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Welcome to American TESOL Institute

American TESOL Advanced Course E-Book

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Submission Guidelines

Assignments are to be submitted and graded according to the following guidelines:

Grading Schedule

Assignments are graded on the next business day from when they are received. Sunday will be the only day that work will not be graded. Therefore, all assignments submitted on Saturday and Sunday (EST) will be graded and reviewed on Monday. All major holidays such as Thanksgiving, Christmas and New Year's Day will be the exception.

Grades

One half of a point is deducted for misspelled words.
Major grammatical errors will result in three deducted points.
Any average above 70 is considered a passing grade.
Your exact score for this course will not be reflected on the certificate.

Resubmission

Work may be resubmitted one time.

Depth and Scope of Assignments

Questions requiring a short response should be typed in paragraph form in 2-4 sentences, and key terms must be identified.
Essays should be about 2-3 paragraphs in length, which consist of about 4-5 sentences each.
The thesis for the Advanced Program should be 1-2 pages.
You may paraphrase or directly quote from the text or outside sources as long as you cite the source and page number.

English Competency

Students must demonstrate fluency in English in their answers. As stated on our website, American TESOL recommends that non-native English speakers have a 550 TOEFL score (220 CBT) or an IELTS score of 6.0 to enable them to successfully complete an online or in-class American TESOL certification.

Note:

We always recommend that you use a backup source to save your assignments for protection in cases of computer or internet malfunctions.

These assignments go along with the Cambridge Guide to TESOL which you will receive by mail.

Instructor:
Name:
Class: 80-hour TESOL Course
Date:

_____

American TESOL Assignments 1-5:
Chapters 1-3 of the Cambridge Guide to TESOL

_____

1. What do the acronyms TESOL, SLA, L1 and L2 stand for?

_____

Describe the "bottom-up" and "top-down" listening processes.

_____

2. Name and describe the four fundamental properties of spoken language.

_____

3. Name and describe three examples of input sources used to teach listening. These audio or video sources can be live or recorded.

_____

4. Name and describe the four major processes of speech production.

_____

5. Define pedagogy.

TESOL – TEACHING ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

Today, you will find many students who can communicate in a second language (L2) in addition to their native tongue (L1). By the process of second language acquisition (SLA), some of these students have learned how to read and write English well. However, while being literate in English is one thing, speaking English is another. Therefore, the goal of pedagogy (the art of instruction, the functions or work of a teacher, or the science of teaching) in TESOL is to enable students to communicate fluently in English. Fluency means being able to not only read and write but to also understand and speak a language.

Spoken Language

Spoken language is comprised of four fundamental properties. The phonological system refers to the phonemes used in a particular language, typically only 30 or 40 out of hundreds of possible phonemes.
Phonotactic rules are the sound sequences that a language allows to make up syllables. Tone melodies comprise the characteristic variations in high, low, rising and falling tones to indicate lexical or discourse meanings. And the stress system determines the way in which lexical stress is fixed within an utterance.

Language is in part speech, which is communication by voice using arbitrary sounds in conventional ways. It includes sound vibrations formed by a wide variety of body parts. Let us take a look at the different body parts used to produce language.

Nasal Cavity
The cavity lying between the floor of the cranium and the roof of the mouth and extending from the nose to the pharynx

Alveolar Ridge
A ridge that forms the borders of the upper and lower jaws and contains the sockets of the teeth

Lips
Two fleshy folds that surround the opening of the mouth

Teeth
One of a set of hard, bonelike structures rooted in sockets in the jaws of vertebrates, typically composed of a core of soft pulp surrounded by a layer of hard dentin that is coated with enamel at the crown and used for biting or chewing food or as a means of attack or defense

Apex
The highest point of the mouth

Lamina
A thin plate, sheet, or layer located in the rear of the mouth near the throat

Dorsum
The upper, outer surface of an organ, in this case the mouth

Larynx
The part of the breathing tract between the pharynx and the trachea that houses the vocal cords

Vocal cords
The organ consisting of cartilage, muscle, and folds of mucous membranes

Hard palate
The relatively hard, bony frontal portion on the roof of the mouth

Oral cavity
The opening through which sounds emerge audibly

Velum or soft palate
The muscular fold that is suspended from the rear of the hard palate and closes off the nasal cavity from the oral cavity during swallowing or sucking

Uvula
A small accumulation of tissue perched from the center of the soft palate

Pharynx
The opening section of the digestive tract that extends from the mouth and nasal cavities to the larynx where it connects to the esophagus

Alimentary canal
The mucous membrane-lined tube collaborating with the digestive system, also including the pharynx and esophagus

Language involves the way these body parts move to produce different sound vibrations and pitches. In teaching English you must be conscious of the way you, as an individual, form words. You must also support your students in transforming the way they move their mouths as they produce speech.

Speech production involves four major processes: conceptualization, formulation, articulation and self-monitoring. Conceptualization is concerned with planning the message content. It draws on background knowledge about the topic, speech situation and patterns of discourse. The conceptualizer includes a monitor; which checks everything that occurs in the interaction to ensure that the communication goes according to plan. This enables speakers to self-correct for expression, grammar and pronunciation. The formulator finds the words and phrases to express the meanings, sequencing them

and putting in appropriate grammatical markers. It also prepares the sound patterns of the words to be used. Articulation involves the motor control of the articulatory organs which in English are the lips, tongue, teeth, alveolar palpate, velum, glottis, mouth cavity and breath. Self-monitoring is concerned with language users being able to identify and self-correct mistakes.

