoven worked with Haydn, who helped him very much.

- 15 People from Vienna thought that Beethoven was an excellent pianist and that he wrote wonderful music. After that, Beethoven lived almost all his life in Vienna. He liked to live alone because he was pessimistic.

When he was older he became deaf. He died in Vienna on March 26th, 1827.

- 20 His music is famous around the world and millions of people have enjoyed it. Some of his most famous works are his nine symphonies, his concertos, his songs and other kinds of music.

He wrote about 260 compositions.

TRUE / FALSE QUESTIONS. (l.B.i.).

1. Beethoven was good to his family.
2. Beethoven worked more with Mozart than Haydn.
3. Beethoven enjoyed being with other people.
4. People in Vienna had a high opinion of Beethoven.
5. Beethoven became blind.
6. He wrote only 9 concertos.
7. His music is only popular in Austria and Germany.

REFERENTIAL SKILLS (2.C.ii).

1. "which" in line 2 refers to
 - A. Beethoven
 - B. Bonn
 - C. times
2. "him" in line 8 refers to
 - A. Mozart.
 - B. Beethoven.
 - C. Haydn.
3. "it" in line 9 refers to
 - A. music.
 - B. Bonn.
 - C. 1972.
4. "After that" in line 13 refers to
 - A. after writing wonderful music
 - B. after working with Haydn.
 - C. after his popularity in Vienna.
5. "There" in line 5 refers to
 - A. Vienna.
 - B. Germany.
 - C. 1782.

INFERENCE. (1.C.i./ii.)

1. Do you think people admired Beethoven during his lifetime? Give words or phrases to support your answer.
2. Do you think Beethoven was a happy man? What evidence is there for your answer?
3. What is the writer's attitude to Beethoven? Give examples to prove your answer.