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Linguistics Foundations for English Speaking

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The present research project " LINGUISTICS FOUNDATIONS FOR ENGLISH SPEAKING" is a book developed by Escuela Superior Politécnica de Chimborazo (ESPOCH) academics. In this context, this work presents in a clear and didactic way the different categories and subcategories of Communicative Linguistic Competence through an exhaustive bibliographic review and the use of examples, which serve as a material for teaching methodology of English, aimed at teachers of the subject and, in this way, to strengthen the communication skills of students in a second language.

GENERAL INDEX

CHAPTER I

1. INTRODUCTION

Language teaching subjugates a predominant place in studies and research today because Language constitutes a fundamental tool to interact in various contexts and situations.

Linguistics, also called the science of Language, is the science that studies articulated human Language from all possible points of view, in general, and in the specific ways it is carried out.

In this context, this work presents in a clear and didactic way the different categories and subcategories of Communicative Linguistic Competence through an exhaustive bibliographic review and the use of examples and practical exercises solved, which serve as a material or input for teaching methodology of English, aimed at teachers of the subject and, in this way, to strengthen the communication skills of students in a second language.

According to (Arnáez Muga, 2006), oral expression is a process that is considered to have two directions since the speaker and the listener are involved in it. There is a certain level of relationship between speaking and listening skills by allowing interaction.

This communicative competence consists of the ability to communicate through articulated sounds. For example, to develop oral expression in English, you need the development of specific indicators such as pronunciation, intonation, and fluency.

In this way, this academic work clearly and specifically illustrates each of the linguistic components necessary to support the teaching work towards obtaining better results in acquiring and producing a second language.

For (Beltrán, 2017), there is a significant difference between learning a new language and acquiring a new language. All language learners begin by learning the Language, but not all acquire it. Therefore, obtaining a second language refers to the

final learning process that allows the student to handle a second language the same way he does with the first.

In the specific case of Ecuador, the ability to handle the English Language by students of all educational levels was almost nil; as of 2014, the Government channeled the learning of foreign languages in a better way, mainly English. Changes were proposed through ministerial agreements; that is why agreement No. 0052-14 entered into force in the 2016-2017 school year in the Sierra regime and during the 2017-2018 period in the Costa regime at the level of Basic Education and Baccalaureate.

The state has also been concerned with higher education. Thus, the Code of Regulation 3 establishes, in article 3 literal b, that academic-training management must strengthen research, academic-professional training, and links with the community. In addition, it includes categorical statutes that require university students to reach an intermediate level (B1) in the study of English to graduate. This necessitates a shift in teaching methods and a higher level of foreign language fluency.

In this sense, this research provides the necessary linguistic bases to facilitate the teaching work and thus achieve adequate oral production in English language students.

Chapter 1 presents the different communicative linguistic competencies, fields, skills, and language levels used to acquire and produce a second language.

The linguistic bases referring to the grammar necessary to generate an adequate oral production are found in Chapter 2. According to (Bloomfield, 2005, as cited in (Poaquiza Ulloa, 2016), grammar is "the art of mastering a language correctly, both from speech and writing." Therefore, this chapter deals with the group of principles, rules, and precepts that govern the use of a particular language.

While in chapter 3, there are various examples and practical and helpful information in tables and infographics related to grammar rules, which will help obtain a better understanding and practice of different strategies to achieve correct oral and written production. This chapter has also described the importance of grammar for ESL learners since grammar is the basis on which words, verbs, nouns, adjectives, etc. are based, to form coherent and understandable sentences for others, controlling the way that a language works and promoting a potential use of it for the practice of English language at the learning moment.

1.1. Objectives

- To describe the categories and subcategories of Communicative Linguistic Competence based on the bibliographic review.

- To provide English teachers with a guide to improve productive skills in teaching Communicative Language Competence.

- To help teachers and students have a detailed didactic guide of simple and compound sentences with their functions, divided into time and aspect, useful for the teaching-learning process of the English Language as L2.

- To constitute a linguistic base referring to the grammar of the English Language, necessary to improve the oral production process.

CHAPTER II

2. COMMUNICATIVE LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

Figure 1. *Communicative Linguistic Competence*
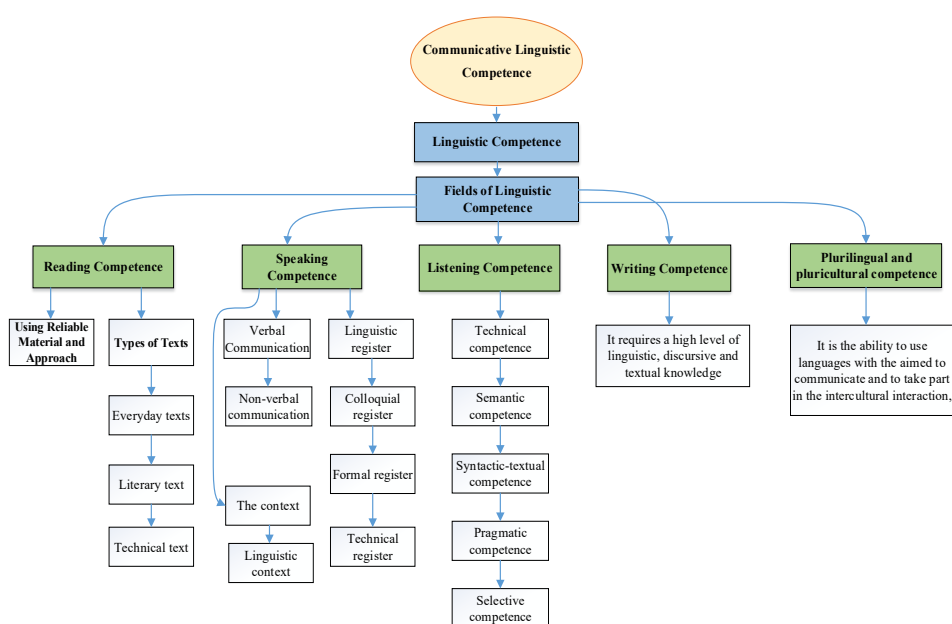
2.1. Communicative linguistic competence

As (Reyzábal, 2012) affirms, this competence is a set of skills and abilities which integrate knowledge, comprehension, analysis, synthesis, assessment, and expression of oral and written messages adapted to the different communicative intentions with the aim to respond appropriately to different nature situations in diverse sorts of environment.

Communicative competence is a word in linguistics that mentions a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology, and social knowledge.

(Chomsky, 1965) states that "A distinction between "grammatical performance" and "competence" "The former is the linguistic understanding of the idealized mother tongue speaker, and the latter is the actual use of language in solid situations."

(Hymes, 1972.) argue that Chomsky's linguistic competence absences consideration of the essential linguistic aptitude of producing and comprehending words that are proper to the context in which they have been made.

Richards Jack, Richards Jack, John Platt, and Heidi Weber: "Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics" Longman (1985) incorporates vocal competence as

- ✓ Grammar and Vocabulary of the Language, order of speaking.
- ✓ How do you use and respond to various speech actions, including requests, apologies, gratitude, and invitations?
- ✓ How to use Language appropriately?

(Richards Jack, 1985) asserted that this competence refers to using Language as a tool of oral and written communication, comprehension of reality, construction and transmission of knowledge and organization, and self-regulation of thought, emotions, and behavior. It also considers the ability to express and infer conceptions, thoughts, feelings, facts, and ideas in spoken and written form and to talk appropriately in a wide variety of circumstances.

Some of the abilities that allow this competence are:

- ✓ Express thoughts, emotions, experiences, and opinions.
- ✓ Dialogue.
- ✓ Form a critical and ethical judgment.
- ✓ Generate ideas, knowledge structure.
- ✓ To offer the discourse and cohesion to the address and the own actions and tasks.
- ✓ Adopt decisions.
- ✓ Enjoy listening to, reading, or expressing yourself orally and in writing.
- ✓ Communicate and talk.

- ✓ Establish links and constructive relationships with others and with the environment, and approach new cultures, which gain consideration and respect as long as they are known.
- ✓ Listening, exposing, and talking requires being aware of the main types of verbal interaction.
- ✓ To be progressively competent in expressing and understanding the oral messages exchanged in diverse communicative situations.
- ✓ Adapt communication to the context.
- ✓ Use, actively and effectively, linguistic and non-linguistic codes and abilities.
- ✓ Use your own rules of communicative exchange in different situations to produce oral texts appropriate to each communication situation.
- ✓ Read and write.
- ✓ Search, collect, and process information.
- ✓ Comprehend, compose and use different types of texts with other communicative or creative intentions.
- ✓ Reading facilitates the interpretation and understanding of the code that allows written Language.
- ✓ Select and apply specific purposes or objectives to the own actions of the linguistic communication (the dialogue, the reading, the writing, etc.)
- ✓ Interpret and understand reality.
- ✓ Understand and know how to communicate.
- ✓ Express and interpret different types of discourse by the communicative situation in various social and cultural contexts.
- ✓ Be aware of the social conventions, values and cultural aspects, and language versatility based on the context and the communicative intention.
- ✓ Express their ideas and emotions appropriately in the background and form and accept and critique the constructive spirit.

As (Govind, 2013) states, it is necessary to consider that the common problems of students in achieving competence in English are as follows:

- ✓ Interference of the learner's mother tongue.
- ✓ Ignorance of rules restriction.
- ✓ Incomplete application of rules.
- ✓ Overgeneralization of rules.
- ✓ Wrong concepts.
- ✓ Ignorance on the part of the learners.
- ✓ Teacher-fronted class-rooms.

Problems of teaching communicative competence

- ✓ big classroom.
- ✓ Teaching reading does not occur in large classes.
- ✓ Some teachers are unable to give feedback to students.
- ✓ Problems in promoting group discussion.
- ✓ Instead of teaching communicative competence, teachers prepare students for exams.

Proposals for productive communicative competence in english

- ✓ Teach English as a medium of communication.
- ✓ Linguistic competence and language skills LSRW have to be developed day by day.
- ✓ Require range and examination of students.
- ✓ Student-centered and inspiring classes.
- ✓ Disclosure of Basic English grammar.
- ✓ Construction of opportunities for students to develop speaking and listening skills.
- ✓ Facial and body language to be used while speaking.

2.2. Linguistic competence

Linguistic competence mentions the unconscious knowledge of grammar that permits a student to use and understand a speech, also known as *grammatical competence* or *I-language.* Contrast with linguistic performance (Nordquist, 2017).

As used by Noam Chomsky and other linguists, *linguistic competence* is not an evaluative expression. Instead, it states the innate linguistic knowledge that permits a person to match sounds and meanings. For example, Chomsky wrote in *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965), "We thus make a fundamental distinction between *competence* (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and *performance* (the actual use of language in concrete situations)."

2.3. Fields of linguistic competence

2.3.1. Reading competence

According to (Bazarra & Casanova, 2012), Reading competence is the ability to understand a subject and use linguistic forms required by society or valued by the individual. Reading comprehension works together with writing comprehension because the two subjects work simultaneously. This proficient reading competency includes recognizing and analyzing words and understanding the cognitive concepts behind the words quickly. In addition, Vocabulary plays a significant part in reading competency because this allows an expansion of terms in the dialect and helps with word and sound association.

Reading is an expertise that is spontaneously and requires certain maturity, discipline, and certainty to learn, so it is taught from five to six years of age. However, unfortunately, in several cases, adulthood is over. However, it is still unclear how to read because seeing the words and recognizing them does not mean people can read.

What is to know how to read? Knowing to read means understanding what is being read, interpreting, and forming personal opinions and judgments about the text that has been read. Through reading, a meaning construction process is generated, which implies a set of skills that will have to be used in one way or another.
However, reading is not difficult, although it is not necessary to master all the Vocabulary or know a lot of grammar.

2.3.1.1. Using reliable material and approach

Students can improve their communicative competence in reading. Classroom and homework activities must be similar to real-life reading tasks that include effective communication according to their ages and interests.

The reading material that teachers can use during classes must be authentic. It must be the kind of material that students will need in the future, and also, they can read while traveling, studying abroad, or using the language in other contexts outside the classroom. It must be helpful in their lives.

(Sheeba, 2018) states that "Rather than simplifying a text by changing its language, make it more approachable by eliciting student's existing knowledge in pre-reading conversation, revising new vocabulary before reading and questioning students to carry out tasks that are in their competence."

1. Applying some reading strategies help students or readers to get the main idea (skimming) or look for specific information (scanning) and

comprehend what the reading is about before starting with intensive reading.

2. The reading purpose must be accurate; it means that students must read to make sense and relevance to them.

3. The reading approach must also be reliable. This refers to the fact that students should read the text to connect the reading purpose, the type of text, and how people usually read.

2.4. Types of texts

2.4.1. Everyday texts

"…frequent texts such as peculiar notes, brochures, advertisements, and reports. We interrelate with these types of texts all the time: We sort through junk mail, we correspond with coworkers, we flip through magazines and newspapers, we skim over promotional literature, we ponder legal and medical reports, we surf the internet, and so on" (Stillar, 2020).

These texts correspond to the scope of daily life and social relations. Essentially, it will emphasize those texts that the student must know because they will be common in everyday life, such as invitations, orders, notes, instructions, warnings, and regulations.

In their social relationships, they are undoubtedly interested in written forums, blogs, and the Webcam; and in his personal life, the newspapers, emails, and letters. Students can read, comment, and reproduce the information in everyday texts in a comprehensible manner.

2.4.2. Literary text

These texts refer to an oral or written form of production focused on the aesthetic, poetic, and playful forms of Language above the actual, informative, or objective content that the message possesses.

Literary texts offer the reader or student subjective, accessible, thoughtful, and vivid or contemplative life approaches, with no intention of provoking that set of emotions and sensations in their spirits. Students can read these texts in their free time because literary reading is considered an activity of leisure and recreation.

The author has complete freedom to write as best he pleases in a literary text. Usually, a language and a particular style give it a sure poetic touch. The purpose of this content is to capture the reader's attention (Neopode.net. , 2019).

2.4.3. Technical text

As (Vossos, 2017) affirms, "A technical text contains specific terminology to address the text's issues and avoids colloquial terms, humor and critical language".

A series of steps or procedures of a specific subject is explained in detail in a material. It aims to present in an organized and transparent way, resulting from applying a scientific principle.

The technical texts present common characteristics that allow students or readers to consider the scientific-technical discourse as a record of the Language determined by using the Language of the community of scientists and technicians in their professional practice.

Among the main features of this type of text, we emphasize the use of specialized terminology and non-verbal codes and the effort to express the contents precisely, objectively, concisely, and universally. Therefore, this text is appropriate for students who need or want to know something specific about their majors.

2.5. Speaking competence

As National Communication Association (1978) claims, speaking competence is even more multidimensional and compound. It incorporates knowledge (what a student should know), motivation (how a student should feel about interaction), and expertise (what a student should be able to do). Speaking and listening involve consideration of what is often denoted as communication competence.

According to (Buck & VanLear, 2002), "Verbal and nonverbal communication are seen in terms of interacting streams of spontaneous and symbolic communication, and posed "pseudo-spontaneous" displays".

2.5.1. Verbal communication

It refers to when information or messages are switched or communicated between two or more people through written or oral words. This communication may be of two types: written and verbal communication.

According to (Universidad Nacional de Colombia, 1990), Verbal communication takes place through face-to-face conversations, group discussions, interviews, radio, television, calls, memos, letters, reports, notes, email, etc. some definitions of verbal communications are as follows:

(Jakobson, 1960) proposed another model of verbal communication called an interpersonal, verbal communication model; this model is very diverse and more practical than "the basic transmission model of communication and highlighted the importance of the codes and social contexts involved."

2.5.2. Non-verbal communication

It is based on exchanging or communicating messages or information without using any spoken or written word. Also, it is usually understood as the process of communication using sending and receiving nonverbal messages.

Nonverbal communication is a powerful resource in face-to-face communication meetings, expressed consciously in the presence of others and perceived either consciously or unconsciously. Non-verbal communication can be developed by using gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, physical proximity, touching, etc. Some important definitions of non-verbal communication are as follows:

According to (Halberstadt, Parker, & Castro, 2013), "Non-verbal communication is the communication that takes place through non-verbal cues as gesture, eye contact, facial expression, clothing and space; and through the non-verbal vocal communication known as Para-language".

Nonverbal communication means all sorts of communication that occurs without words (Pettit, 2006).

(Giddens, 2008) suggests "social interactions require numerous forms of non-verbal communication through facial expressions, gestures, and movements of the body".

It is also helpful to consider the definition that (McEntee, 1996) proposes: "Through the gestures, the facial expressions and the tension or body relaxation that is made described, we are told some information about the relationship between two characters".

To sum up, **non-verbal communication** is switching the information or message between two or more people through gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, proximity, touching, etc., without using any spoken or written word.

2.5.3. Characteristics of non-verbal communication

As (Guerrero, L. K., DeVito, J. A. & Hecht, 1999) claims, Non-verbal communication is the information communicated without using words. The main characteristics of non-verbal communication are as follows:

- ✓ **No use of words**: A communication without words or Language such as oral or written communication. It uses gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, physical proximity, touching, etc., to communicate our feelings or thoughts with others.