Now that we have discussed how language is uttered, let us look at what happens when it is heard. Spoken language is processed essentially in two ways. Through bottom-up processing, listeners attend to data in incoming speech signals, and by top-down processing listeners utilize prior knowledge and expectations to create meaning. Students practice listening skills by hearing recordings in the target language. Such input sources when heard frequently enable students to develop comprehension and fluency.

American TESOL Assignments 6-11:
Chapters 4-6 of the Cambridge Guide to TESOL

_____

6. Name and describe techniques and methods that are successful in English L2 writing classrooms.

_____

7. Define: Grammar, Morphology and Syntax

_____

8. Discuss formal and functional grammar approaches.

_____

9. Briefly describe the philosophy of connectionism.

_____

10. In writing practices, Lewis concentrates on what he calls "lexical chunks." Describe the characteristics of a lexical approach.

11. Create 5 lesson plans for beginner students using any approach or approaches that you prefer.

TEACHING TECHNIQUES, METHODS AND APPROACHES

The first step of teaching is learning the different techniques and methods TESOL teachers utilize. Techniques and methods that are successful in English L2 writing classrooms include careful needs analysis to plan curriculums; co-operative and group work (including collaborative writing) that strengthens the community of the class and offer writers authentic audiences; integration of language skills in class activities; learning style and strategy training to help students learn how to learn; and the use of relevant, authentic materials and tasks.

There are many different approaches, and they can all be used interchangeably to suit your teaching style. The following is a review of approaches.

Art/Musical

Utilizing both sides of the brain is a great key to learning another language. Students acquire the L2 through songs and art such as charts and graphs. Art is also used by students to draw pictures of new words or to create stories about pictures. This reinforces newly acquired vocabulary.

Direct Based/Communicative

This is where students team up to work with each other and practice conversation or vocabulary words as guided by the teacher. For example, the teacher would create a scenario such as becoming acquainted with the names of fruits. The teacher would provide the paper and have the students draw a vegetable and then pronounce the word in both languages.

This promotes a complete recollection of the name and image in their language while linking it with the new English word. The exercise could be taken one step further by asking the students to make up a story about the vegetable and using their stories as a collective discussion for the class. There is an endless amount of scenarios one can create for the students to practice among one another. Instructors should encourage the students to use spontaneous words. Props, flash cards, music and art work are instrumental in creating different scenarios.

Grammar Memorization Speech

This is translating the words for the students and having them repetitively write and speak them. To demonstrate these powerful methods, the teacher can have a drill where he/she asks the students to write a word 20 times and the translation 20 times and speak the word 20 times for 5 days. The drawback with this approach is that it can be repetitive and boring which can cause students to experience frustration due to lack of creativity and

motivation. However, the advantage is that students' vocabulary retention will be enhanced.

Here is an example of a memorization exercise: "Xin xin" is Mandarin for heart. The two first letters "xi" are pronounced like the "sh" in "she" in English with the tongue touching the top of the mouth. The "n" comes from the back of the mouth in a humming manner. Write and say this word 20 times. The result is a formation of a new neural pathway, with memorization of a Mandarin word.

Vocabulary
This approach focuses on teaching vocabulary in order to facilitate language acquisition. At the beginning of every class, the teacher can introduce 5 new words. As time progresses, it would be good to set in motion each class with a warm up of the 5 words from the previous class.

One can then integrate these words into other methods. For example, one can teach such things as directions by taking a walk throughout the school with students. When making a left turn, hold up the vocabulary sign for the word "left," and then have them memorize it.

Lexical
According to Lewis (1997, 2000) native speakers carry a pool of hundreds of thousands, and possibly millions, of lexical chunks in their heads ready to draw upon in order to produce fluent, accurate and meaningful language. Most of the expressions we use on a daily basis are 'fixed' and are not rule governed. Therefore more time should be spent teaching base verbs than tense formations, content nouns should be taught in chunks which include frequent adjectival and verbal collocations, and sentence heads such as "Do you mind if..." and "Would you like to..." should be focused on. The lexical approach also suggests that suprasentential linking should be explicitly taught, and prepositions, modal verbs and delexical verbs should be treated as if there were lexical items. In the TESOL setting, therefore, metaphors and metaphor sets should be taught on account of their centrality to a language.

Rassias Method®
Professor John Rassias is a pioneer in the field of teaching English to speakers of other languages. His methods create a non-competitive and fun learning environment, and his methodology is being used by hundreds of universities and schools worldwide in 180 different languages. American TESOL focuses on Professor Rassias' methods as a proven and effective manner in which to teach English.

A former Peace Corps volunteer, Professor John Rassias developed over 50 techniques to ensure a natural, non-competitive method of TESOL. This includes a highly motivated atmosphere for learning through capturing students' attention and fostering a sense of free flowing expression from the very first day. Teachers will engage learning by dramatic plays followed by discussions. One case in point would be to demonstrate a

storm by a fan blowing over a set-up of a mock neighborhood.

Fundamentals of the Rassias method are:

- creating a fast-paced learning environment to maintain the students' attention while keeping the class excited
- creating high participation and feedback
- having students repeat words and phrases up to 70 times per class
- breaking the barriers of inhibition, nervousness, and anxiety
- creating a confidence-building learning environment
- utilizing body language and
- having the class in a circle, rather that the formal aisle classroom setup.

The goal of the Rassias Method is to make the participant feel comfortable and natural with the language in a short period of time. This is accomplished through a specific series of teaching procedures and dramatic techniques which seek to eliminate inhibitions and create an atmosphere of free expression from the very first day of class.

The optimum teaching environment is one of high energy. Teachers aim to keep students highly involved in their class. They must create an atmosphere of high energy, with a feeling of confidence; this is the American TESOL way.