- ✓ **Culturally determined**: Non-verbal communication is learned in childhood from your parents or others around you. In this way, you can adopt the behavior or mannerisms of your cultural group.

- ✓ **Different meaning**: Non-verbal symbols can have many implications for the same expression.

- ✓ **Vague and imprecise**: It can be pretty ambiguous and inaccurate since this kind of communication does not use words or Language which expresses clear meaning to the receiver.

- ✓ **May conflict with the verbal message**: Non-verbal communication is so unconscious. It means that you can express a verbal message and immediately contradict it with a nonverbal message.

- ✓ **Largely unconscious**: Non-verbal communication is out and is usually not planned nor prepared; it comes almost suddenly.

- ✓ **Shows feelings and attitudes**: Facial expressions, gestures, body movements, the way you use your eyes – all of these can communicate your feelings and emotions to others.

✓ **Informality**: This type of communication does not follow any rules, formality, or structure. In most cases, people instinctively and regularly engage in *non-verbal communication* by moving the different parts of the body.

2.5.4. Types of non-verbal communication

✓ Touch (a pat on the back, holding hands)

✓ Gestures (a nod, a wink)

✓ Facial expressions (a smile, a frown)

✓ Eye contact (direct versus indirect- up/down/sideways, blink rate)

✓ Body movements (smooth, erratic)

✓ Body language/posture (crossed arms, leaning forward, hands tightly clasped)

✓ Personal effect (clothing, hairstyle)

✓ Voice quality, tone, pace, and noises (grunts, sighs)

✓ Cultural and environmental factors (lighting, room temperature) also influence communication results (Mehrabian, 2022)

2.5.5. Linguistic register

Linguistic registers are the set of contextual, sociolinguistic, and other variables that condition how a language is used in a specific context.

The variable factors that characterize the linguistic register are as follows:

✓ The type and receiver's condition with whom the communication is established.

✓ The type of communication channel according to the situation that is expressed.

✓ Social habits and customs in which the communicative event takes place.

The speaker is a social actor who performs communicative roles according to the different situations he must interact with. These roles are expressed in the form of texts. The texts are situational processes, and the register is the possibility of their appearance. There are no texts without grammar; there is no register, so both are necessary conditions.

According to (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), The register is characterized as a variety of uses determined by the situation. He describes it (Halliday & Hasan, 1976) based on three elements: the field (the type of activity recognized in a culture in which Language plays a specific role), the tenor (the relationship between the participants), and the mode (the channel used to carry out the exchange).

2.5.6. Colloquial register

This register is also called informal register; it refers to the way we speak every day, in familiar and relaxed situations, where speakers are confident in saying and do not worry about the linguistic norms. In this register, the most important is exchanging ideas, emotions, or information about daily experiences.

The colloquial register is used in conversations, including those that take place between friends in the school; however, students must be aware of when it is possible to use this kind of register and when it is necessary to use a log that is closed to the linguistic norms (Jones & Baeyer, 1983)

These are some of the characteristics of the colloquial or informal register:

✓ Use of short phrases

✓ Incomplete ideas in the sentences

✓ There are repetitions and redundancies

✓ There is not enough Vocabulary

✓ Jump from one issue to another

✓ Use body language instead to communicate the sentences using written or oral Language.

✓ The discourse has no complete cohesion, but the speakers are generally understood.

✓ In some cases, the message can be misunderstood.

2.5.7. Formal register

This register is attached to the academic language standard; it is the register that speakers learn to use during all their years of school education. It implies that speakers have some school instruction that provides them with information and practice to talk and write according to the rules accepted by the Academies.

Therefore, this register is the privileged way of speaking and writing in the university. Still, it is also the one we must use in the professional workplace or address to the civil authorities. The formal communication situations that are presented to us in life, in general, require that those who speak or write use the Language correctly, so it is advisable to listen or to read texts written in this register and practice formal speech and writing. It is not possible to learn to be correct in the Language by studying the rules, so it is necessary to speak and constantly write (Engkent, (1986).

The essential characteristics of the formal register, or attached to the educated standard, are:

✓ Use of complete and well-structured sentences,

✓ Expanded Vocabulary

✓ Use of synonyms and pronouns to avoid repetitions,

✓ Issues or ideas are developed entirely before moving on to another subject.

✓ Use of connectors that are required to have a good relationship between ideas.

2.5.8. Technical register

According to (Trigo, 2018), It is a collection of words or phrases that correspond to their field. It means that we can consider this register as a variant of the use of the Language since it is a set of words or expressions that are used by the members of a specific community, determined by the profession or activity to which they are dedicated.

In high school, the students are not yet specialists in a profession; therefore, they do not use a specialized technical register, but they must know certain words, expressions, or terms proper to the different disciplines they study. Because of this, they need to recognize the use of those specific terms to understand a text and write better according to the benefits of precise science.

Regarding the texts of science, we can consider two levels of technical register, one of this is highly specialized, the scientific texts; and another, less specialized, the popularization of scientific texts, which use a more acceptable register for a general public that is not a specialist in science. Both register levels are formal, and of course, they are by grammar standards.

The importance of knowing that there are several registers is that we can adapt our way of speaking or writing to the communication context in which we find ourselves so that our messages will be clear to others. In addition, it allows us to understand better the messages we receive in different circumstances; it can be in an oral or written way.

In the school setting, students must employ a formal and often technical record when they speak or write in academic situations: in schoolwork, oral presentations, debates, written exams, etc. It is also essential to recognize these registers when listening to the teachers, the director, or a lecturer who goes to school. A student needs to acknowledge the main difference between the formal register and the colloquial since the colloquial is the most used, and it is necessary to learn to separate it from informal academic situations.

2.5.9. The context

The text is that set of circumstances or situations during a communication process where the sender and receiver are placed, and the message is produced. These circumstances permit, sometimes, to appreciate it correctly; it is called extra-linguistic context, which can be of different types, for example, cultural, social, educational, historical, economic, psychological, etc.

Context is essential in communication since variations in the same language and cultural differences make that correct for some people; for others, it may not be. So, the context is one of the principal areas that should be analyzed when talking to another person, listening to a song, watching a movie, or reading a book or article.

For the analysis of any type of communication, the social context, the linguistic context, the cultural context, the context defined by the questions, who, how, when, where, why also called environment, should be taken into account.

As (Bajtín, 2008 [1944]) states, the context is defined in double form. In the first place, it is understood as the immediate situation in which the Language is registered from its use. Second, as a mediated situation, given by the culture in which this immediate situation is conventionally inscribed and, consequently, it can be assigned a particular social significance. These conventions may or may not be respected to a greater or lesser extent, but they cannot be denied. There is, as a result, a situation context that is inscribed within a context of culture. Finally, the record characterizes the first one; the second, the discursive genre.

2.5.10. Linguistic context

In linguistic and grammatical contexts, the context is the set of linguistic elements or the linguistic, social, and pragmatic environment that surrounds or precedes and follows a word or a sentence, and that conditions, modifying or not the meaning of its correct interpretation (Linguistic glossary, 2019).

The discipline in charge of studying the linguistic context is pragmatic. When an immediate word within the statement gives the linguistic context, it is a micro text. When a context provides the meaning of the text with multiple elements, it is not immediate; it is a macro text.

2.6. Listening Competence

Listening is a fundamental competence that we cannot all possess or have developed adequately. Knowing how to listen is very important to avoid misunderstandings or communication conflicts. The process of understanding begins precisely with this ability: listening to the other.

Listening requires a lot of effort from what we do to speak; it requires the empathy of the listener, that is, putting himself in the shoes he speaks and listening from his perspective; It is necessary to observe the other to interpret the meaning of what he says (Psychchronicles, 2016).

According to (Gil Niño & Gamboa Treviño, 2019), Active Listening means listening and understanding communication from the speaker's standpoint. What is the difference between hearing and Listening? There are significant differences.

Hearing is simply perceiving sound vibrations. While Listening is to understand, comprehend or make sense of what is heard, Effective Listening has to be necessarily active above the passive. Active Listening is the ability to listen not only to what a person is saying directly but also to the feelings, ideas, or thoughts that are being said. To understand someone, a particular empathy is also required, in other words, to know how to put in the place of the other person.

As we can realize, hearing is not the same as listening, while hearing refers to one of the senses with which human beings are born. It is a reflex action: Listening is a skill that must be developed to achieve this is necessary to exercise perception. That is to say, it is essential to know how to pay attention to who is speaking and perceive clearly and understand what they say.

According to (Segura Alonso, (2012), Listening requires the use of different competencies. When a spontaneous speech is heard, the planning by the speaker is minimal, or when a controlled speech is heard, the level of planning by the speaker is higher. In the second case, the capacities inherent in textual competence are similar to those of reading. In contrast, the more critical part in the first case is pragmatic competence because the text produced is linguistically "imperfect" and usually requires a reference to the situation.

In listening, it is essential to relate verbal elements with non-verbal elements (gestures, expression of the speaker's face).

2.6.1. Technical competence

According to (Draskau, 1983), this competence depends on the external physical aspects of the code. Listening is concerned with practically phonological competence, that is, with the ability to identify and recognize sounds.

Listeners can also recognize and identify the sounds in isolated words and phrases or sentences; they can locate the intonation patterns in statements, interrogatives, imperatives, etc. In addition, they can recognize the intonation schemes that the speaker must develop in this competence: question, order, affirmation, uncertainty, exclamation, astonishment, irritation, emphasis, irony, etc.

2.6.2. Semantic competence

According to (Spring, 2003), It consists of knowing how to capture the relationship between significance and meanings through the intervention of the "encyclopedia," the own experience, and the conceptual models acquired. Semantic

competence operates at the level of the lexemes and in one of the advanced semantic units (syntagmas, simple and complex sentences).

Listeners can differentiate the groups of sounds with a meaning (lexemes) and recognize them in any situation. Based on this competence, they will know how to make predictions about what follows applying the suitable intonation and the corresponding pauses (capacity related to the syntactic-textual competence).

2.6.3. Syntactic-textual competence

(Corey, 2017) states that the listener can capture the relationships that occur in the syntagmatic axis within a statement and the relationships given inside a text. Also, he/she uses word order, agreement, and functional indexes to recognize the functional relationships within the statement. In addition, they can mentally reconstruct the linear syntactic structure from an unoriginally wrongly spoken text (for example, eliminates redundancies, false starting points, non-meaningful breaks, and understands the relationships between the different parts of the statement).

2.6.4. Pragmatic competence

(Spring, 2003) claims that this competence is based on the information received, it means that it is related to the characteristics of the communicative situation in which the message was produced.

Listeners can recognize the communicative intention of the speaker using the purposes expressed in the discourse identification, the implicit purposes, the recognition of the psychological and social role that the speaker has or is attributed, and finally, the speaker's point of view. Also, they can recognize the function of the indicators of communicative intention such as intonation, emphasis (stress, repetition, speeding up or slowing down of the rhythm, words order), use of particular expressions of contact, polite phrases, nonverbal elements (face expression, gestures).

In addition, they can relate the information provided by the text with the previous personal experience, know how to distinguish the main idea from secondary ideas (recognizing the function of the latter concerning the main idea: explanatory, exemplifying, specifying, etc.) and react verbally or non-verbally demonstrating to the interlocutor that the communication has been successful or not.

2.6.5. Selective competence

As noted by (Rojas, 2009) selective competence is based on using the message with a specific purpose.

E1 uses a flexible listening technique according to the type of text produced by the speaker; the purpose that the recipient is proposing; the communicative situation (channel, nonverbal context, number of receivers). By examining the variables indicated in the point, they can identify different communicative problems, which correspond to different types of listening:

a) Listen in a direct communication interaction, with a continuous exchange of roles between sender-receiver: dialogue, a conversation between more interlocutors (spontaneous discourse), discussion (automatic or controlled discourse).

b) Listen indirectly in situations of communicative interaction with the exchange of roles: for example, telephone conversation;

c) Listen indirectly in a communicative situation that does not anticipate the exchange of roles: professor's explanation, communication, conference (controlled discourse).

d) Listen indirectly in a communicative situation through the mass media or the recorder: the discourse can be controlled or spontaneous.

2.7. Writing competence

According to (Lindemann, 2018), writing is the most complex ability of communicative competence; It requires a high level of linguistic, discursive, and textual knowledge, among others, that will give the person who writes the necessary tools to communicate in writing. For the same reason, it is difficult, although not impossible, to achieve; it can be obtained based on trial and correction.

The act of writing is always united to the front of reading; who is not a good reader will never be a good writer. And when we speak here of "writer," we refer to whoever writes, to anyone who writes any kind of text to communicate in writing; we do not refer to professional writers. However, what we have read and understood is also worthwhile for them.

According to (Calkins, 1994), writing is students generating text, whether on paper or a screen. Some studies suggest that reading and writing are interconnected, although they have been taught separately for years. Writing is an essential part of a literacy program:

✓ For younger children, writing helps to reinforce phonemic awareness and phonics instruction.

✓ For older children, writing can help them understand the kinds of text they read.

✓ Writing about what a child has read helps develop their reading comprehension skills.

Writing and reading strengthen and support each other, actively combining all the different literacy program components.

As (Keo, 2017) claims, writing competence is the level of understanding that a person has achieved regarding writing his/her piece of text. Teachers may ask students to write on a particular prompt to measure writing competence. According to the students' level, the prompts and activities will become more complex. For example, literature-based prompts are often successful instruments of writing competence and tie in classroom material. An example of this would be writing about a similar experience or personality feature that you share with one of 'Huckleberry Finn.' Writing competence will consider how logically a subject constructs their words and deal with structural concepts such as grammar and punctuation.

(Bulita, 2013) states that this competence is the "Ability to compose different texts of a written type, transmitting a knowledge or satisfying personal needs and participating in social life."

The production of a text is part of a personal or collective task, initially subjective in its thematic choice, generic (which entails a specific knowledge of textual typology, even though it is intuitive), syntactic, lexical, etc., which is objective to being contrasted by the others, interpreted, compared, contextualized.

The composition of the text not only implies a complete saying but involves a whole formative process through the critical and creative decision-making on linguistic and content issues (opinions, assumptions, hypotheses, data, questions, contributions ...) that the author incorporates.

As (Venohr, 2017) states, "Writing is a complex skill (not only in terms of academic language) which needs to be broken down into several sublevels." One of these is that writing has to be considered a process in which the examination phase has so far been ignored: text competence thus consists not only of text production competence, genre competence, and stylistic competence but also of text optimization competence.

A difference, therefore, needs to be made between text competence (the receptive and productive management of texts) and writing competence (which includes not only text type knowledge but also strategic and pragmatic/communicative competencies) together with discourse competence. In this context, such discourse competence means that students have to write as if they were taking part in a public expert discourse even though they are still at a non-expert knowledge level themselves (Jakobs, 2003 [Adamzik & Pieth, 1997 p34]).

2.8. Plurilingual and pluricultural competence

(Coste, 1997) states that this competence refers to "the ability to use languages with the aimed to communicate and to take part in the intercultural interaction, where a social agent has the proficiency of varying degrees in several languages and experience of several cultures."

In the last decade, there has been a considerable increase in linguistic diversity; nowadays, there can be several cultures; this should not be an obstacle to the teaching-learning process, but an opportunity to enrich themselves and know other cultures and other languages.

2.9. Grammatical competence

According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2002) (as cited Veloz & Lara, 2019), grammatical competence is the knowledge of linguistic units, the rules of a language, and the capacity of using them. The signified development of sentences is being directed by a set of elements of the Language Grammar. Grammatical competence is also the capability to recognize, produce, and understand phrases and sentences.

The theory of Language is also called grammar since grammar is in charge of putting words together to form meaning; this means that simple words are not

enough to express sense. Grammar is essential to know to avoid writing errors, which leads to a misunderstanding between listener, and speaker (Gerol & Wignel, 1994).

According to (Scrivener, 2003), grammar is a set of rules in forming sentences tenses at the moment of structuring what we say while we speak. Scrivener also mentioned that grammar is a system that indicates how Language works.

Figure 2. *Grammatical Competence.*
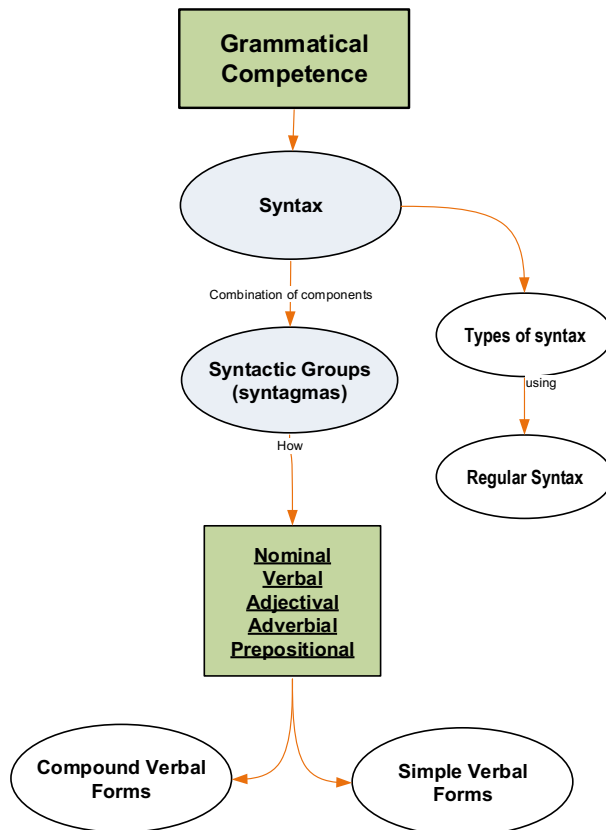
Source: *Authors.*

2.9.1. Syntax

The syntax is a component of Linguistics and is the fundamental part of grammatical analysis. It is also said that is the area that studies the regulations used

to combine elements and higher units such as phrases and sentences (Koeerner & Hall, 2014).

The syntax refers to the science of the syntactic properties of languages. The syntax is the construction of sentences, the subject of how words are grouped to form sentences. The syntax is also known as grammar; however, many linguists follow the current practice. The grammar of a language includes all its organizational principles, such as information about the form of words, and people accommodate the Language according to the context. The syntax is only part of the grammar (Tallerman, 2011).

According to (Tallerman, 2011), syntax structures the words, and they are organized in a sentence. The words can be held regularly or irregularly, depending on the different reasons and purposes. Sentences include simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences. Simple sentences refer to an independent clause expressing one main idea only. For example:

We received the package.

It can also contain at least one subject and one verb to stand alone. It can have more than one of each but always refer to the same action. For example:

Peter painted the house blue and yellow, and John moved the toys from the garden to the rooms.
My brother and I work and study.

(Tallerman, 2011) mentioned that compound sentences refer to two or more simple sentences joined together and express more than two ideas at once joined with a semicolon or a comma followed by a coordinating conjunction such as but, so, yet, for, and. For example:

(Tallerman, 2011) mentioned that complex sentences contain an independent and dependent clause connected with subordinate conjunctions such as after, although, because, before, since, when. For example

Even though I was angry with her, I replied to her message.

2.9.2. Regular syntax

(Justice & Ezell, 2008) states that regular syntax is a typical sentence for part of a subject, a verb, and a predicate or has an independent clause.

2.9.3. Syntagmas

In grammar, a syntagma is a word or group of words articulated towards a nucleus issued to have a syntactical function (Martin & Gallego, 2018). Etymologically, it comes from the French *syntagm*a, which means 'ordered group,' 'troop,' or 'syntactical element.' Syntagmas are also known as **syntactic groups.** Syntactic groups are linguistic units constituted by one or more words. They are made up of a nucleus, called the syntactic nucleus, around which other elements called modifiers are organized.

The syntax is in charge of analyzing the syntactic groups (Significados, n.d... Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between units in a segmental sequence. The combination of two words or word-groups, modified by the other, forms a unit called a syntactic "syntagma."

They occupy an intermediate-range between the word and the sentence, e.g.

Professor → Word

The Math professor → Syntagma

The Math professor will not → Sentence
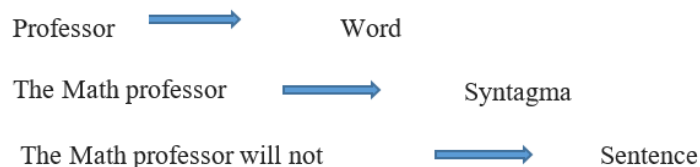
The syntactic nucleus is the essential part of a syntagma and has the highest hierarchical value. It states and determines the features, function, and form in which the elements will be organized around the syntagma (Gonzales J. M., 2014). For instance, a nominal syntagma has a noun in its nucleus, around which other elements are organized; these elements can be either included or omitted.

Accordingly, a nominal syntagma can be made up by a determinant, an adjective, and an apposition besides the noun, which is the syntactic nucleus, e.g., In the syntagma "The high mountain of beautiful sights," *mountain* is the nucleus of the syntagma; *the* is a determinant; *high* is an adjective, and *of beautiful sights* is an opposition.

Learning about the components of a syntagma (syntactic group) can be pretty helpful when it comes to identifying how it works. In this section, a brief description of them will be made.

2.10. The nucleus (head)

It is the main element of a syntactic group and can work in isolation, except when it is a preposition. The morphological category of the nucleus or head will determine the type of syntactic group, for instance:

Nominal syntactic groups (NG) are determined by nouns: The **Everest.**
Adjectival syntactic groups (AG) are defined by adjectives: very **imposing.**
Adverbial syntactic groups (AdvG) are determined by adverbs: **far** from the sight.
Verbs determine verbal syntactic groups (VG): **stands** far from the sight.
Prepositional syntactic groups (PG) are determined by astonishing beauty by prepositions (+ NG)**.**

2.10.1. The modifiers

(Vinuales, 2015) claims that modifiers are non-essential elements of the syntagma. They can appear in various forms and categories*,* and, depending on their function, they can be named as complements, adjacent and determinants, modifiers, and adjacent.

2.10.2. Complements
Complements are characterized by modifying verbs (VG).

He   **will arrive**   **late**   ⟶   *(VG)*

Nucleus   *Comp.*

According to (Pyle, 1991) cited in (Veloz & Lara, 2019), a complement completes a verb. Inactive utterances are placed after the verb; however, they differentiate between modifiers and accessories. On the one hand, they see modifiers as the words that indicate the time, place, or manner of action; they respond to the questions When, Where, and How? On the other hand, they see complements as elements that complete a verb by replying to the questions What? Or Whom?

Regardless of this differentiation, modifiers and complements are both elements that alter the function of the verb in a syntagma.

2.10.3. Adjacent and determinants
They modify nouns (NG)

The	**tall**	**building**	⟶	(*NG*)
↓	↓	↓		
Determinant.	*Adjacent.*	*Nucleus*		
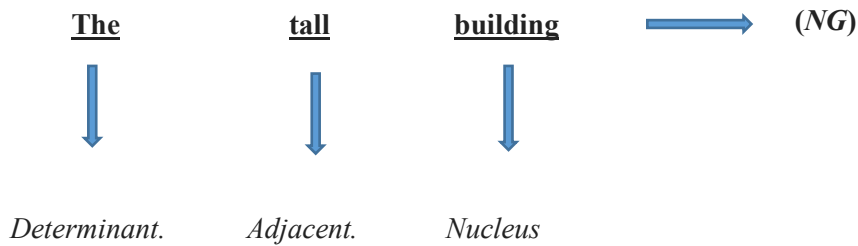
2.10.4. Modifiers and adjacent.
They modify adjectives and adverbs (AG & Avg)

Very	**tired**	**of everything**	⟶	(AG)
↓	↓	↓		
Modifier	Nucleus	Adjacent		

Very	**tired**	**of everything**	⟶	(AG)
↓	↓	↓		
Modifier	Nucleus	Adjacent		

Very	**tired**	**of everything**	⟶	(AG)
↓	↓	↓		
Modifier	Nucleus	Adjacent		
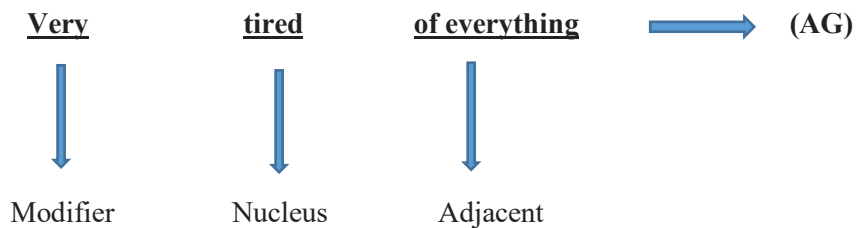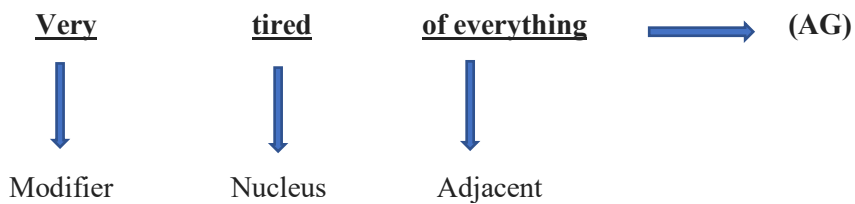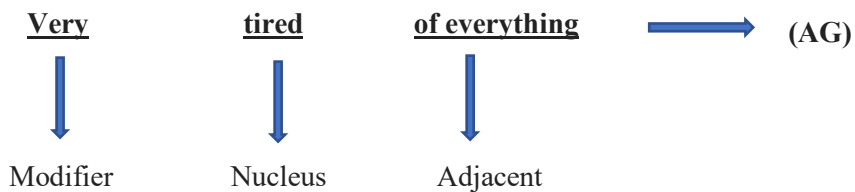
2.11. Expansion

According to (Vinuales, 2015), the syntagma elements can be expanded by adding new elements. The following examples show the expansion sequence of the nucleus and the modifier.

2.11.1. Nucleus expansion

Book
A book
A voluminous book
A voluminous recipe book

2.11.2. Modifier expansion

A church
A crowded church
A church crowded with peasants
A church filled with peasants from all around the village.

2.12. Types of syntactic groups

Syntagmas or syntactic groups can be classified depending on the function the nucleus fulfills in each case according to its morphological category; thus (Veloz & Lara, 2019) organize syntactic groups in nominal, verbal, adjectival, adverbial, and prepositional.

2.12.1. Nominal syntactic group

As suggested by its name, in this group, the nucleus is a noun, a pronoun, or a noun phrase. The nucleus of an NG can be modified by determinant adjectives, qualitative adjectives, and other nouns or prepositional groups (Oliveira & Saparas, 2018). For instance:

Michelangelo   We   The kid

⬇   ⬇   ⬇

Noun   *Pron.*   *Noun modified by a determinant*

That huge mountain   My friend Carlos

⬇   ⬇

Noun modified by Det and Adj   *Noun modified by Det. And other Noun*

The sad girl from my group

⬇

Noun modified by Det. Adj & PG
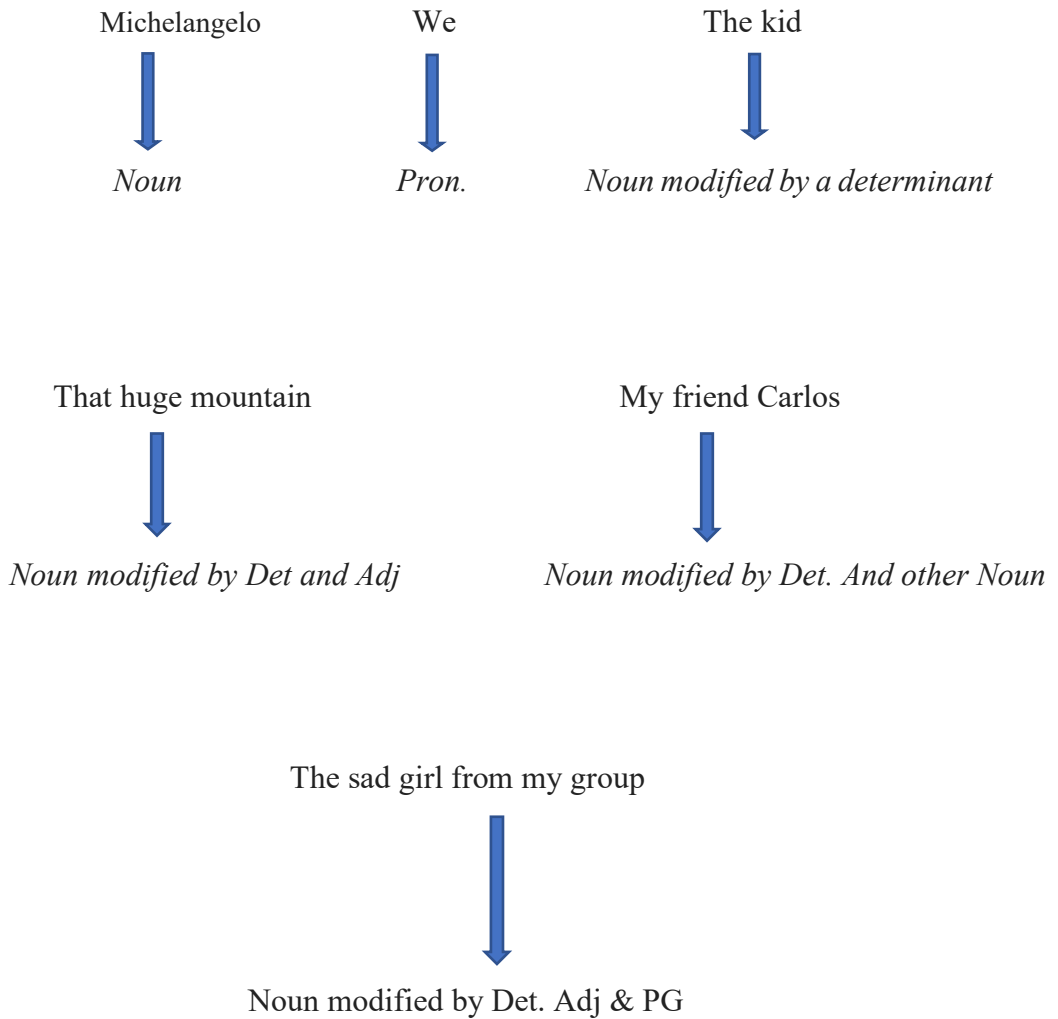
(Veloz & Lara, 2019) say that nominal syntactic groups or noun phrases can also function as the subject of a sentence since they refer to people, things, animals, places, or situations. According to (Pyle, 1991) cited in (Veloz & Lara, 2019), the subject is the component of the sentence, which acts when it is an inactive voice; it means that a verb follows the subject. Every sentence must contain a subject, except when it comes to imperative where the subject is implied. As mentioned previously, the noun of the subject can work independently or include modifiers.

Pants (look great on women).

Subject

Noun as nucleus

The green pants of my sister (are wet)

Subject

Noun with modifiers (Det. Adj & PG)
_____

NG

2.12.2. Structure of a nominal group

Table 1. *Description of the structure of a nominal group.*

DETERMINANT		NUCLEUS	ADJACENT		
Ø		**Professors** (noun) **They** (pronoun)	ø		
Article The Demonstrative That Possessive My Numeral One Indefinite Any Interrogative What? Exclamation What?		**Car** (noun)	ø		
My (Det) Ø		**Cousin** (noun)	**PG**	**Adjacent**	From Barcelona
			AG	**Adjacent**	Exhausted
			NG₁	**AP**	Jason
			NG₂	**AP**	captain of the ship

Adapted by the authors from: https://bit.ly/2q5ySGr

2.12.3. Functions of a Nominal group in a sentence

NG can perform different functions in a sentence. Previously, its role has been stated as a subject of a sentence; however, an NG goes beyond working on a unique basis. The following is a list of the functions a nominal syntactic group can have:

Subject: <u>Renny</u> goes downtown.

Complement of the noun: Mount <u>Everest</u> is the highest in the world.

Apposition: John, <u>the mailman</u>, is a cheerful man.

Direct object: Our athlete won <u>the tournament.</u>

The indirect object (When it is a pronoun): The teacher gave <u>them</u> the test.

Circumstantial object: We will go to the swimming pool <u>on Monday.</u>

Attribute: Manolo is a <u>professor.</u>

Predicative object: That horse is called "<u>hope</u>."

2.13. Verbal syntactic group

Verbal groups (VG) are those whose nucleus is a verb in its simple form, compound form, or verbal periphrases as it is shown below:

Note: Verbal periphrases are usually combinations of an auxiliary verb and the main verb. A non-personal form of the main verb, infinitive, gerund, or past participle, should be used. Phrasal verbs are also considered as periphrases.