What It Is

The Rassias Method includes some fifty dramatic techniques that banish inhibitions, which retard the acquisition of foreign languages. Originally developed during the advent of the Peace Corps, it has been adopted by language teachers in colleges, universities, and high schools in North America, Europe, Africa and Asia.

Why It Works

The goal of the Rassias Method is to make the participant feel comfortable and natural with the language in a short period of time. This is accomplished through a specific series of teaching procedures and dramatic techniques which seek to eliminate inhibitions and create an atmosphere of free expression from the very first day of class. Our method of language instruction places the participant at center stage and seeks to replicate the relevant, life-like situations encountered in the target language. The emphasis throughout is spoken language and familiarity with the culture of the country whose language is being studied. The rapid-paced, theatrical, highly creative, and imaginative classroom techniques involved necessitate great quantities of enthusiasm. Positive reinforcement is immediate.

Some Advantages to the Method

The Method encourages contextual learning, specifically designed to meet the needs of our clients. The Method presumes a holistic approach, viewing language and culture as a single entity, whole and indissoluble. Language is as much a phenomenon of culture as it is a measure of culture. Good language teaching must prepare students to appreciate the entire cultural experience. Culture captures the temperament of its people. To interpret this temperament, culture must be understood, and that means knowing its language.

Good language teaching also focuses on helping the student to communicate in a variety of situations. The Method familiarizes the student with the language with the aim of making that human connection with someone to allow communication to occur.

How It Functions in the Classroom
Through scheduling small support groups to work through structured activities, the Rassias Method can ensure that the material is presented and reinforced constantly in real-life contexts. This layering of the teaching function allows for greater participant exposure to the language and more individualized attention.

The close monitoring of the progress of each individual allows the staff to make immediate adjustments in the learning pace and teaching approach. A frequent diagnostic analysis of each student enables the teacher to note areas needing improvement providing each student with ways to act positively on these suggestions.

In addition to the aforementioned theatrical strategies, certain feedback communication techniques are implemented. These include pacing, the use of different teaching positions in relation to the classroom, choral repetition, backward buildup, rewards, and creative new ways to present grammar structures. The dramatic interplay between teacher and participant evokes responses at an average of at least 65 times in a 50-minute sequence creating a highly conducive learning situation.

Techniques of the Rassias Method

- Put the class in a circle.
- Have students repeat words or phrases up to 70 times per class, this means you will be calling on students very quickly. If the student hesitates, move on to the next student; however, always come back to the student who hesitated.
- Be as theatrical as possible, and make the class laugh. This will bring down the barriers of inhibition and nervousness.
- Keep the class as fast paced as possible with games and activities, but most importantly incorporate feedback and repetition of words.
- Have advanced students repeat words up to 100 times per class.
- Have students pretend they are the words they are learning, such as flapping their arms for the word bird, or hopping for the word frog.
- Have students take names in the language they are learning.
- Act out dramas.
- Have the class all yell words in English to release energy flow.
- Before beginning class have students take 10 deep breaths**.**

GRAMMAR

Grammar means the rules of a language governing its phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics; also, it is a written summary of such rules. Morphology means how words are formed. Syntax means how words are combined. Formal grammars take as their starting point the form or structure of language, with little or no attention given to

meaning (semantics) or context and language use (pragmatics). Functional grammars, conceive of language as largely social interaction, seeking to explain why one linguistic form is more appropriate than another in satisfying a particular communicative purpose in a particular context.

There are various views of the role of grammar in TESOL. Some views are influenced by forms of connectionism, the most common of which utilize neural network models. Connectionists believe that although language can be described by rules, it does not necessarily follow that language use is a product of rule application.

Grammar is often misunderstood in the language teaching field. The misconception lies in the view that grammar is a collection of arbitrary rules about static structures in the language. Further questionable claims are that the structures do not have to be taught, learners will acquire them on their own, or if the structures are taught, the lessons that ensue will be boring. Consequently, communicative and proficiency-based teaching approaches sometimes unduly limit grammar instruction. Of the many claims about grammar that deserve to be called myths, this digest will challenge ten.

1. Grammar is acquired naturally; it need not be taught.
It is true that some learners acquire second language grammar naturally without instruction. For example, there are immigrants to the United States who acquire proficiency in English on their own. This is especially true of young immigrants. However, this is not true for all learners. Among the same immigrant groups are learners who may achieve a degree of proficiency, but whose English is far from accurate. A more important question may be whether it is possible with instruction to help learners who cannot achieve accuracy in English on their own. It is also true that learning particular grammatical distinctions requires a great deal of time even for the most skilled learners. Carol Chomsky (1969) showed that native English speakers were still in the process of acquiring certain grammatical structures in English well into adolescence.

Thus, another important question is whether it is possible to accelerate students' natural learning of grammar through instruction. Research findings can be brought to bear on this question from a variety of sources (see Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Pienemann (1984) demonstrated that subjects who received grammar instruction progressed to the next stage after a two-week period, a passage normally taking several months in untutored development. While the number of subjects studied was admittedly small, the finding, if corroborated, provides evidence of the efficacy of teaching over leaving acquisition to run its natural course.
With regard to whether instruction can help learners acquire grammar they would not have learned on their own, some research, although not unequivocal, points to the value of form-focused instruction to improve learners' accuracy over what normally transpires when there is no focus on form (see Larsen-Freeman, 1995).

2. Grammar is a collection of meaningless forms.
This myth may have arisen because many people associate the term *grammar*

with verb paradigms and rules about linguistic form. However, grammar is not one-dimensional and not meaningless; it embodies the three dimensions: syntax (form), semantics (meaning), and pragmatics (use). As can be seen in the pie chart in Figure 1, these dimensions are interdependent; a change in one results in change in another. Despite their interdependence, however, they each offer a unique perspective on grammar. Consider the passive voice in English. It clearly has form. It is composed minimally of a form of the be verb and the past participle. Sometimes it has the preposition *by* before the agent in the predicate:

(1) The bank was robbed by the same gang that hijacked the armored car.

That the passive can occur only when the main verb is transitive is also part of its formal description.

The passive has a grammatical meaning. It is a focus construction, which confers a different status on the receiver or recipient of an action than it would receive in the active voice. For example, the bank in sentence (1) is differently focused than it would be in the active sentence: (2*)* The same gang robbed the bank.
When or why do we use the passive? When the receiver of the action is the theme or topic, when we do not know who the agent is, when we wish to deliberately conceal the identity of the agent, when the agent is obvious and easily derivable from the context, when the agent is redundant, and so on.

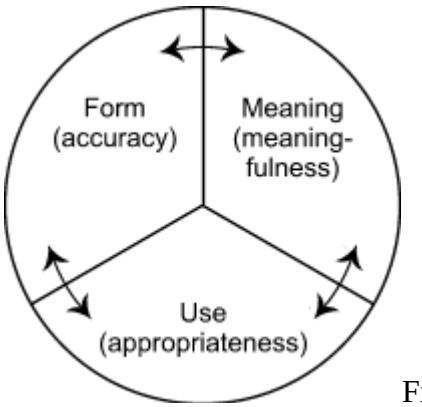

Figure 1

To use the English passive voice accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately, English as a second language students must master all three dimensions. This is true of any grammatical structure.

3. Grammar consists of arbitrary rules.
While there is some synchronic arbitrariness to grammar, not all of what is deemed arbitrary is so. If one adopts a broad enough perspective, it is possible to see why things are the way they are. Consider the following sentences: (3) There is the book missing. (4) There is a book missing. Grammar books will say that sentence (3) is ungrammatical because sentences with an existential meaning of the word there almost always take an indefinite noun phrase in the predicate. Why? The reason is not arbitrary. The word there is used to introduce new information, and the preferred position for new information is toward the end of a sentence. A noun phrase that contains new

information is marked by the use of the indefinite article, a or an, if it is a singular common noun, as in sentence (4).

4. Grammar is boring.
This myth is derived from the impression that grammar can only be taught through repetition and other rote drills. Teaching grammar does not mean asking students to repeat models in a mindless way, and it does not mean memorizing rules. Such activities can be boring and do not necessarily teach grammar. This does not mean there is no place for drills, but drills should be used in a meaningful and purposeful way. For example, to practice past-tense yes/no sentences in English, the teacher may ask her students to close their eyes while she changes five things about herself. She takes off one shoe, takes off her watch, puts on her glasses, puts on her sweater, and takes off her ring. Students are then asked to pose questions to figure out the changes she has made. Students may ask, "Did you take off a shoe?" or "Did you put on a sweater?" This kind of activity can be fun and, more importantly, engages students in a way that requires them to think and not just provide mechanical responses. Teaching grammar in a way that engages students may require creativity, but the teaching need not and should not be boring.

5. Students have different learning styles. Not all students can learn grammar.
Research shows that some people have a more analytical learning style than others. According to Hatch (1974), some learners approach the language learning task as "rule formers." Such learners are accurate but halting users of the target language. Others are what Hatch calls "data gatherers," fluent but inaccurate producers of the target language. This observation by itself does not address whether or not all students can learn grammar. While it may be true that learners approach language learning differently, there has been no research to show that some students are incapable of learning grammar. Students have different strengths and weaknesses. It is clear that all students can learn grammar as is evident from their mastery of their first language. As grammar is no different from anything else, it is likely that students will learn at different rates.

6. Grammar structures are learned one at a time.
This myth is demonstrably untrue. Teachers may teach one grammar structure at a time, and students may focus on one at a time, but students do not master one at a time before going on to learn another. There is a constant interaction between new interlanguage forms and old. Students may give the appearance of having learned the present tense, for example, but when the present progressive is introduced, often their mastery vanishes and their performance declines. This backsliding continues until the grammar they have internalized is restructured to reflect the distinct uses of the two tenses. We know that the learning curve for grammatical structures is not a smoothly ascending linear one, but rather is characterized by peaks and valleys, backslidings and restructurings.

7. Grammar has to do only with sentence-level and sub sentence-level phenomena.

Grammar does operate at the sentence level and governs the syntax or word orders that are permissible in the language. It also works at the sub-sentence level to govern such things as number and person agreement between subject and verb in a sentence. However, grammar rules also apply at the suprasentential or discourse level. For example, not every choice between the use of the past and the present perfect tense can be explained at the sentence level. Often, the speaker's choice to use one or the other can only be understood by examining the discourse context. Similarly, use of the definite article with a particular noun phrase after the noun phrase has been introduced in a text is a discourse-governed phenomenon. It would be a mistake to teach students grammar only at the sentence and subsentence levels. Much of the apparent arbitrariness of grammar disappears when it is viewed from a discourse-level perspective.

8. Grammar and vocabulary are areas of knowledge. Reading, writing, speaking, and listening are the four skills.

While grammar can be thought of as static knowledge, it can also be considered a process. Language teachers would not be content if their students could recite all the rules of grammar but not be able to apply them. The goal is for students to be able to use grammar in an unselfconscious fashion to achieve their communicative ends. As with any skill, achieving this goal takes practice. What sort of practice is warranted? Ellis (1993) postulates that structural syllabi work better to facilitate intake than to teach learners to produce grammatical items correctly. He suggests that grammar teaching should focus on consciousness raising rather than on the practice of accurate production. In support of this assertion is VanPatten and Cardierno's (1993) finding that students' experience with processing input data is more effective than giving students a grammatical explanation followed by output practice.