Verbal syntactic groups (syntagmas) can appear in isolation or accompanied by any other syntactic group,

2.13.1. Structure of a verb group

Table 2. *Structure of a verb group.*

S	Nucleus	Modifiers: Complements (objects) and attributes
I	*am*	**ill.** *(Attribute)*
Nancy	*is sleeping*	**in her room.** *(C.C of place)*
We	*studied*	**the topic.** *(DO)*
He	*brought*	**flowers for his mother.** *(DO & IO)*
The kids	*have depended on*	**their mother. (***C of the verbal regime)*

Adapted by the authors from: *https://bit.ly/2BMYJWv*

2.13.2. Functions of the verbal group in the sentence

Some verbs can stand by themselves and still be a sentence

Imperative

The nominal predicate and verbal predicate

2.14. Adjectival syntactic group

Adjectival groups (AG) are those whose nucleus is an adjective. A sentence can come independently or be modified by an adverb or a prepositional group (PG). For instance,

proud   very proud   proud of his achievement

adj   *adv adj*   *adj.*   PG

In a sentence:

The car booth is _*too*_ **small**

Mod, | nucleus
_____
AG
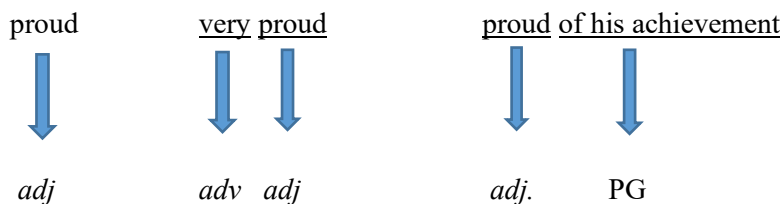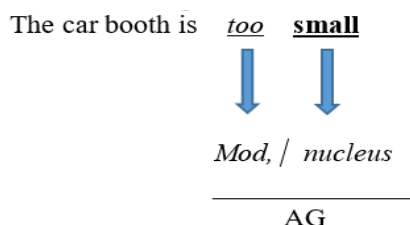
2.14.1. Structure of an adjectival group

Table 3. *Structure of an adjectival group.*

Modifier	Nucleus	Adjacent or complement
	intelligent (adjective)	
(Adv. quantifier) ***very***	**intelligent**	
(Adv) ***a lot more***	**intelligent**	
	beautiful	By nature (PG)
A bit	**affectionate**	With her brother (PG)

Adapted by the authors from: *https://bit.ly/2MRzVTo.*

2.14.2. Functions of the AG in the sentence

Adjacent of the nucleus in an NG: The _spacious_ class is mine

Attribute: The class is _very spacious_

(Veloz & Lara, 2019) the claim that AG or adjective phrases are also known as adjectives. Adjectives slightly modify nouns. They cite (Pyle, 1991) to mention two types of adjectives: Descriptive and Limiting. Consequently, each of them describes the noun differently, for instance.

Descriptive adjectives: Describe the color, size, quality of a noun or pronoun

Determinants and determining adjectives: Set restrictions to the nouns to be modified in quantity, distance, possession, place, etc.

2.15 Adverbial Syntactic group

The nucleus of AdvG is an adverb. A syntagma can come with another adverb or prepositional group, which works as complements and modifiers.

He behaved **quite** **strangely.**

Mod, / *nucleus*

(Adv G)

2.15.1. Structure of an adverbial syntactic group

Table 4. *Structure of an adverbial syntactic group.*

Modifier	Nucleus	Adjacent or adverbial complement
	Far	
(*Adv*) pretty	Far	
	Far	From reality (*PG*)

Adapted by the authors from: *https://bit.ly/2PpRE6c*

Adverbs can express manner, place, time, frequency, quantity, order, decree, probability, affirmation, negation. There are also interrogative and relative adverbs (Veloz & Lara, 2019).

2.15.2 Functions of an AdvG in the sentence

Complement of the adjective in an AG: He is brilliant

Circumstantial compliment: He walks *slowly*

Attribute: He lives *there*

2.16. Prepositional syntactic group

According to (Oliveira & Saparas, 2018), a prepositional group (PG) is made up of two elements: the preposition, which works as a link (L), and other syntactic groups of any type called term (T). Unlike the other groups, this is the only syntagma or syntactical group which does not have a semantic nucleus. For instance,

With   my neighbor   for   the poor people

prep. (L) + NG (T)   *prep. (L) + AG&NG (T)*
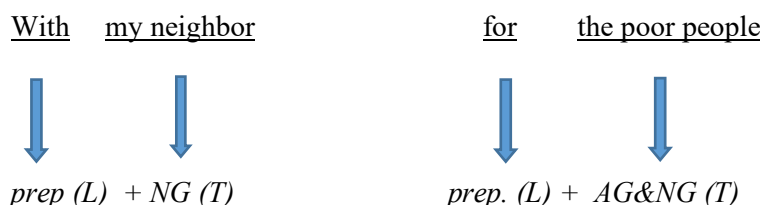
For (Vinuales, 2015), the syntactic group that comes after a preposition is a nominal group (NG) which can have modifiers or complements.

2.16.1. Structure of a prepositional syntactic group

Table 5. *Structure of a prepositional syntactic group.*

Preposition	Nominal group
by	a famous artist (*Modified by an AG*)
with	my friends
for	her birthday

Adapted by the authors from: *https://bit.ly/34aXn3M*

2.16.2. Functions of a prepositional syntactic group in the sentence

Adjacent: The dog *of my sister* is a puppy**.**

Complement of the adjective: He is mad *of happiness.*

Direct object: I traveled *to Rome.*

Indirect object: he returned the letter *to the mailman*.

Circumstantial complement: We decided *on the trip.*

Complement of the verbal regime: He trusts *in his siblings*.

Agent complement: The wall was torn down *by the mason*.

Predicative complement: He played Luis *as his fool.*

Attribute: The window is made *of resistant glass.*

2.17. The common european framework of reference for languages

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is the international standard that defines language competence. It is used throughout the world to determine the language skills of students on a scale of English levels from an A1, for those with a basic level of English, to a C2, for those who master English exceptionally (Europarat (Ed.), 2003).

2.17.1. Presentation of the standard reference levels

The establishment of a series of common reference points does not limit how different sectors of different pedagogical cultures can organize or describe their system of levels and modules. It is also expected that the precise formulation of the set of common reference points will be developed simultaneously as the experience of member states and expert institutions are incorporated into the description.

Common English-speaking standards are also required to be presented in different forms for different purposes. For some of these purposes, as shown in Table 1, it will be appropriate to summarize the standard reference levels; this complete and straightforward representation will facilitate communication of the system to non-specialized users and provide guidance points to teachers and planners.

Table 6. *Typical levels of reference: global scale.*

BASIC USER	**A2**	Can understand frequently used phrases and expressions related to areas of expertise that are especially relevant (basic information about himself and his family, shopping, places of interest, occupations, etc.). Knows how to communicate when carrying out daily and straightforward tasks that do not require more than simple exchanges and direct information on known or common issues. He knows how to describe aspects of his past and his surroundings in simple terms and matters related to his immediate needs.
	A1	Can understand and use everyday expressions of widespread use and simple phrases intended to meet immediate needs. You can introduce yourself and others, ask and give basic personal information about your address, belongings, and the people he knows. You can relate elementally as long as your interlocutor speaks slowly and clearly and is willing to cooperate.

Source. *(Europarat, 2003)*

Speaking can also be rated with individual standards set according to the common reference levels. The guidance points for self-assessment are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. *Common reference levels: self-assessment chart.*

		A1	**A2**
SPEAKING SKILL	**ORAL INTERACTION**	I can participate in a simple conversation as long as the other person is willing to repeat what he or she said or to say it in other words and at a slower speed, and it helped me to formulate what I was trying to say. Plan and discuss simple questions about issues of immediate need or very unusual issues.	I can communicate in simple and habitual tasks that require a simple and direct exchange of information about activities and everyday matters. I am able to make very brief social exchanges, although, in general, I can not understand enough to keep the conversation going for myself.
	ORAL EXPRESSION	Use expressions and simple phrases to describe the place where I live and the people I know	I use a series of expressions and phrases to describe in simple terms my family and other people, my living conditions, my educational background and my current job, or the last one I had.

Source. *(Europarat, 2003)*

2.18. Linguistic skills

As shown in Figure 3, the four language skills are essential elements in all EFL classes. They focus on the development of both receptive skills (listening and reading) and productive skills (writing and speaking) that can help learners become communicatively competent when appropriately developed. The figure below displays the four linguistic skills.

Figure 3. Linguistic Skills.
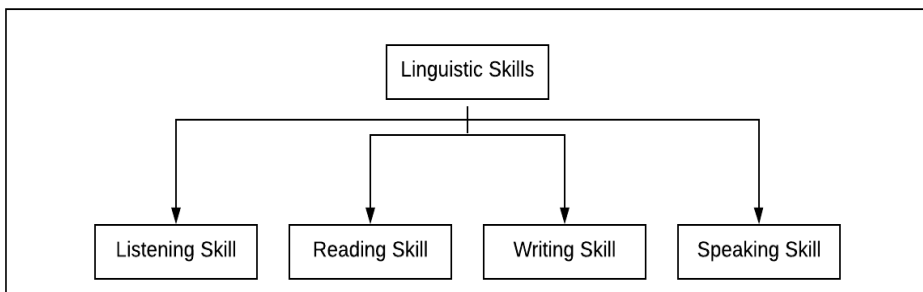
Source. The authors.

According to Sadiku (2015), listening and speaking are strongly interrelated, and in real-life situations, they may happen at once. Therefore, the integration of them aims to promote effective oral communication. Reading and writing, in turn, form a close relationship with the other skills and help achieve effective written communication. Thus, for developing students' competencies in reading and writing, they need to be gradually exposed to challenging reading materials and writing tasks. She agrees that four skills must not be taught in isolation.

For Calvo (2007), the harmonious development of the four skills in modern language classes favors each one of those in particular and all others. Regarding this, (Sharwood-Smith, 1974) states that reading and writing may positively speed up oral performance. Moreover, he even says that the four skills are, to some extent, facets of the same diamond. Therefore, we do not have to distinguish them strictly when constructing specific teaching materials.

It is stated that the four linguistic skills cannot be separated; nevertheless, in this section, these skills will be individually defined in order to review their specific functions and development.

2.18.1. Listening Skill

Listening is the aptitude to recognize and comprehend what a talker says, by understanding accent, pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and getting its principal meaning.

For (Worthington & Bodie, 2017), listening is seen as an intricate component that consists of complicated affective processes, like being motivated to care for others; developmental processes, how to respond with verbal and non-verbal comments; and mental processes, such as attending, understanding, receiving and interpreting content and affinitive messages.

As stated by (Rost, 2013), there are subcomponents of listening ability; they are well explained by a particular list of components to master when it comes to this skill:

- ✓ Distinguishing sounds.

- ✓ Identifying words.

- ✓ Differentiating stressed words and grouping words.

- ✓ Discriminating functions (such as apologizing) in conversations.

- ✓ Connecting linguistic hints to paralinguistic hints (intonation and stress) and non-linguistic hints (gestures and relevant objects in the situation) addressed to construct meaning.

- ✓ Applying background knowledge and context to predict and then to confirm meaning.

- ✓ Memorizing important words, topics, and ideas.

- ✓ Giving appropriate feedback to the speaker.

- ✓ Reformulating what the speaker has said.

2.18.2. Reading skill

According to Oakley (2013), reading is a process of readers, which combines information from a text and their own knowledge to build their own meaning. He also defines reading as an intricate conscious and unconscious mental process in which the reader uses different strategies to rebuild meaning based on data from the text and the reader's previous knowledge.

For Bojovic (2010), reading skill is an intellectual capacity that a person can use when interacting with the written text; it comprises identifying word meaning, drawing interpretations, identifying the writer's method, recognizing the tendency of the sections, finding answers to questions.

Authors like Harmer (2014) set that reading skills can be divided into intensive and extensive reading. He defines extensive reading as one of the fundamental conditions of successful reading programs where students should choose reading material they can understand because if they do not find it easy to understand every word, they can hardly be reading for pleasure, and that is the principal goal of this activity.

At the same time, it establishes that in intensive reading, acting as an organizer and observer are further roles that teachers need to adopt when asking students to read intensively. Students must be told what the reading purpose is, and instructions have to be clearly established. Students need space for reading on their own without interruptions or time pressure.

2.18.3. Writing skill

Writing ability's explanation can be formed reliant on educators' involvement as teachers and the philosophy of writing, bearing in mind characteristics of learners and goals of pedagogy in a provided context. Likewise, it may also come out from pedagogical methodologies to the teaching of writing, which each teacher endorses (Yi, 2009).

According to Rivers (1981), writing is transferring information or announcements of original thoughts chronologically in the new language. It is imperative to point out that writing is not an unplanned skill or attained easily; in fact, it is viewed as probably the most difficult thing to do in language; it requires continuous intellective endeavor over a considerable period of time (Numan, 1999).

Because of the mentioned before, for many writers, result difficult to know what they want to write previously, and many ideas are only exposed once the writer has started. They do a backshift to revise and change words or structures before moving forwards, and they continue doing this until they feel enough satisfied with the result. Therefore, writing is a 'process through which meaning is created' (Zamel, 1982).

(White & Arndt, 1991) propose a framework in which there is a brief explanation about each writing stage, considering it as an oriented process as shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4. A model of writing.
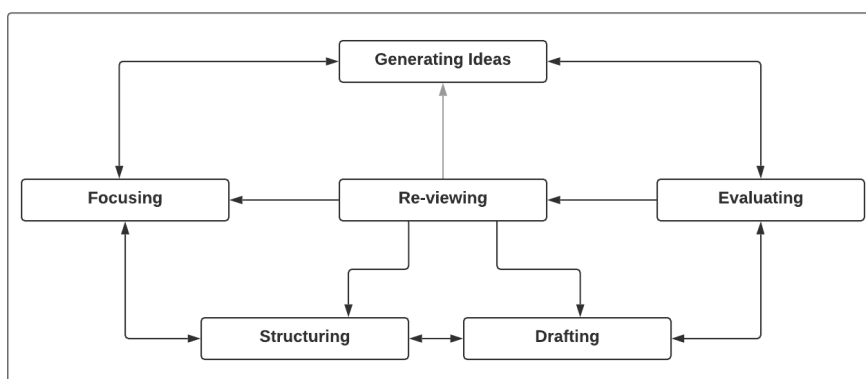
Source. (White and Arndt, 1991).

2.18.4. Speaking skill

Speaking is one of the primordial skills that must be developed as a means of efficient communication. Talking is apparently one of the aspects that is more complicated for language students. Many of them cannot be easily expressed orally. Generally, they experience problems using a foreign language when expressing their thoughts effectively. They do not speak out of fear or psychological obstacles; they cannot find the right expressions (Leong & Ahmadi, 2017).

According to Bygate (1987), speaking is the production of audible indications to outcome different oral acknowledgments in listeners. It is considered as the systematic combination of sounds to form meaningful sentences. He points out that how speaking learners make or lose friends to interrelate with others in social and educational contexts.

2.18.4.1. Characteristics of speaking skill

Fluency, accuracy, grammar & vocabulary, and pronunciation are pointed out as the principal characteristics of speaking skills.

- Fluency: This is the main objective of teachers in the teaching of oral expression skills. According to Hughes (2002), fluency is the ability of students to speak comprehensibly so as not to break the communication because listeners may lose interest.

- Accuracy: students have to pay acceptable attention to the accuracy and completeness of the language form when they speak, such as focusing on grammatical structures, lexis, and pronunciation (Mazouzi, 2013).

- Grammar & vocabulary: the correct use of grammatical constructions by students involves the magnitude and complexity of sentences and well-structured clauses. Attaining exactness in terms of vocabulary means electing suitable words in the appropriate contexts. Students sometimes apply related words or expressions in many contexts that do not have a similar meaning. Thus, students have to be able to use words and expressions properly (Thornbury, 2005).

- Thornbury (2005), stated that pronunciation is the lowest level of knowledge that apprentices normally pay attention to convey the English language accurately. Students must master the phonological rules and must be aware of the several sounds and their pronunciations. Besides, they need to manage stress, intonation, and tone.

In order to speak, it is necessary to consider some skills such as:

- Plan and organize a message (cognitive skills);
- Formulate a linguistic statement (linguistic skills);
- Articulate the utterance (phonetic skills)

2.19. Resources

In current education, the use of technological resources plays an important role. Several resources are used for educational purposes with well-established objectives.

Using smartphones, computers, tablets, etc., has become popular among teachers and students as an effective way of communication, and they offer real support to educational processes.

This study addresses the use of mobile learning (M-learning), specifically WhatsApp application, in order to get better results in students' oral production, as summarized in Figure 5.

Figure 5. *Resources.*
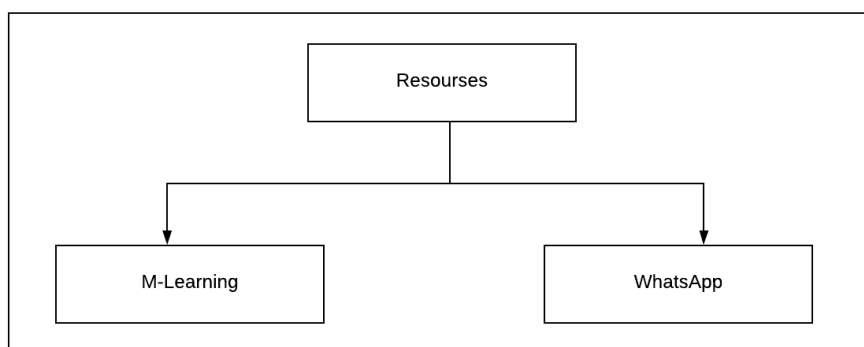
Source. *The authors.*

In the case of English skills, there are many strategies, which are developed through apps that, for learners, appeal to be interesting and practical.

In the special case of speaking skills, apps that allow recording voice and video as well as interacting orally whit others may help learners to develop self-confidence in the moment of producing new language since they are using tools that are familiar for them and they are not under any pressure.