9. Grammars provide the rules/explanations for all the structures in a language.

Explaining why things are the way they are is ongoing quests. Because languages evolve, linguists' descriptions can never be complete for all time; they have to accommodate the changing nature of language. For example, most grammar books make clear the fact that progressive aspect is not used with stative verbs; therefore, the following would be ungrammatical: (5) *I am wanting a new car.* For some English speakers, the sentence is not ungrammatical, and even those who find it so would be more inclined to accept progressive aspect when it co-occurs with perfective aspect, as in: (6) *I have been wanting a new car* (for some time now). The point is, languages change, and any textbook rule should be seen as subject to change and non-categorical. Just as grammar learning is a process--witness the persistent instability of inter-languages--so is grammar itself. There is little that is static about either.

10. "I don't know enough to teach grammar."
Teachers often say this when they have opted to teach one of the other language skills, or when they choose to teach a low-proficiency class. While it is true that teachers can only teach what they know, teachers who articulate the above often know more than they think they do. The pie chart introduced earlier can be a useful tool for teachers to collect what they know about form, meaning, and use of a particular grammar structure. What they don't know will become apparent from the gaps on the chart, and the gaps will nominate themselves as items for the teacher's agenda for further study. After all, what better way to learn something than to teach it?

If the goals of language instruction include teaching students to use grammar accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately, then a compelling case can be made for teaching grammar. Instead of viewing grammar as a static system of arbitrary rules, it should be seen as a rational, dynamic system that is comprised of structures characterized by the three dimensions of form, meaning, and use.

LESSON PLANNING

Every lesson should generally include warm-up of previously learned material, 5 new words or phrases for the students to learn, an overview of the lesson in which the teacher answers any questions, and the continuation of lesson topics (building a foundation of the English Language) for TESOL students to utilize in the real world.

Brainstorming
Things to take into consideration are the theme of the lesson and the basis or intention of themes to be covered.

Proficiency level
What level are your students practicing on? If you find yourself to be in a situation where they are all on different levels, then finding a common ground for advancement in learning on all levels will be necessary.

Skill objectives
What skills will you focus on? These include the basics of what we unknowingly do each day, sharpening our communicative skills.

Methodology
Which one of the methods is necessary? These may or may not include any/or all of the following:
Direct-Based Approach/Communicative
Grammar/Memorization Speech
Vocabulary Approach
Rassias Method
Musical/Art

Key objects for learning
How do I get these key ideas across to my students? These include any props, visual aids or learning materials that may be needed.

Class-time Action
Warm-up Exercises
(5 minutes) The purpose of these is to get students' minds on the subject of English. Making this transition will help make in-class activities run more smoothly and efficiently. These can be direct or indirect questions asked to the class as a whole, while emphasizing the newly learned vocabulary in conversation.

Introduction to Teaching Objectives
(2-3 minutes) Here, the students will get to know the activities and expectations of the day. This is the best time to introduce attention-getters such as short games.

Teaching/In-Class Assignments
(Bulk of class time) Teachers will carry out the skills needed for the students to achieve their learning goals using the key objects for learning. Students can practice and integrate the newly learned skills while the teacher can evaluate the level of mastery for further pursuit of educational goals. The former is the teacher-oriented portion of class, and the latter would be the student-oriented portion of the learning period.

Review/Out-of-Class Assignments
(10 minutes) The content of the day is relearned and discussed, possibly with an introduction of the next lesson and how it relates to make up a cohesive unit with earlier instruction. Now is the time to introduce the expected skills of the assignment to be due on the continuation of the class. Last, but not least, previously dated assignments are returned and can be corrected before or during class. There is always the good old-fashioned way of mixing up the papers in class, then giving out the correct answers to the class and the final giving back the papers to the original owners. This is just one of the many powerful methods to boost the self-confidence of any newcomers to a language though dispelling fears.

Putting It All Together
It is handy for you to keep a notebook regarding how long certain lessons last. You may find that you are running out of time or need more time-fillers by making the work a little more challenging. There are other things that you may need improvement on or students that who want to single out for extraordinary or deficient work. These you can compile at the end of the given term because you may be asked to make a list of suggestions or a progress report for each of the students. Waiting to the last minute does not work in those situations.

SUCCESSFUL LESSON PLAN TIPS

- Never be afraid to laugh with the students. Due to cross-cultural differences, this can often happen during miscommunication. This connects you both on a strong interpersonal level that can be instrumental in fostering learning environments where ideas and suggestions can be freely expressed.
- Respect the students. For example: Suppose a student says "I have to go the toilet." Instead of embarrassing him/her and saying this is improper, you should say "Oh, you have to go to the bathroom!" This clearly gives the idea of the correct thing to say without intimidation.

- Be as visual as possible. Incorporate art into the class. If you introduce an airplane, have the class make paper airplanes.

- Be aware of expecting too much within a small frame of time. Learning takes time.

- Do not be afraid to learn the native languages of the receptive teaching country or environment. Your students may be your best teachers, and this is also a strong connective and communicative skill to relate to your students on a more personal level. You will find that many of the schools are actually required to give free or reduced lessons to their teachers.

- Speak clearly and attempt to pronounce vocabulary words free of any of one's own dialect.
- Always have a back-up plan. You may miscalculate the class time. Although sometimes the most successful strategies may be ad-libbed, especially when teaching children who are naturally spontaneous, it is important to have more activities in mind just in case.

Sample Lesson Plan 1

Teaching English to 3-5 year old Students

Warm up: Circle time is where we gather in the morning and discuss the weather and any other relevant events. We would review simple points such as our numbers and colors.

Introduction to teaching objectives: Here is where we would introduce the newest color sheet that goes with the story that we will be reading today which happens to be "Where the Wild Things Are."

Teaching/In-Class Assignments: We will spend most of our class time reading the story. As I go through the pages I will personalize the story by substituting the names of characters with the names of children in the class. Then to make sure that they get the main points, I will continually ask questions. The children will then complete a worksheet reinforcing the skills that they have just learned.

Review/Out of Class Assignments: In this case, the children are really too young for homework, so we would do a quick review wrap-up by getting the students to recall and describe their favorite character.

Sample Lesson Plan 2
Teaching English to Junior High/High School Age Students

Warm up: Teacher will start with a discussion about food and eating. Students will be asked to describe a visit to one of their favorite restaurants and think about the different kinds of food that each one of them likes. Teacher will introduce some of the vocabulary related to food, such as fish, vegetables, meat and fruit, and utensils.
Introduction to teaching objectives: Students will use their worksheet to write down the different categories of food and things related to food. Teacher will discuss the important aspects of recipes. Students will think about the ingredients, preparation, and measurement issues.

Teaching/In-Class Assignments: A comparison of the students' notes on the vocabulary generated will be made. Students will be asked to breakup into small groups and develop a recipe. Then they would gather together and discuss their work before presenting it to the class.

Review/Out of Class Assignments: Each group will be asked to present their recipe to the rest of the class. A quick review will be made about the topic discussed (food) and the differences between the various recipes which students present during the lesson. All vocabularies generated by the students will be relearned and reviewed.

Sample Lesson Plan 3
Teaching English to Adults

Warm up: Telling a true story about an experience that has happened to anyone of us is interesting. Teacher will start telling a true story following a structured outline:

Introduction: introducing the nature of the story, beginning: how the story started, the story: the main events related in order, the end: what has changed or how things are now, moral: final comments or moral conclusions about the story.

Introduction to teaching objectives: Learning the basic structure and expressions used when telling true stories.

Teaching/In-Class Assignments: Teacher will follow up her story with some basic comprehension questions. Students will be asked to put the reading comprehension into the correct order. Students will underline key vocabulary that introduce and relate the sequence of events. Then they will be asked to review the story telling structure and teacher will point out how her story and the reading comprehension follow the structure layout. Students can write their own stories and get into pairs and read each other the story and relate to another partner.

Review/Out of Class Assignments: Teacher will review with the students the importance of giving structure to their relating of true stories. For homework, students will be asked to plan and write another true story of about 100 words.

Sample Lesson Plan 4
Teaching English to 3-5-year- old Children

Warm up: Teacher will start talking about some of the different colors flowers can be. Introduction to teaching objectives: Teacher will present colored construction paper and books with pictures of various flowers in them.

Teaching/In-Class Assignments: Children will be asked to name the different flowers that they know and to tell what colors those flowers can be. Teacher can point out that flowers can come in many different colors. A rose, for example, could be red, pink, or white. On a chart or on the board, teacher will record the names of flowers and the colors they can be. Children will be told that they are going to make a paper, flower garden on the bulletin board. The goal will be to include as many different colors of flowers as they can. Books with pictures of flowers will be distributed among the children, and children will search through the books to find different colored flowers.

Review/Out of Class Assignments: Teacher will review with children the different colors of flowers discussed during the class. Children will be encouraged to continue to search for flowers.

TEACHING DIALOG

Purpose
There are two main purposes for teaching dialog. First, it will provide the student with a bit of language that will help him perform in a particular setting (writing a check, buying a stamp, etc.). The more specific you can be in adapting the dialog to the students' immediate circumstances, the more meaningful the dialog will be and the more likely it will be that the students will learn and use it.

The second purpose of the dialog is to introduce certain high-frequency patterns of the language which will be practiced further in the dialog expansion activities. Instructors should be able to teach a dialog in such a way that the student can enact the dialogue in a role play with classmates.

If the students do not have text materials where they can see the written dialog, the teacher can write it on the chalkboard. It is usually helpful to adults to be able to see the written form. If the teacher notices certain sounds being pronounced incorrectly because of the students' native language pronunciation, he or she may want to focus their attention on the letters and their correct pronunciation.

Preparation

Step 1

Think about the kind of situation you want the students to enact after they finish the dialog. Be as specific as possible. For example, in a lesson you might imagine a student introducing a friend during a break. At the end of the lesson you may want the students to pretend they are introducing a fellow classmate to another friend.

Step 2

Break the dialog into pairs of lines or exchanges (these we will call cycles). If you want the students to be able to enact the dialog or parts of it, it is best to break it down and personalize it, i.e. change its characters to members of the class.
A dialog can be broken down as follows:

a. Roberto: Hello, my name's (TEACHER'S NAME).
Sara: (I'm) glad to meet you.
b. Sara: This is my friend, (STUDENT'S NAME).
Roberto: (I'm) pleased to meet you.
c. Roberto: Where are you from?
Lily: (I'm from) Thailand.

Step 3

Write the dialog on a 3" x 5" card. It is necessary for the teacher to be able to walk around and listen to and interact with each student. Having to carry a textbook around can reduce your mobility. After you have taught a few lessons you may be able to leave the book on the desk and refer to it periodically and not have to make cards.

Techniques

Step 1

Explain to the students using pictures, gestures, their native language, or whatever means necessary the context and purpose of the dialog. In the case of a first lesson the purpose is to enable them to introduce themselves and others, and to tell where they are from.

Step 2

Enact the first line of the dialog as you say it and have students listen. (Repeat several times).
Ex: Hello my name's (Teacher's name).