2.19.1. M-Learning

For Padrón (2013), Mobile Learning (m-Learning) is a form of e-Learning based fundamentally on the use of mobile technologies as the basis of the learning process. Therefore, they are teaching and learning processes that take place in different virtual or physical contexts and using mobile technologies.

Conforming to (Ally & Prieto-Blázquez, 2014), wireless technologies and applications for mobile devices in higher education have experienced spectacular growth. For many teachers, the teaching of mobile technology - learning has become

one of the main areas of research. Nowadays, mobile learning is a strategic area for many educational organizations. In the coming years, it will be necessary to intensify research to transform education through mobile learning.

New educational problems will arise due to the appearance of new types of devices that must be addressed by teachers. Hence, it is essential to carry out an analysis from a technological and pedagogical perspective to ensure adequate use and implementation.

According to Tokov (2003), "Learning models based on mobile devices aim to extend the advantages offered by e-learning such as the use of multimedia resources, web access, and messaging services, but based on the principle of mobility, collaboration and communication capabilities between networks ad hoc, characteristics inherent to the contemporary technological stage" (as cited (Padrón, 2013, p.125).

Mobile learning provides equal opportunities for all by allowing learning to be accessible and location, time, and distance to be irrelevant to the student. As mobile wireless devices are so small, they can be portable; they allow students to use them anywhere, anytime, to interact with other students, share experiences, and even perform group work.

Thus, several authors consider that Mobile Learning is a combined experience of five main axes, which are:

1. Mobility in the physical space
2. Mobility of technology
3. Mobility in a conceptual space from a personal interest that evolves
4. Mobility in the social space in the different social dimensions in which we move
5. Learning diffused over time as an increasing process that joins a huge variety of experiences in formal and informal contexts.

To sum up, Mobile Learning is the use of mobile technologies addressed to assist the processes linked with teaching and learning. In the higher education field, this application could be used as a tool to promote cooperative learning, as well as a powerful, asynchronous, and constant means of communication.

2.19.1.1. Advantages of M-learning

As stated in Escuela20.com (2019), there are some advantages and disadvantages to using m- learning. Some of the advantages are:

1.   Educational support

Smartphones and tablets facilitate immediate access to plenty of content, which makes them useful as an educational tools: diagrams, articles, and current information become accessible.

2.   Interaction

They can facilitate communication between teachers and students, encouraging even shy students to communicate openly in the classroom or facilitating particular attention to students who need more tutoring.

3.   Diversity

Heterogeneous students require heterogeneous teaching: each one requires a different learning strategy, and, thanks to new technologies, the personalization and individualization of learning becomes a simpler task.

4.   Access

Every time there are more disposable tools, students can immediately read their comments, blogs, and even do tasks in the palm of their hand, as well as attend talks and lectures online, dropping all outgoings.

5.   Special Educational Needs

Students with specific requirements to support their learning are getting benefitted from the advantages offered by the touch screen of the tablet, its specific applications, and its accessibility options, among others.

2.19.1.2. Disadvantages of M-learning

1.   Price

It is a great disadvantage that can not be ignored. In addition, the technology changes very soon, the devices would have to be updated frequently, which implies a personal expense.

2.   Size

In the case of smartphones, the screens are too small: they can not be used for a long period. Regarding to tablets, there is no greater inconvenience, but it is still there.

3.   Autonomy

The batteries usually last, in intensive use, from two to four hours. If you have to plug in and put your tablet or phone to charge, mobile learning is no longer mobile.

4.   Insufficient storage

The present advances are limited: limited storage is the first disadvantage that comes up in all conversations. The apps as a substitute to outdated software or operating systems are also other oppositions.

5.   Usability

The task of writing on small screens, with its peculiar keyboards, tablets, and even worse of smartphones, can be complicated for some students with visual problems.

2.19.2. WhatsApp

WhatsApp is a free instant messaging application (XMPP) in a multiplatform format that people download or install on their mobiles. This application allows them to send and receive messages without paying for SMS, which has revolutionized in a very short time how we communicate through the mobile phone since it works through Wi-Fi or, using any Internet data plan contracted in each device, depending on the telephone company to which it belongs. That is, it is like sending SMS, but freely, it adds the contacts from the phone book automatically, and in this way, you can initiate an effective communication between one or several people (Padrón, 2013).

To use mobile devices for educational purposes is forefront nowadays, and WhatsApp is one of the most popular social networks that students between ages 13 and 23 use in everyday communication.

WhatsApp mainly has resources like text, exchange photos, videos, and voice notes, so they are popular among smartphone users. Having an application where we can transfer images and videos in an educational process plays a crucial role in avoiding the loss of interest by students. Provided there is an active network of the mobile service provider, a variety of activities are developed by using this app.

Smartphones running applications play an important role in broadcasting information and images in resource-limited situations (Divatia & Thota, (2015).

According to Lara & Veloz (2019)

"WhatsApp is an application for smartphones, which offers a set of systematic, technological, accessible, and interactive elements that adapt to dynamism for learning. The app uses a combination of services including text, images, video, audio, and emoticons for communicative purposes, but also promote the development of cognitive skills, such as problem-solving, decision making, critical thinking, creative thinking, among others" (p.15).

WhatsApp has some characteristics; it is systemic, technological, accessible, and interactive, and many activities can be developed using it like: sending screenshots, sending documents, sharing links, study groups, audio lessons, visual resources, list of bibliographic links, etc. All of these resources are considered useful if they are addressed for educational purposes.

There is evolving evidence that this application has significant potential to support the learning process and have important implications for pedagogies, which allow having direct access to several online resources, a greater focus on creativity, and autonomy and responsibility in students' learning (Gon & Rawekar, 2017).

For Cetinkaya (2017), some research showed that students presented positive attitudes regarding the use of WhatsApp in their classes. They claimed the same practice in their other courses as well. They conveyed that learning could also take place unconsciously, and the messages with images were more effective for their learning process.

2.19.3. Impact of whatsApp

As (Lara & Veloz, 2019) concluded, "WhatsApp is the most valuable immediate communication means used by young people nowadays. Its capacity, easy use, tip, universality, mobility, and innovation give the impression to be some of its keys to success, placing it first in terms of the new forms of communication today".

Likewise, (Rubio Romero & Perlado Lamo de Espinosa, 2015) manifest that WhatsApp is not only a means of interpersonal communication among young people; it is also used to speak through this application has become a way of communicating; space where they share experiences. Young people say that it is basic and key to be

aware of this space 24 hours a day since there may be any type of communication with another person.

These authors point out that the impact of WhatsApp on young people is very high since they make use of this tool very frequently, and when applied for educational purposes, it can help students to be in contact with the established content by using technological resources such as mobile devices and the applications they contain.

2.20. Levels of language

The complexity of language leans on the fact that there are distinct levels and components grouped into the following areas: phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. In (Figure 1.1) shown below is the summary of **Levels of language** involved in communicative competence; some parts will not be described in detail due to the Authors do not consider them relevant in this study.

Each level is organized according to its own system of rules. In order to reach optimal oral language development, it is essential to expand the communication base to encompass meaningful and expressive communication, seeking coherence across the different language components.

Each of these components comprises specific knowledge, skills, and abilities.

Figure 6. Levels of language.
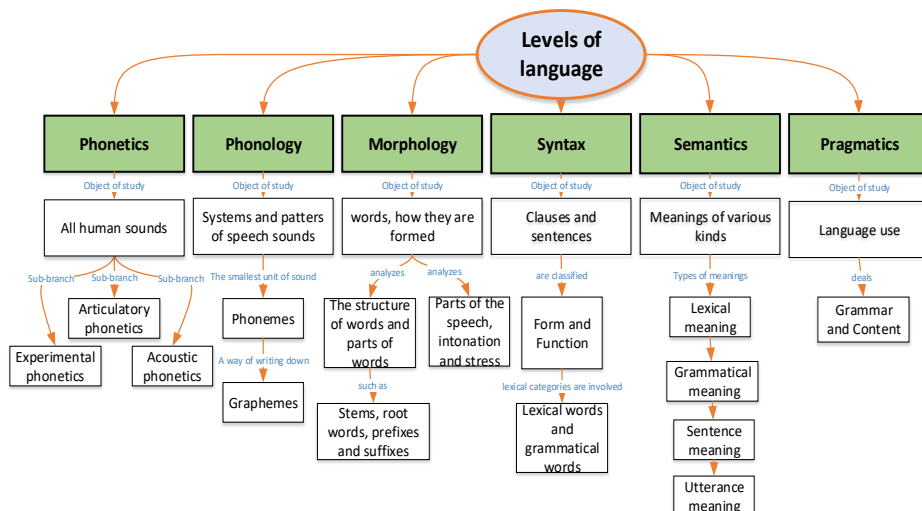
Source: *Authors.*

2.21. Phonetics level

According to Quilis (1993), phonetics belongs to the area of linguistics that studies the sounds that the human voice makes, the formation of sounds and their variants depending on the positioning (Figure 5 and Figure 6) of the different parts of the speech system, which include the tongue and the internal organs in the throat as shown in the illustration below (Figure 6).

(Lass, 1984) states that phonetics is a fundamental part of the process of learning a non-maternal language because it is the part of speech that allows us to pronounce each sound correctly: consonants, vowels, and words; leaving aside the language's typical intonation that people acquire from birth and uttering words like native speakers.

Figure 7. Consonants Chart.

Consonants (pulmonic)

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k g	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	N		
Trill	ʙ			r					R		
Tap or flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

Source: International Phonetic Association (IPA), Handbook.

If you want to learn more about Articulatory Phonetics, scan the code and check this video out (Image 1)

Image 1. *Articulatory Phonetics Video.*
Source: *https://www.youtube.com/watch?time_continue=58&v=dfoRdKuPF9I*
Note: *In the case that the QR code does not work, go to the web page link above.*

Figure 8. *The speech organs.*
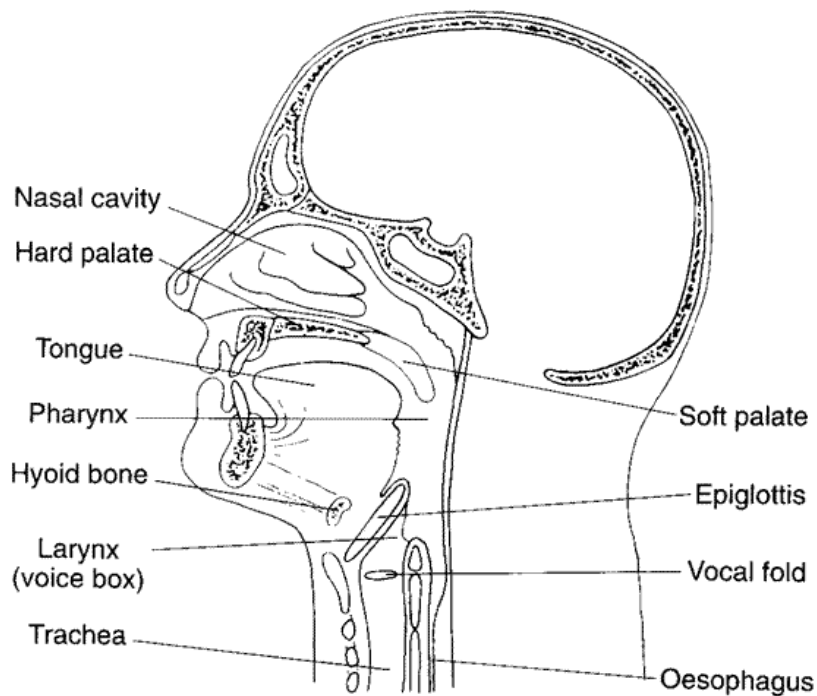
Source: *https://www.ling.upenn.edu/courses/Fall_2011/ling001/sagittal1.gif*

2.21.1. English vowels sounds

Vowels in English can be pronounced differently depending on where they are located and between what consonants are, by distinguishing twelve vowel sounds and eight diphthongs in total. This is a point to consider that not all English speakers share the same pronunciation. For instance, American English is different from British, Australian, and African English.

The following (Figure 9) depicts the mouth.

Figure 9. English Vowels.
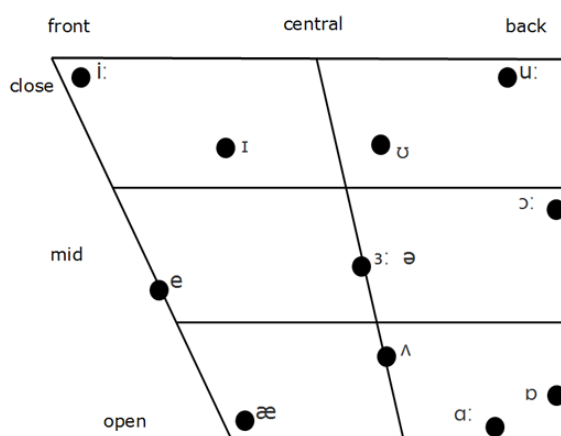
Source: IPA 1888.

For more vowel pronunciation information, scan the code and check this video out (Image 2)

Image 2. Articulatory Phonetics Video.
Source: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=j-27eVle65A
Note: In the case that the QR code does not work, go to the web page link above.

2.21.2. How to teach phonetics

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) has been used as a learning tool to memorize symbols related to home sounds (Figure 8). The most common way of working with phonetics is to imitate and repeat sounds.

It is recommended that the students who want to learn an additional language listen to music and repeat the sounds they hear.

Besides sounds, spelling is equally important. Learning phonetics and phonology is the way to learn to speak an additional language well.

Figure 10. *International Phonetic Alphabet*

						John & Sarah Free Materials 1996
Iː READ	**I** SIT	**ʊ** BOOK	**uː** TOO	**ɪə** HERE	**eI** DAY	
e MEN	**ə** AMERICA	**ɜː** WORD	**ɔː** SORT	**ʊə** TOUR	**ɔI** BOY	**əʊ** GO
æ CAT	**ʌ** BUT	**ɑː** PART	**ɒ** NOT	**eə** WEAR	**ɑI** MY	**ɑʊ** HOW
p PIG	**b** BED	**t** TIME	**d** DO	**tʃ** CHURCH	**dʒ** JUDGE	**k** KILO	**g** GO
f FIVE	**v** VERY	**θ** THINK	**ð** THE	**s** SIX	**z** ZOO	**ʃ** SHORT	**ʒ** CASUAL
m MILK	**n** NO	**ŋ** SING	**h** HELLO	**l** LIVE	**r** READ	**w** WINDOW	**j** YES

Source: *IPA 1888.*

2.21.3. Branches of phonetics

According to Nesaab (2019), the branches of phonetics are:

2.21.3.1. Experimental phonetics

This subfield deals with the physical element of vocal sounds. Researchers collect and quantify data on the emission and production of sound waves that

configure the articulated sound. Instruments such as X-rays are used in this field to track intensity curves.

2.21.3.2 Articulatory phonetics

This area studies the physiological aspect of speech production, examining what oral organs are involved in producing sounds, as well as the position of organs and how air exits through the mouth, nose, or throat to produce different sounds.

Articulation of sounds involves organs which can be moving or non-moving.

The moving organs are the lips, the jaw, the tongue, and the vocal cords, and these are called articulatory organs. The speaker uses these organs to modify the output of the air that comes from the lungs.

The non-moving organs are the teeth, alveoli, hard palate, and soft palate. Sounds are produced when two articulatory organs come into contact.

Different kinds of vowels are uttered depending on the position of the tongue, both the position of its vertical axis (high, medium, and low), as well as its horizontal axis (back, central and front).

2.21.3.3 Acoustic Phonetics

Acoustic phonetics focuses on the sound wave as the output of any resonator; it identifies the phonatory system with any other system of sound emission and reproduction. In terms of communication, sound waves are of greater interest than the articulation or production of sounds.

2.22. Phonology level

Phonology is the branch of linguistics that studies sound patterns in language; it refers to language's physical articulation. The basic units of phonology are phonemes represented between two slashes **/ /.** Phonemes represent sounds but not letters. e.g.

| / haʊs / | **house** | the word ***house*** has 5 graphemes |
| / maʊntɪn / | **mountain** | the word ***mountain*** has 8 graphemes |

A speaker can utter a huge variety of sounds. It is possible to recognize those that represent the *'same'* sound, although the ways of pronouncing said sound are different from an acoustic point of view. Likewise, it is possible to distinguish between sounds that signal a difference in meaning. e.g.

cut /**cat**   /kʌt/ - /kæt/
it /**eat**   /ɪt/ - / iːt/

Each time a word is spoken, it is never the same because each utterance depends on the other sounds around it. The sounds take on different values according to the function they occupy in a given context. However, some features do not vary, allowing the sounds to recognize without confusion, whatever their position. The sounds that make up a word are the minimum units that make one word sound different from another.

2.22.1. The importance of phonetics and phonology in the english language

In the English language, it is vital to know how to correctly pronounce words for better communication so that the people you are communicating with can understand you when you are speaking. It is essential to learn about phonetics and phonology in English.

2.22.2. Identifying phonemes and graphemes

There is no direct correlation between phonemes and graphemes in English. i.e., those words are not literally written as they are pronounced. Students may find it problematic since some are accustomed to having a direct relationship between phonemes and graphemes in their mother tongue.