Step 3

Have students repeat in chorus after teacher until their pronunciation is fairly accurate. Individually personalize the line.
Ex: Hello, my name's (Teacher's name).
T. Hello, my name's (Student's name).

Step 4
Repeat steps 2 and 3 with the next line of the dialog.
T. (I'm) glad to meet you. (Students listen)
S. I'm glad to meet you. (Student repeats)

Step 5
Have students pair off and take turns introducing themselves while the teacher circulates, listens and helps.
Student 1: Hello, my name's _____ .
Student 2: Glad to meet you. My name's _____ .

Step 6
Break students into groups of three and have them enact the next first four lines of the dialog.
Student 1: Hello, my name's _____ .
Student 2: (I'm) glad to meet you. My name is _____ .
Student 1: This is my friend _____ .
Student 3: Pleased to meet you.

More Sample Dialogs
Practice 1
Hello, my name is _____. I'm (glad, happy, pleased) to meet you.

This is my (neighbor, classmate, friend, brother, sister, mother, father).

(His, her) name is _____.

Practice 2

Robert: Hello, my name's Robert.
Lily: (I'm) glad to meet you. My name's Lily. This is my neighbor, Sara.
Robert: (I'm) glad to meet you, Sara. Where are you from?
Sara: (I'm) from Mexico.
Lily: I'm from San Antonio.
Sara: Where are you from?
Lily: He's from Texas.

Practice 3-- Dictation
A. Hello my _____ Robert.
B. Glad to meet _____. _____ name's Sara.
C. This is my _____ , Lily.
D. Pleased to _____ you, Lily. Where are you _____?
E. (I'm) from Thailand.

Practice 4 -- Role Play
A. _____ , this is _____ .
B. Glad to meet you. Where are you from?
A. (I'm) from _____ .

Cultural Note
In the United States people do not always shake hands when introduced.
Men usually do when introduced to other men. When introduced to a woman, a man usually waits for the woman to offer her hand. Women frequently do not shake hands when introduced to either men or women. Generally when men shake hands with each other they offer a firm grip.

Courtesy of *T.B.U.*

MUSIC, GAMES AND EXERCISES

Many students find the beginning level texts to be childish, non-motivating and boring. Students at this level generally strive to gain as much communicative competence as they can, while at the same time learning basic reading and writing skills.

Music in the Classroom

To successfully use songs as an ESL text (instead of a regular, mundane text), a teacher needs to create a master tape and then create copies for each student. The master tape should contain all the songs that the students will study during the term. While this is time-consuming, it is well worth the investment as the students will have access to the music and listen to the songs over and over. Thus, they will memorize the language and gain a great deal of communicative competence. Moreover, if a teacher records the various styles of American music, this can be a great introduction to American culture. Songs should be selected based on several factors. One factor should be whether the lyrics make sense (i.e., "Achy Breaky Heart" may not be a good choice) or whether the song tells a story (Patsy Cline's "Crazy" is a good choice).

Furthermore, when choosing songs, you must be sure that the song is sung clearly. A song with harmonies or interwoven choruses or one that is overly produced is not a good choice as it is very difficult to listen to. Also, a song that has long instrumental sections is also not a good choice as when you are presenting the song in class and the instrumental part of the song comes on, the students tend to lose focus.

Using a great variety of musical styles will also enrich your class. Students can be introduced to such cultural icons as Ella Fitzgerald, Willie Nelson or Aretha Franklin and such genres as musical theater, jazz, country music or folk music. Generally, it is difficult to use rap as it is very rapid and difficult to understand. One easy rap song to use is "The Message" by Grandmaster Flash.

When preparing the tape for the students, the songs should be recorded so that the easiest

and clearest songs are first. Usually, the students will listen to the whole tape over and over, and by the time you present the song, the student has heard it many times. It is quite important that the student has a master tape with all the songs even though this requires a lot of planning on the part of the teacher.

Before presenting a song as text, a lot of work needs to be done. First, a teacher needs to listen to the song carefully as what is printed on the lyric sheet is not always what is sung. Moreover, the song needs to be transcribed exactly as it is sung to avoid confusing the students. Once the song is transcribed, the teacher can prepare several close exercises based on the song. Vocabulary, reading comprehension and other exercises also should be prepared.

When presenting a song, a teacher should first play the song and have the students listen to it. After hearing it, you can ask comprehension questions to the class. Then, a close exercise should be distributed and the song should be played a few more times while the students try to complete the exercise. Afterward, the student should be given the lyrics sheet and be asked to correct his/her errors. The song then can be played again, and then it should be sung. Now, it may seem like an exercise in futility to have your class sing, but after a few tries even the shyest student warms up to the idea. This is great pronunciation practice and helps the students to develop communicative competence.

After the song has been sung, more close exercises can be presented, and then vocabulary and other exercises can be assigned. Because the song is so motivating, students tend to be very motivated to complete the exercises. It is also very easy to have students write dialogues, and do other role playing activities.

For example, KD Lang sings a song called "Three Cigarettes in an Ashtray," a song about a woman stealing another woman's boyfriend. After having learned the song and its corresponding vocabulary, students in an ESL class then wrote skits about it. This was a beginning lesson, yet all the groups came up with very interesting dialogues using very sophisticated language. One of the things that can make your song lesson run smoother is to create a tape with that song repeated over and over again so that when you are playing the song in class, you don't have to waste instructional time rewinding. Although it might seem like a lot of work to do this, it is very enjoyable to present. It allows you to share your musical tastes with the students, and it allows them to learn in a very fun atmosphere. Moreover, the results are astounding. Most students will become fairly oral rather quickly and others will become even more oral. Their reading and writing skills will improve vastly due to an increased vocabulary, a better ear for English, and a better ability to decode what they are reading.