Thus, it is quite interesting to realize that from their first contact with English as a foreign language, students begin to familiarize themselves with this aspect of the language and start to analyze its main phonetic characteristics, exposing them from the very first day to real productions in the second language. i.e., students start learning how each grapheme in the alphabet sounds to assimilate English as quickly as possible.

2.22.3. Improving pronunciation

Another problem that can appear from the lack of correlation between phonemes (*sound*) and graphemes (written *patterns*) is that words are not read

literally but rather are pronounced differently from the way they are written. Thus, it is necessary to analyze the pronunciation of phonemes in the foreign language in

general, which has the positive side effect of improving pronunciation in the second language.

For instance:

Phoneme	*Word*	*Grapheme*
/ haʊs /	**house**	the word *<h>, <o>, <u>, <s>, <e>* has 5 graphemes
/maʊntɪn /	**mountain**	the word *<m>, <o>, <u>, <n>, <t>, <a>, <i>, <n>* has 8 graphemes

In conclusion, using phonetics and phonology to learn about different sounds and sound systems ensures that students will understand how different vowels and consonants are pronounced as they learn the English language.

2.23. Morphology level

The authors (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2004) define morphology as the area of linguistics that studies the mental system involved in forming words. Morphology studies words, their internal structure, and how they are formed.

Morphology (EcuRed, 2019) is the branch of linguistics that is responsible for studying the individual parts of a sentence, as well as studying components within words such as lexemes and morphemes. Morphology examines grammatical categories such as determiners, pronouns, personal pronouns, proper nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions. These categories are going to be described below.

DETERMINERS

Determiners shown in Table 8 are words that make specific the sense of a noun and provide some information about it.

Table 8. Types of Determiners.

Types of Determiners			
Articles	**Quantifiers**	**Demonstrative**	**Numbers**
Indefinite Articles: A, and Definite Article: The	1. How many? 2. How much? Some, many most, several, some, no, enough, any, every, more, much, (a) few, much. a little, less, a bit (of), a great deal of, all, each, lot of, plenty of, both, another, etc.	this, that, these, those	Cardinal: One, two, three, etc. Ordinal: first, second. third, etc.
Distributives	**Possessives**	**Difference Words**	**Defining Words**
both, half, each, every, either, and neither	mine, yours, his, hers, its, my, you're his, her, it	Other, another	Which, whose

Adapted from: *(Grammar & Determiners: Definition, 2020)*

PRONOUNS

The pronoun shown in Table 9 is a word that substitutes a noun or noun phrase.

Table 9. *Types of Pronouns.*

Subject pronouns	Object pronouns	Possessive Adjectives	Possessive Pronouns	Reflexive Pronouns	Relative Pronouns	Interrogative Pronouns	Indefinite Pronouns
I	Me	My	Mine	Myself	Who	Who	All, another, any, anybody, anyone, anything, both, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything, few, many, most, much, neither, no one, nobody, none, nothing, one, other, others, several, some, somebody, someone, and something.
You	You	Your	Yours	Yourself	Whom	Whom	
He	Him	His	His	Himself	Which	Which	
She	Her	Her	Hers	Herself	That	Whose	
It	It	Its	(not used)	Itself	Whose	What	
We	Us	Our	Outs	Ourselves			
You	You	Your	Yours	Yourselves			
They	Them	Their	Theirs	Themselves			

Adapted from: (Thurman, 2003)

NOUNS

Nouns shown in Table 10 are words used to name a person, animal, place, thing, and abstract idea.

Table 10. *Types of Nouns.*

Common	Proper	Countable	Uncountable
boy, country, animal, religion, food.	George, Ecuador, Riobamba.	Apple, desk, pencil, house, clock.	Wood, air, milk happiness
Concrete	**Abstract**	**Compound**	**Collective**
lion, tree, water, television, flower	Love, belief, fear, freedom, happiness.	snowball, son-in-law, textbook, seafood, t Technical College.	Team, family, jury, audience, government, herd, pack, an army of ants, a flock of birds.

Adapted from: *(Thurman, 2003).*

VERBS

The verb given in Table 11 follows the subject; it generally shows the action of the sentence.

Table 11. *Types of Verbs*

Regular Verbs: The past and past participle forms of these types of verbs are made by adding "*d*" or '-ed."	Irregular Verbs These verbs vary the spelling patterns in past and past participle verb form.	Linking Verbs Connect the subject to a subject complement that identifies or describes the subject (appear, become, feel, look, taste, turn, sound, seem, grow)
walk-walked-walked clean-cleaned-cleaned talk-talked-talked accept-accepted-accepted	eat-ate-eaten think-thought- thought bring-brought-brought buy-bought-bought drive-drove-driven feel-felt-felt	The lamb stew tasted good. Subject linking verb-subject complement
Transitive Verbs These are those action verbs that tell what the subject is doing.	Intransitive Verbs These verbs cannot be attached directly to a noun; they need a preposition	Finite Verbs Can change their form in accordance with the subject.
run, jump, walk, swim, tell, lift, sit, play, write, act, kick, dance, smile	Amanda rises slowly from her seat.	I eat a cake/ He eats cake. /they eat cake.
Infinite Verbs These are verbs that have "to" before them. They are used at the beginning of the sentence.	Helping/Modal verbs These are auxiliary verbs used to express abilities, possibilities, permissions, and obligations.	Phrasal Verbs They are combinations of words that are used together to take on a different meaning.
To see is to believe	Can, Could, Might, May, Should, Would, Must	Point out Get over Get along

Source: *adapted by Authors*

TYPES OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives modify nouns, and these are the most common adjectives

Table 12. Types of Adjectives

Possessive Adjectives Indicate ownership	Demonstrative Adjectives Answer the question *which one?* They point out particular nouns	Indefinite Adjectives Describe a noun in a non-specific way	Interrogative Adjectives They appear in interrogative sentences. English has three interrogative adjectives.
My, your, his, her, its, our, their.	this, that, these, those, etc.	any, many, some, several, etc.	What, Which, Whose, Where
Descriptive Adjectives Describe the characteristics of a noun	**Distributive adjectives** Refers to each one of a number; they are four.	**Adjectives of Quality** They show the kind and quality of a person or thing	**Adjectives of Quantity** Describe the exact or approximate amount of a noun.
Size: small, big, huge *Color*: red, green, blue *Shape*: round, boxy, square *Taste*: sweet, salty, sour *Odor*: fresh, stinky musty *Texture*: furry, bumpy, smooth *Sound*: harmonious, loud, quite *Number*: few, fifty Many *Weather*: dry, clear, foggy More…	each, every, either, neither	beautiful, good brave, red, tall stupid, careful, etc.	all half no few many little enough

Adapted from: *(Whorf, 1966)*

TYPES OF ADVERBS

These words modify a verb, adjective, or another adverb.

Table 13. Types of Adverbs

Adverb of Time Tells when the action takes time	Adverb of Place It tells when the action takes place	Adverb of Manner It tells how an action is being performed	Adverb of Degree Tells the degree to which an action is performed
Yesterday, ago, yet, once, never, tomorrow, soon, lately, etc.	here, back, everywhere, backward, downstairs, upwards, anywhere, somewhere, near, far, outside, under, behind, etc.	Beautifully, carefully, bravely, easily, gently, perfectly, quietly, fast, slowly, quickly	Very, extremely, rather, almost, absolutely, barely, completely, almost, much, quite, really, so, too
Adverb of frequency Tells in what frequency the action takes place	Adverb of Attitude Tells the state or action described in the sentence	Conjunctive (Connecting/linking) Adverbs Are words to connect one sentence to another	Interrogative adverb Use to ask question
Always, usually, normally, often, sometimes, occasionally, hardly ever, never, ever, daily, nightly, weekly, monthly, yearly, annually	fortunately, apparently, clearly, unfortunately	also, meanwhile, consequently, nevertheless, finally, next, furthermore, otherwise, however, still, indeed, then instead, therefore, likewise, thus	What, When, How, Why, Where.

Source: adapted by Authors

TYPES OF PREPOSITIONS

These are words that show the relationship between nouns, pronouns, and phrases to other words in a sentence.

Table 14. Types of Prepositions

Preposition of Time It tells when something happened	Preposition Movement Tells the position of something or someone	Preposition of Place (Location) Tells where something or someone is located	Preposition of Direction It tells the direction of something
on at in on from to for past since until upon ago after before by during	into toward/towards from along against to down off on onto up	in on at by inside near behind between over above below under beside	towards to through into
Preposition of Agent It tells a causal relationship between the noun and the action	**Preposition of Manner/ Agent/ Instrument** Used for a thing which is caused by another thing in the sentence	**Preposition of phrase (Compound)** Are two-word prepositions	**Prepositions of Movement** They describe the way something or someone moves from one place to another
by with	by with on	listen to add to agree with according to because of next to due to	to

Source: *adapted by Authors*

TYPES OF CONJUNCTIONS

A conjunction joins two words, ideas, phrases together and shows they are connected.

Table 15. Types of Conjunctions

Types of Conjunctions		
Coordinating Conjunctions	**Subordinating Conjunctions**	**Correlative Conjunctions**
These words join two words or phrases that are equally important and complete in terms of grammar when compared with each other.	Join an independent and complete clause with a dependent clause that relies on the main clause for meaning and relevance	They are pairs of conjunctions used in a sentence to join different words or groups of words within a sentence together
for and nor but or yet soon so	*Comparison* than rather than whether as much as *Time* although after until whenever now that once before *Concession* though although even though *Relative pronouns* who whoever whom whomever whose *Reason* because since so that in order (to) as *Condition*	both / and either / or rather / than just as / so neither / nor not only / but (also) whether / or hardly / when though / yet etc.

if only if unless provided that assuming that *Place* where wherever *Relative adjectives* that whatever which whichever *Manner* how as though as if	

Source: *Adapted from (7ESLCom.2020)*

The author Bybee (1985), describes how morphology studies the structure of words and parts of words such as stems, root words, prefixes, and suffixes. Morphology also analyzes parts of speech, intonation, and stress.

2.23.1. Word / Stem

According to Aronoff & Fudeman (2004) (n/d) defines, "A stem is a base morpheme which another morphological piece is attached to. This can be simple, composed of only one part, or complex, itself composed of more than one piece" (p. 3).

2.23.2. Root

"Root is like a stem in constituting the core of the word to which other pieces attach, but the term refers only to morphologically simple units" (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2004*, n/d p.3)*

2.23.3. Prefix

According to BBC Dictionary (2019), "A prefix is a group of letters that you can add to the beginning of a root word to change the meaning of the word."

See the example*:*

happy - is a root word

Un*happy **- is a new word-stem*

2.23.4. Suffix

A suffix is a word ending or a group of letters that can be added to the end of a root word.

For example*:*

brother - is a root word

brother**hood** *- is a new word-stem*

2.23.5. The most common suffixes

Here there is a list of the most common suffixes with the meaning and examples shown in (Table 16).

Table 16. *Common suffixes*

NOUN ENDINGS

Suffix	Meaning	Example
-age	action or process; house; rank	drainage, orphanage, marriage
-al	action or process	rehearsal, disposal, reversal
-an, -ian	of or related to; a person specializing in	guardian, historian
-ance, -ence	action or process, state of	adolescence, dalliance
-ancy, -ency	quality or state	agency, vacancy, latency
-ant, -ent	one that causes action, state	dissident, miscreant, student
-ary	thing belonging to, connected with	adversary, dignitary, library
-cide	killer, killing	suicide, homicide, pesticide
-cy	action or practice, state, quality of	democracy, legitimacy, supremacy
-er, -or	one that is, does, or performs	builder, foreigner, sensor, voter
-ion, -tion	act or process, state, or condition	demolition, dominion, persecution
-ism	act, practice, or process; doctrine	criticism, feminism, imperialism
-ist	one who does	cellist, anarchist, feminist
-ity	quality, state, degree	calamity, amity, veracity
-ment	action or process, result, object	entertainment, amusement
-ness	state, condition, quality, degree	happiness, kindness, quickness
-ology	doctrine, science, theory	biology, theology
-or	condition, activity	candor, succor, valor
-sis	process or action	diagnosis, metamorphosis
-ure	act or process, office, or function	censure, legislature, exposure
-y	state or condition, activity	laundry, sympathy, anarchy

Source*: Difficult Words and Their Definitions. The most common suffixes, their meanings, and some examples of words. School. Teaching English grammar. Teaching English, English grammar",*
2019.

To sum up, word parts or stems are the puzzle pieces of the language given in Table 17.

***Table 17.** Stems formation*

	word base	
PREFIX	**ROOT**	**SUFFIX**
Come before the root		Added on
STEMS		

For instance:

An example is given in Table 18.

***Table 18.** Stems formation*

	word base	
RE	**PLACE**	**MENT**
Come before the root		Added on
REPLACEMENT		

2.23.6. Morphological analysis of a sentence

There is an example here.

Amanda goes to the university.

The phrase is formed of 5 words

1. **Amanda**: Proper noun- female-singular

2. **goes**: Verb to go- the third person of singular- present indicative

3. **to**: Preposition

4. **the**: Determiner, female, singular

5. **university**: Common noun – female – singular

2.24. Part of the speech

2.24.1. Intonation

"Intonation has to do with the movements or variations in pitch to which we attach familiar labels describing level, e.g.(high/low) and tones (e.g., falling/rising)" (Ranalli, 2002).

According to Goodoy (2019), "Intonation is about how we say things, rather than what we say. Without intonation, it is impossible to understand the expressions and thoughts that go with words. Listen to somebody speaking without paying attention to the words: the melody you hear in the intonation" (p.1).

L2 learners who already use their L1 intonation may be the most unconscious resource to communicate and might apply this language acquisition strategy to their L2 spoken discourse (Anderson-Hsieh et al., 1992; Best, 1995; García Lecumberri, 1995).

2.24.2 English intonation patterns

According to Oxford (2019), there are 7-intonation patterns in English

1. **Rising:**

2. **Falling**

3. **Rising-falling**

4. **Falling-rising**

5. *Flat*

6. *High*

7. *Low*

The most important are the first four intonation patterns, and *flat*, *high* and *low* are uncommon patterns.

To learn more about intonation patterns, scan the code and check this video out (Image 3)

Image 3. *Intonation patterns.*

Source: *https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=A6aE4nceJt8*

In the case that the QR code does not work, go to the web page link above.

2.24.3. Stress

It is the emphasis given to a particular word or syllable. This emphasis can be lexical or syntactic... They can provide emphasis upon certain words and contrasts or focus on meaning (Sankin, (1979) [1966]).

Stress or accent, according to Fry (1955), is relative emphasis or prominence given to a specific syllable in a word or a particular word in a phrase or sentence. If you want to learn more about stress, scan the code and check this video out (Image 4)

Image 4. *Stress.*

Source: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Vu6UVwkUgzc

Note: In the case that the QR code does not work, go to the web page link above.

2.25. Syntax level

The author (Hickey, 2019) describes the syntax level as the sentence level of language. This area of linguistics studies how linguistic units (words) are combined to express or form ideas through sentences and phrases. The basic unit in syntax is the morpheme. At this level, groups of words are also analyzed.

2.25.1. Acquisition of syntax

Behaviorism was a school of thought in psychology in the first part of the 20th century that supported those children gained knowledge of their native language by imitation. However, the generative grammar in the 1950s supported that there are some points of view; the first one was that sentences are learned by children imitating the language of adults, and finally they learn sentences by heart, and the second one Adults can produce sentences because of the process described below (Chiesa, 1994).

Input   Language hears in child´s surrounding

Step 1   Abstraction of structures from actual sentences

Step 2   Internalization of these structures as sysntactic templates (unconscious

knowledge)

2.25.2. Syntax sentence analysis

According to Hickey (2019, p.70), there are some models of syntax analysis to show the underlying structure of a sentence. It is evident that we have a mental grammar of our native language; otherwise, comprehensible speech would not be possible.

In the following sentence below, there is an example of an internal structure computer analysis.

Amanda goes to the university.

```
          +-----Js----+
     +--Ss--+-MVp+   +---Ds---+
     |      |    | |          |
Amanda goes.v to the university.n


Constituent tree:


(S (NP Amanda)
   (VP goes
       (PP to
           (NP the university)))))
```

2.25.3. Structure of clauses and sentences: form and function

The words in the sentences are classified in some ways, and it is essential to distinguish between form and function. According to the **form**, a word can belong to a specific lexical class; for instance, the word *book* is a noun. According to the **function,** a noun may usually be a subject or an object. See the following example:

*The **book** is expensive.*   Versus   *I read a **book**.*

- 81 -

According to Goddard & Cliff (1998) state, "many lexical categories are involved in these sentences such as nouns and verbs and grammatical words" shown below. (cited by (Hickey, 2019, p.65).

Lexical words

Nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs

Grammatical words

Auxiliary verbs

may, might, must, will, can, could, should

Determiners

Definite and indefinte articles, demonstrative pronouns, possessive pronouns

Prepositions

on, over, towards, under, against, beside, at, around

Personal pronouns

I, you, he, she, it, we, they; me, his, her, its, us, them

Quantifiers

very, more, too, a lot, all

Qualifiers

maybe, never, almost, always

Conjunctions

and, or, although,

2.25.4. Difference between morphology y syntax

As explained by (Borer, 2017), across all languages around the world, grammar is typically divided into two domains: morphology and syntax. The connection between the two is as follows:

Morphology explains the internal structure of words, while syntax describes how words combine to form syntagmas, sentences, and phrases.

2.26 Semantics level

The author (Abusalim, 2016) states that Semantics is the study of the meaning of morphemes, words, phrases, and sentences in Human language; it could be *meaning* that we find in life, it could be *meaning* that you find in a painting, it could also be *meaning* that you find in music, however the *meaning* we are concerning is the *meaning* in language, e.g., English, Spanish, French.

There are four types of meanings:

1. **Lexical meaning:** (Related to the words or vocabulary of a language).

2. **Grammatical meaning:** (Is the meaning conveyed in a sentence by word order and other grammatical signals).

3. **Sentence meaning:** (Is directly connected to the grammar. Results from the combination of words/morphemes in a sentence and the way they put together).

4. **Utterance meaning:** (Is related to both grammar and context: It is the meaning behind the action of uttering something and may involve intentions of speakers/hearers and other aspects of context.

2.27. Pragmatics level

Pragmatics, according to (Mey, 1993), is described as a field that studies the use of language or why language is used in speech. In other words, the communicative intent and how language is appropriate to the context in which it is used. This level is formed by a set of coherent phrases based on reality, which makes it possible for people to engage in a broad and complex dialogue with others. For example, presentations speeches.

Pragmatics studies the use of language and includes gestures, eye movement, body position, volume-intonation-rhythm, and paralinguistic aspects.

In Pragmatics, the same phrase can have several meanings depending on the context.

For example:

Go ahead and take another chocolate.

Go! Go! Go!

2.27.1. Pragmatic theories

There are three pragmatic theories.

1.   Speech-act theory

An act that involves the use of natural language and is subject to pragmatic rules or principles. It can be divided into ***Direct*** and ***Indirect.***

Direct: Intentional and explicit linguistic actions. Divided into:

        Assertive: affirm or deny a fact

        Expressive: demonstrates the receiver's mood

        Interrogative: the purpose is to obtain information

        Indirect: indirect interrogative actions

Indirect: Linguistic acts in which the intention is not expressed directly. These are also divided into Assertive, Expressive, and Interrogative.

2.   Relevance Theory

Language is a result of how the linguistic system interacts with other general abilities (Abstention, manifestation, inference, supposition, context).

This theory describes how speakers make deductions and inferences from what is said in a conversation.

Coherence*:* the semantic quality of texts, whereby relevant and irrelevant information is selected to maintain unity and organize the communicative structure in a specific way.

Cohesion*:* how the components from the structure of the text are connected to the sequence.

3. Conversational Maxims Theory:

The way human beings interact: we speak to obtain or give information, motivate, entertain, convince or persuade. In other words, the principle of cooperation states that we will say what is appropriate and assume that others will too.

Figure 11 is presented a summary of Communicative Linguistic Competence given in this study.

Figure 11. *Communicative Linguistic Competence*
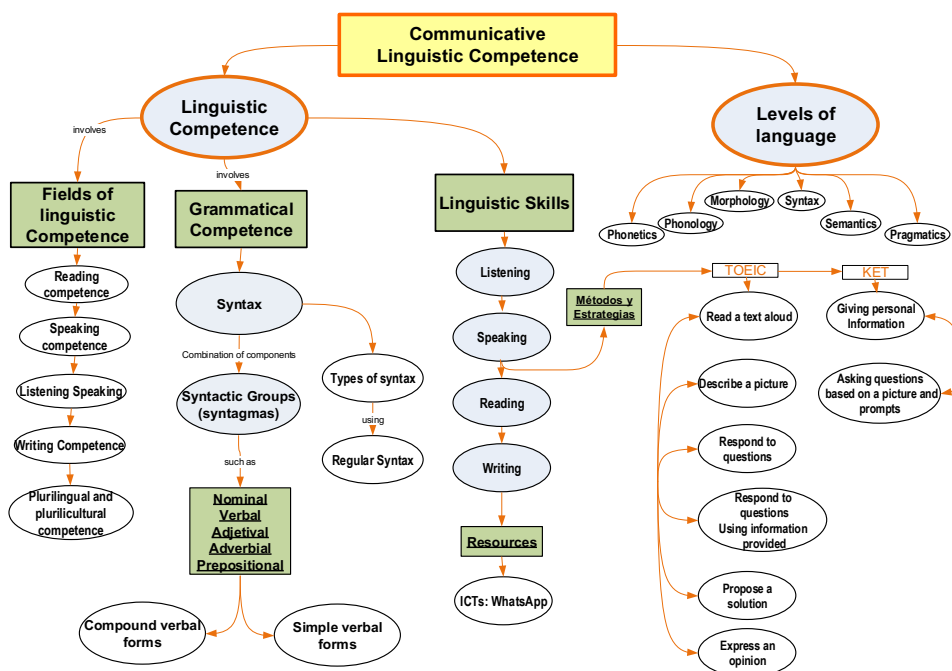
Source: *Authors*

CHAPTER III

3.1. What is grammar?

Grammar studies the words and the ways how they work together to build a sentence.

3.2. Why is grammar important?

Grammar is really important to establish well-organized communication, so any person who wants to communicate in any language consciously or unconsciously becomes aware of the grammar rules of that language. So, in this context, to speak more clearly and effectively, everybody must study and know grammar.

On the other hand, when a person does not have deep knowledge of grammar, he could think that using simple words or phrases is enough for simple language use, but the person who knows that English is useful and is conscious that grammar is essential to communicate artistically with well-defined structures, this person must go for the greater depth of understanding and proficiency that the study of grammar offers everybody.

3.3. Grammar tenses reference

Grammar is one of the language components, together with the sound system and the vocabulary. The vocabulary is pronounced and used in grammatical constructions, the grammar is expressed through words and the sound system, and all these are represented through writing.

The term Tense comes from the Latin word "Tempus," which means time; the Tense of a verb shows the time when the action or condition occurred.

According to (Li & Shirai, 2000), posits Tense and Aspect are two of the most important grammatical systems for expressing temporal concepts in the world languages given in Table 19. Aspect is the action relates to time is one of the central conceptual domains of language, and the acquisition of the ability to talk about time, and Tense is used to refer to the location of an event of time, respect to some other time at which the speaker utters the speech time.

To illustrate these definitions with some examples.

Example 1:

I was having breakfast yesterday.

In the sentence above, the Tense/Time is past, and the Aspect is continuous: it is past continuous.

Example 2:

He is writing the poem for hours.

In the sentence above, the Tense/Time is present, and the Aspect is perfect continuous: it is present perfect continuous.

Example 3:

They will enjoy the game.

In the sentence above, the Tense/Time is future, and the Aspect is simple: it is future simple.

Every English verb form has two parts; the first part is the Tense or Time; present, past, and future. The second part is the Aspect; simple, perfect, progressive, perfect progressive, and you can combine these in twelve different ways.

There are twelve tenses in English.

There are three Tenses/Times and four Aspects, and combining all of them together in different ways are twelve tenses in English.

Table 19. *English verb Tense and Aspect Chart.*

		Aspect			
		Simple	**Perfect**	**Progressive (Continuous)**	**Perfect Progressive (Perfect Continuous)**
Tense (Time)	**Present**	speak/speaks work/works	has/have spoken has/have worked	am/is/are speaking am/is/are working	has/have been speaking has/ have been working
	Past	spoke worked	had spoken had worked	was/were speaking was/were working	had been speaking had been walking
	Future	will speak will work	will have spoken will have walked	will be speaking will be working	will have been speaking Will have been walking

Adapted from: *(Larsen-Freeman, Celce-Murcia & Frodesen, n.d.).*

This part of the Grammar Reference explains in detail the necessary terms and some important rules. To avoid mistakes when you write or speak and also to reach an Effective communication skill.

3.3.1. Personal pronouns, possessive adjectives, object pronouns

Pronoun	I	You	He	She	It	We	They
Adjective	my	your	his	her	its	our	their
Object	me	you	him	her	it	us	them

Source: *The Authors*

3.3.2. Present simple to be

Affirmative		Negative		Question	Short Answers	
					Affirmative	**Negative**
Full form	**Short-form**	**Full form**	**Short-form**			
I am	I'm	I am not	I'm not	Am I?	Yes, I am.	No, I'm not.
You are	You're	You are not	You aren't	Are you?	Yes, you are.	No, you aren't.
He is	He's	He is not	He isn't	Is he?	Yes, he is.	No, he isn't.
She is	She's	She is not	She isn't	Is she?	Yes, she is.	No, she isn't.
It is	It's	It is not	It isn't	Is it?	Yes, it is.	No, it isn't.
We are	We're	We are not	We aren't	Are we?	Yes, we are.	No, we aren't.
They are	They're	They are not	They aren't	Are they?	Yes, they are.	No, they aren't.

Source: The Authors

3.3.3. "To Be": present, past, and future

Tense	Forms			
	Affirmative	**Negative**	**Yes/no Questions**	**Wh-Questions (What, Where, Who, When, Why, Which, How)**
Present	I am You are He She } is It We You } are They	I am not You are not He She } is not It We You } are not They	Am I? Are you? Is { he? she? it? Are { we? you? they?	Where { am I? are you? is { he? she? it? from? are { we? you they?
Past	I was You were He She } was It We You } were They	I wasn't You weren't He She } wasn't It We You } weren't They	Was I? Were you? Was { he? she? it? Were { we? you? they?	When { was I? were you? was { he? she? it? were { we? you they?
Future	I You He She } will be It'll be We You They *Contraction:* I **will be** = I'**ll be**	I You He She } will not be It } won't be We You They *Contraction:* I **will not be** = I **won't be**	Will { I You He She be? It We You They	What will { I be? you be? he be? she be? it be? we be? you be? they be?

Source: The Authors

3.3.4. Progressive: present, past, and future

Tense	Forms			
	Affirmative	**Negative**	**Yes/no Questions**	**Wh-Questions (What, Where, Who, When, Why, Which, How)**
Present	I am You are He is She is It is } **driving** We are You are They are	I'm not You aren't He isn't She isn't It isn't } **listening** We aren't You aren't They aren't	Am I Are you Is he Is she Is It } **working?** Are we Are you Are they	am I are you is he is she Where is it } **playing?** are we are you are they
Past	I was You were He was She was It was } **studying** We were You were They were	I wasn't You weren't He wasn't She wasn't It wasn't } **writing** We weren't You weren't They weren't	Was I Were you Was he Was she Was it } **eating?** Were we Were you Were they	was I were you was he was she When was it } **swimming?** were we were you were they
Future	I You He She It **will be drawing** We You They	I You He She It } **won't be singing** We You They	I You He Will She } **be sitting?** It We You They	I you he What will she } **be doing?** it we you they

Source: The Authors

3.3.5. Other verbs: present, past, and future

Tense	Forms			
	Affirmative	**Negative**	**Yes/no Questions**	**Wh-Questions** **(What, Where, Who, When, Why, Which, How)**

Present	I like
	You like
	He ⎫
	She ⎬ likes
	It ⎭
	
	We ⎫
	You ⎬ like
	They ⎭
		I don't like
		You don't like
		He ⎫
		She ⎬ doesn't like
		It ⎭
		
		We ⎫
		You ⎬ don't like
		They ⎭
			Do I like?
			Do you like?
			Does ⎰ he like?
			     ⎨ she like?
			     ⎱ it like?
			
			Do ⎰ we like?
			  ⎨ you like?
			  ⎱ they like?
				⎧ do I like?
				⎪ do you like?
				⎪ ⎰ he like?
				⎪ does ⎨ she like?
				Where ⎨ ⎱ it like?
				⎪ ⎰ we like?
				⎪ do ⎨ you like?
				⎩ ⎱ they like?

Past	I liked You liked He ⎫ She ⎬ liked It ⎭ We ⎫ You ⎬ liked They ⎭	I didn't like. You didn't like He ⎫ She ⎬ didn't like It ⎭ We ⎫ You ⎬ didn't like They ⎭	⎧ I ⎫ ⎪ you ⎪ ⎪ he ⎪ Did ⎨ she ⎬ like? ⎪ It ⎪ ⎪ we ⎪ ⎪ you ⎪ ⎩ they ⎭	⎧ I ⎫ ⎪ you ⎪ ⎪ he ⎪ When did ⎨ she ⎬ like? ⎪ it ⎪ ⎪ we ⎪ ⎪ you ⎪ ⎩ they ⎭
Future	I ⎫ You ⎪ He ⎪ She ⎬ will like It ⎪ We ⎪ You ⎪ They ⎭ *Contraction:* I will like = I'll like	I ⎫ You ⎪ He ⎪ She ⎬ will not like It ⎪ won't like We ⎪ You ⎪ They ⎭ *Contraction:* I will not like = I won't like	⎧ I ⎫ ⎪ you ⎪ ⎪ he ⎪ Will ⎨ she ⎬ like? ⎪ It ⎪ ⎪ we ⎪ ⎪ you ⎪ ⎩ they ⎭	⎧ I ⎫ ⎪ you ⎪ ⎪ he ⎪ What will ⎨ she ⎬ like? ⎪ it ⎪ ⎪ we ⎪ ⎪ you ⎪ ⎩ they ⎭

Source: *The Authors*

3.3.6. Perfect tenses: present, past, progressive

Forms	Present	Past	Progressive
Affirmative	I **have studied** late You have **written** a poem He **has found** an excuse She has **seen** a lion It **has gone** to Quito We have **met a** president You **have left** the school They **have started the** lesson* *Contraction:* * I **have studied** = **I've studied** * She **has seen** = She**'s seen**	I **had opened the** door You **had enjoyed** the party He **had taken** the plane She **had spoken in** English It **had flown** 2 days We **had had** some money You **had built** houses They **had gone** outside *Contraction:* * I **had closed** = I**'d closed**	I **have been living** in Quito You **have been working** He **has been sleeping** She**'s been listening to music** It**'s been crying** a lot We**'ve been going** to classes You**'ve been playing** basketball They**'ve been being** spied
Negative	I **have not felt** good You **haven't worked** hard He **hasn't lost** weight She **hasn't given** the task It **hasn't eaten** fruits We **haven't smoked** much You **haven't had** a job They **haven't stayed** home	I **had not driven** a car You **hadn't used** the tie He **hadn't visited** a doctor She **hadn't seen** his film It **hadn't heard** the noise We **hadn't met** friends They **hadn't sold** the house	I **had not been waiting** for you You **hadn't been writing** He **hadn't been calling** the police It **hadn't been ending** the food We **hadn't been meeting** You **hadn't been eating** frogs They **hadn't been paying** the wages.
Questions	**Have** you **chosen** the car ? **Have** he **worked** hard? **Has** she **read** that book? **Has** it **fed** the baby? **Have** we **done** the laundry? **Have** you **given** a party? **Have** they **had** a problem?	**Had** you **driven** a truck? **Had** he **bought** her a present? **Had** she **done** her task? **Had** it **spent** time? **Had** we **hired** the house? **Had** you **been** in Europe? **Had** they **stolen** the money?	**Had** you **been watering** the plants? **Had** he **been taking out** the garbage? **Had** she **been missing** her parents? **Had** it **been breaking** the window? **Had** we **been earning** a lot of money? **Had** you **been taking** pills? **Had** they **been arguing?**

Source: *The Authors*

3.3.7. Passive voice: present, past, future, and perfect

TENSE	FORMS
PRESENT	I **am answered** by the teacher.
	You **are invited** to the party by your friends
	He **is asked** about possible solutions.
	She **is called** by her boss
	It **is watered** by the lady
	We **are drawn** by the painter
	You **are found** by the teachers.
	They **are stolen** by the thieves.
PAST	I **was paid** my salary
	You **were injured** by the accident
	He **was born** in England
	She **was woken** up by the noise
	It **was built** in 1060
	We **were bitten** by a dog last week
	You **were seen** at the movies by your mother
	They **were exported** by the company
FUTURE	The problems **will be forgotten** by you soon.
	The room **will be cleaned** every day.
	Glass **will be made** from sand.
	That machine **will be used** very often
	This building **will be built** next year.
	Many trees **will be blown** down in the storm.
	Only two languages **will be spoken** in the world
PERFECT	I **have been accepted** to the university twice
	You **have been chosen** to work here.
	He **has been forgotten** since he left abroad.
	She **has been described** by her husband.
	The secret **has been kept** by the community.
	We **have been caught** by the police.
	You **have been heard** by the attorney.
	They **have been paid** very well in their company.

Source: *The Authors*

3.3.8. Modal auxiliaries: present, past, and future

Tense	Modals	Examples
Present	Can: May:	You **can** speak English She **can't** hear that noise They **may** go out tonight He **may** study with some friends
Past	Could	I **could** come on time yesterday **Could** He smell the fire?
Future	May Could Might	You **may** practice more English. Mary **couldn't** find the answer on the book It **might** rain today at night

OBLIGATION

Strong Obligation	Must	You **must** stop smoking She **must** pay the taxes We **must not** drink to much alcohol He **must** get a visa before traveling
Weak Obligation	Have to Ought to Had better	You **ought to** give money to the poor They **have to** study for the exam You **don't have to** gambling She **has to** borrow someone's car We **had better** go home early. She'**d better** try to find another job.
Recommendation	Should	You **should** lock your house They **shouldn't** steal anyone **Should** she start classes on time?
Conditional	Would = doesn't have meaning. Makes the verb conditional (in Spanish ends –ría)	I **would** like to travel to Europe She **wouldn't** like to work more **Would** you like to go to the movies? We'**d** love to but we have to study for the exam.

Source: *The Authors*

3.3.9. Adjectives

Source: *The Authors*

3.3.10. Adverbs

Adverbs

These are words that modify verbs, adjectives, another adverbs or even whole sentences.

Describing verbs

When adverbs modify verbs, they usually describe how, when, where, how much, how many, how often the action happens.

- My dad drives carefully. (How)
- I attend class every day. (How often)
- We used to live here. (Where)
- He ate a little. (How much)
- Samuel arrived on Monday. (When)

Describing adjectives

When adverbs describe adjectives they are placed before it to show degree.

Amanda is a **very attractive** woman.

Children are **extremely smart**.

Tomás visited a **quite interesting** place

Describing other adverbs

These adverbs express a degree on how actions were performed.

The athlete ran **extremely quickly.**

The teacher was **surprisingly late.**

Time with family goes **really slowly.**

Note

Adverbs which show How an action is performed are called adverbs of manner. Many adverbs of manner are formed by adding -ly to the adjective form.

- He's a **slow** runner. (Adj)
- He runs **slowly.** (Adv)
- Carla is a **beautiful** singer. (Adj)
- Carla sings **beautifully.** (Adv)

special adverbs

Although many adverbs of manner end in -ly, there are some adverbs which are different. Here are some examples:

well, fast, hard, late, early, friendly

Source: *The Authors*

.

3.3.11. Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of frequency

These type of adverbs indicates how often the action occurs. Here you have a guide on how to use them and its equivalence.

Adverbs Of Frequency

100%	Always
90%	Usually
80%	Frequently
70%	Often
50%	Sometimes
30%	Occasionally
10%	Seldom
5%	Rarely
0%	Never
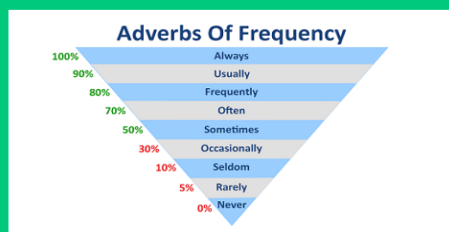
Position

Adverbs of frequency usually come before the main verb and after the verb "be"

- Class **always finishes** before 6 p.m.
- I **never go out** in the rain.
- We **often have** breakfast early in the morning.
- They **are never** late for class.
- We**'re sometimes** disconnected from reality.
- He **is usually** tired. He must be sick.

Some adverbs, however, can appear at the beginning of the sentence or at the end:

Sometimes, we go fishing together.
Generally, police officers work night shifts.
Often, kids prefer sweet to savory foods.
I don't play sports very often.

Source: *The Authors.*

3.3.12. Comparatives and superlatives

Comparatives and Superlatives

Comparatives

Comparative adjectives are used to express the difference between two people, things, places, situations, etc.

Superlatives

Superlative adjectives are used to express how a person, thing, place, situation, etc is different from all the others of its kind.

Form and usage

Comparatives

Monosyllables	Multisyllables	2 syllables -y	Irregular
Add -er	Add more +Adj	Omit -y and add -ier (More: less common)	Have proper form
Taller Shorter Bigger Fatter Smaller Smarter	more Intelligent Beautiful Elegant Interesting Hardworking Honest	Happy: happier Noisy: Noisier Lazy: lazier Friendly: friendlier Healthy: healthier Heavy: heavier Easy: easier	Good: better Bad: worse Far: farther/further

Superlatives

Monosyllables	Multisyllables	2 syllables -y	Irregular
Add -est	Add the most +Adj	Omit -y and add -iest (More: less common)	Have proper form
Tallest Shortest Biggest Fattest Smallest Smartest	The most… Intelligent Beautiful Elegant Interesting Hardworking Honest	Happy: happiest Noisy: Noisiest Lazy: laziest Friendly: friendliest Healthy: healthiest Heavy: heaviest Easy: easiest	Good: best Bad: worst Far: farthest/furthest

NOTE:

Superlatives are often used with the perfect tense.

This is the best movie I have seen ever!

Henry is the most talented person I've ever met.

Galápagos islands is the most beautiful place I have visited.

Source: The Authors.

3.3.13. Enough

Enough

Enough means 'as much as necessary'. It can be used with an adjective, an adverb, a verb or a noun. It can also act as a pronoun.

Grammar and use

With adjectives and adverbs

Enough comes after adjectives and adverbs:
- Edgar is tall *enough* to join the basketball team
- You should run fast *enough* to win the race.

With verbs

Enough comes after verbs:
- Make sure to practice enough before you show up to the drivers test.
- You should drink enough water every day.

With nouns

Enough comes after nouns:
- Give plants enough time to bloom.
- I didn't buy the dress because I didn't have enough money with me.

As a pronoun

It can also be used without a noun:
- I don't need more reasons, I have enough!
- No more series for today, I've seen enough.

Enough of

We normally only use enough of when it is followed by a determiner or a pronoun (a/an/the, this/that, my/your/his, you/them, etc.).
- There isn't enough of that bread to make sandwiches for everyone.
- I've seen enough of his work to be able to recommend him.
- There's enough of us to make a difference.

Source: *The Authors.*

3.3.14. Possessives adjectives and pronouns

Source: *The Authors.*

3.3.15. Present perfect

The Present Perfect

The present perfect is a tense that links the past to the present in some way. That can mean talking about your life experience until now, or describing an action that started in the past and continues in the present, or talking about a recent event that is relevant to now.

- We never use a finished time with the present perfect Instead we use an unfinished time expression, like today, this week, this year, in your life. Compare the following:

Time expressions with Past Simple	Time expressions with Present Perfect
yesterday	today
last week	this week
last month	this month
last year	this year
between 1985 and 2017	since January 2018

Form

+	-	?
I've worked	I haven't worked	Have I worked?
You've worked	You haven't worked	Have you worked?
He/she/it's worked	He/she/it hasn't worked	Has he/she/it worked?
We've worked	We haven't worked	Have we worked?
You've worked	You haven't worked	Have you worked?
They've worked	They haven't worked	Have they worked?

Structure

Affirmative:
S+ HAVE/HAS+ Vpast part.+C
Negative
S+ HAVE/HAS + NOT+ Vpast part.+C
Interrogative
(WH)+HAVE/HAS+S+Vpast part.+C?

Source: *The Authors.*

3.3.16. For and since

For and since

Use

We often use for and since when talking about time.

for + period: a "period" is a duration of time - five minutes, two weeks, six years. For means "from the beginning of the period to the end of the period".

since + point: a "point" is a precise moment in time - 9 o'clock, 1st January, Monday. Since means "from a point in the past until now".

Examples

for a period from start to end	*since* a point from then to now
>====<	x===>|
for 20 minutes for three days for 6 months for 4 years for 2 centuries for a long time for ever	since 9am since Monday since January since 1997 since 1500 since I left school since the beginning of time
all tenses	perfect tenses

For

For can be used with all tenses. Here are a few examples:
- They study for two hours every day.
- He has lived in Bangkok for a long time.
- He has been living in Paris for three months.
- I worked at that bank for five years.
- We do not use for with "all day", "all the time":
  I was there all day. (not for all day)

Since

Since is normally used to say when the action began
- He has been here since 9am.
- He has been working since he arrived.
- I had lived in New York since my childhood.
We also use since in the structure "It is [period] since":
- It was a year since I had seen her.
- How long is it since you got married?

Source: *The Authors.*

3.3.17. Prepositions in, on, at

Prepositions in, on, at

In

We use **in** for MONTHS, YEARS, CENTURIES and LONG PERIODS

On

We use **on** for DAYS and DATES

At

We use **at** for A PRECISE TIME

EXAMPLES

at PRECISE TIME	in MONTHS, YEARS, CENTURIES and LONG PERIODS	on DAYS and DATES
at 3 o'clock	in May	on Sunday
at 10.30am	in summer	on Tuesdays
at noon	in the summer	on 6 March
at dinnertime	in 1990	on 25 Dec. 2010
at bedtime	in the 1990s	on Christmas Day
at sunrise	in the next century	on Independence Day
at sunset	in the Ice Age	on my birthday
at the moment	in the past/future	on New Year's Eve

Common expressions with at: at night, at the weekend, at Christmas, at the same time, at present

Common expressions with in: in the morning(s), in the afternoon(s), in the evening (s).

Common expressions with on: on tuesday morning, os Saturday morning(s), on sunday afternoon(s).

Source: The Authors.

3.3.18. Question formation

Question formation

There are two main ways to make questions in english.
- First, the beginning word order is reversed.

- Second, questions almost always need a helping verb along with the main verb.

Form

Question word +Aux +Subject +Main verb +Complement)

What do you want for dinner?

*What meds has the M.D. prescribed?

Where does the E.R. keep bandages?

When can I take a break?

When did the pain start?

How do you feel this morning?

How much do you weigh?

How often should I take this?

*How long have you had this cough?

*How long has he been sick?

*What color is the pill?

*When are you going to have surgery?

Why didn't you listen to the doctor?

Yes- No questions

Helping Vb	Subject	Main Verb	The Rest
Do	you	take	any pills?
Does	Ms. Jones	have	children?
Didn't	you	know	about it?
Should	I	give	the IV now?
Can	you	feel	this?
*Has	he	seen	a specialist?
*Have	you	taken	this before?
Are	you		ready now?
*Was	the doctor	listening	to his lungs?

- For perfect tenses the helping verb is 'have' and the main verb is in past participle form.
- For continuous tenses the helping verb is 'be' and the main verb is in the present participle form (-ing)

Source: *The Authors.*

3.3.19. Simple past vs. past continuous

SIMPLE PAST vs **PAST CONTINUOUS**

We use the **Simple Past** to talk about:

completed actions, **habits,** and **facts** in the past.

Examples:

Carolina **went** to the cinema **yesterday.**

I **always visited** my grandparents in my summer holidays **when I was a child**.

Lorena **lived** in Quito for a couple of years.

The **past continuous** is used to express:

Interrupted actions, **specific time** as an **interruption,** and **parallel** actions.

Examples:

○ I **was watching** TV **when** the phone rang.

○ **Last night at 7 pm,** Pablo **was having** dinner.

○ **While** Brianna **was doing** her homework, her brother **was playing** football.

Source: *The Authors.*

3.3.20. Use "ING" after prepositions

USE "ING"
AFTER PREPOSITIONS

FOR	ABOUT	OF	ON	IN
• Thanks **for** asking.	• They´re talking **about** going to the movies.	• I'm scared **of** swimming in the sea.	• We plan **on** getting married soon.	• Caro is interested **in** visiting museums.
• Schools are **for** learning.	• Rosa is thinking **about** getting divorced.	• He's always thinking **of** taking a vacation.	• Paulina is working **on** losing weight.	• I believe **in** telling the truth.
• Maria is famous for telling funny stories.	• How **about** going for a coffee?	• We're tired **of** working overtime.	• What did you do **on** seeing your results?	• They´re interested **in** buying my car.

Source: *The Authors.*

3.3.21. Some and any

SOME

SOME is used to mean 'a little' and 'a few'

Also, SOME can be used with both countable nouns (it mkeans a few) and uncountable nouns(it means a little)

SOME, when used with countable nouns, nouns are plural. When used with uncountable nouns, they are always singular.

Examples
I asked her to lend me some money
I have some work to do this evening.
He will bring some friends to the party next week.

ANY

ANY is used to mean 'no' or ' zero'

ANY can be used with both countable and uncountable names.

ANY, when it is used with countable nouns, they are always plural. when it is used with uncountable nouns, they always become singular.

Examples
I will not see him anymore.
There isn't any butter.
There aren't any clothes in the wardrobe.

Source: *The Authors.*

3.3.22. Question words

Source: *The Authors.*

3.3.23. Will vs. be going to

WILL VS **BE GOING TO**

Express future actions decide at the moment of speaking (**Immediate Decisions**)

I'll have coffee now.

Express future plans decide before the moment of speaking (**Prior Plans**)

I'm going to visit my aunt next Friday.

Express a prediction based on personal opinion or experiences (**Predictions without Evidence**).

I think United will win the game.

Express a prediction based on present evidence (**Predictions with Evidence**)

Look at those black clouds. It is going to rain.

A **future fact**.

The sun will rise tomorrow.

Something is about to happen.

Get back! The bomb is going to explode.

A **promise**.

I promise I won't tell anyone you broke the glass.

Both Will and Be Going to can be used for making future predictions without having a real difference in meaning.

I think it will be foggy tomorrow = I think it is going to be foggy tomorrow.

An **offer**

I'll take you to the airport tomorrow.

A **threat**.

I'll tell your parents what you did.

Source: *The Authors.*

3.3.24. Quantifiers

Source: The Authors.

3.3.25. Possessive nouns

POSSESSIVE NOUNS

Possessive nouns are those nouns that show possession.
Possessive nouns are used to show ownership.

Rule 1

In singular nouns (person, place, thing or idea), we add apostrophe and 's' after the noun.

Example:

- Rosa´s car is in the garage. (Car belonging to Rosa is in the garage)

Rule 2

In singular nouns ending with 's', we add an apostrophe and 's' to the noun.

Example:

- Joses´s notebook is on the desk. (Notebook of Jose´s is on the desk.)
- Pablo's wife is a teacher. (Wife of Pablo'sis a teacher.)

Rule 3

In singular nouns ending with 's' followed by a word starting with 's', we just add an apostrophe to the noun. This is to avoid a hissing sound.

Examples:

- Luis' school is in Quito.
- Jess' sister is a doctor.

Rule 4

In plural nouns (ending with 's'), we add apostrophe after 's'.

Example:

- Students' report cards are ready.
- Girls' dance classes have been postponed.

Rule 5

In irregular plural nouns (men, children) we add apostrophe and 's' to show possession.

Examples:

- Children's clothes are expensive. (Clothes of children are expensive)
- People's mindset needs to be changed. (Mindset of people needs to be changed)

Source: *The Authors.*

3.3.26. Subject vs. object pronouns

SUBJECT vs. OBJECT PRONOUNS

1. SUBJECT

Subject is the person or thing doing the action.

Subject generally precedes the verb.

Subject can be identified by using the question words what or who.

Subject can be classified as simple and complete subjects.

Subject agrees with the verb.

2. OBJECT

Object is the person or thing receiving the action.

Object generally follows the verbs.

Object can be identified by using the question word what or whom.

Object can be classified as direct and indirect object.

Object does not agree with the verb.

Source: The Authors

3.3.27. Subject and object pronouns

Subject and Object Pronouns

The SUBJECT PRONOUN will replace the subject in a sentence.

The OBJECT PRONOUN will replace the object in the sentence.

Characteristics
- The subject of a sentence is the noun which is doing the action.

Characteristics
- The object of a sentence is the noun that is having the action done to it.

Subject Pronouns
- I
- You
- He
- She
- It
- We
- They

Object Pronouns
- Me
- You
- Him
- Her
- It
- Us
- Them

Subject pronouns take the place of the part of the sentence which is performing the action.
- Luisa plays soccer with her friends.
- She plays soccer with her friends.

The following sentences show the noun and subject pronoun replacing each other.
- The students will study for the test.
- They will study for the test.

Object pronouns take the place of the part of the sentence which has the action being performed to it.
- Pedro asked Jhon several questions.
- Pedro asked him several questions.

The following sentences show the noun and object pronoun replacing each.
- Lorena talked to Robert about music.
- Lorena talked to him about music.

Source: *The Authors*

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TABLES INDEX

FIGURES INDEX

IMAGES INDEX

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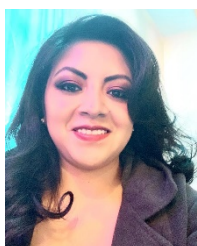
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Is a passionated English teacher who was born in Riobamba-Ecuador. She has been teaching for more than 14 years. She started teaching children at Comil Elementary School and her 10th year teaching University students. She knows that successful students become successful adults. So far, young students are her favorite group to teach! Mrs. Yumi received her Professor excellent Certification every single academic period at the University. She loves English and majored in languages at National University of Chimborazo, where she also earned her computing degree and her Master of Linguistic degree was earned at Central University of Ecuador. She has been working on many research and has written several scientific papers. She is part of a research group at Espoch university. Lorena is excited to learn more interesting and useful things to continue being an excellent teacher and being the best friend to her students!

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