Some songs that have been used effectively in the TESOL setting are, "You've Got a Friend" by James Taylor (which inspired students to write skits about friends with problems), "New York, New York" by Frank Sinatra (which inspired students to write about how they were going to make it in New York), "Papa Don't Preach" by Madonna (which inspired students to role play the issue involved), and "Baby Can I Hold You Tonight" by Tracy Chapman (which inspired students to write about what makes a good

relationship). Basically, the possibilities are endless and provide for an exhilarating course.

Instructors should obtain the lyrics for five English songs to be used in a beginning TESOL course: two songs for beginner-level children, two for intermediate-level students, and one for advanced-level students. These will comprise a solid list of the CD's that will accompany the music for classes. Music is a friend in the TESOL classroom.

Sample Songs

"We Are the Champions" by Queen

I've paid my dues
Time after time
I've done my sentence
But committed no crime
And bad mistakes
I've made a few
I've had my share of sand
Kicked in my face
But I've come through
And we mean to go on and on and on and on
We are the champions - my friends
And we'll keep on fighting
Till the end
We are the champions
We are the champions
No time for losers
'Cause we are the champions of the World
I've taken my bows
And my curtain calls
You brought me fame and fortune
And everything that goes with it
I thank you all
But it's been no bed of roses
No pleasure cruise
I consider it a challenge before
The whole human race
And I ain't gonna lose
And we mean to go on and on and on and on
We are the champions - my friends
And we'll keep on fighting
Till the end
We are the champions

We are the champions
No time for losers
'Cause we are the champions of the World
We are the champions - my friends
And we'll keep on fighting
Till the end
We are the champions
We are the champions
No time for losers
'Cause we are the champions

"Singin' In the Rain" by Gene Kelly

I'm singing in the rain
Just singing in the rain
What a glorious feeling
I'm happy again I'm laughing at clouds
So dark up above
Cause the sun's in my heart
And I'm ready for love
Let the stormy clouds chase
Everyone from the place
Come on with the rain
I've a smile on my face
I'll walk down the lane
With a happy refrain'
Cause I'm singing
Just singing in the rain.

"Sacrifice" by Elton John

It's a human sign
When things go wrong
When the scent of her lingers
And temptation's strong
Into the boundary
Of each married man
Sweet deceit comes calling
And negativity lands
Cold, cold heart
Hard done by you
Some things look better baby
Just passing through

And it's no sacrifice
Just a simple word
It's two hearts living
In two separate worlds
But it's no sacrifice
No sacrifice
It's no sacrifice at all
Mutual misunderstanding
After the fact
Sensitivity builds a prison
In the final act
We lose direction
No stone unturned
No tears to damn you
When jealousy burns

"Morning Has Broken" by Cat Stevens

Morning has broken, like the first morning
Blackbird has spoken, like the first bird
Praise for the singing, praise for the morning
Praise for them springing fresh from the world
Sweet the rain's new fall, sunlit from heaven
Like the first dew fall, on the first grass
Praise for the sweetness of the wet garden
Sprung in completeness where his feet pass
Mine is the sunlight, mine is the morning
Born of the one light, Eden saw play
Praise with elation, praise every morning
God's recreation of the new day

"Walk On" by Dionne Warwick
If you see me walking down the street
And I start to cry each time we meet
Walk on by, walk on by
Make believe
that you don't see the tears
Just let me grieve
in private 'cause each time I see you
I break down and cry
And walk on by (don't stop)
And walk on by (don't stop)
And walk on by
I just can't get over losing you

And so if I seem broken and blue
Walk on by, walk on by
Foolish pride
Is all that I have left
So let me hide
The tears and the sadness you gave me
When you said goodbye
Walk on by
and walk on by
and walk by (don't stop)
Walk on by, walk on by
Foolish pride
Is all that I have left
So let me hide
The tears and the sadness you gave me
When you said goodbye
Walk on by (don't stop)
and walk on by (don't stop)
and walk by (don't stop)

Games

Hangman, bingo and matching games can be utilized to facilitate English learning. Here is a sample crossword puzzle contributed by Anibal Fernando Machado:

As well as being a reading comprehension exercise, this puzzle tests students' ability to spell. Number 1 across may be difficult to figure out, especially for boys; they should put themselves in the position of a woman, since the answer is "husband." All the instructor has to do is create the grid.

Definitions
Across

- 1-My father's son-in-law, who is not my brother-in-law
- 2-My brother's nephew, who is not my nephew
- 3-My son's sister's husband
- 4-My grandmother's daughters, except my mother
- 5-My mother's grandson, who is not my son
- 6-My sister's husband
- 7-My uncles' parents
- 8-My grandparents' grandchildren, who are not my brothers
- 9-My son's daughter

Down

- 10-My brother's wife
- 11-My mother's son, who is not me

- 12-My son’s son
- 13-My father’s granddaughter, who is not my daughter
- 14-My cousin’s father
- 15-My children’s grandfather, who is not my father
- 16-My son’s wife
- 17-My wife’s mother-in-law

Exercises

The Verb Tree

This exercise can be used to review or introduce a large variety of verb form uses and to show how many uses of a particular verb (in this case "to grow") students in the class can generate. The procedure is as follows: Draw a tree and the sun on the blackboard. Write the infinitive "to grow" at the root of the tree, and explain that it is the source of all the tenses that derive from it. Draw leaves on and around the tree. Then ask the students to come up with as many sentences using as many different tenses of the verb as they can think of. The work can be done as a class, or in groups that share their lists with the class later. Later, list the sentences on the blackboard. Some ambitious and artistic students may want to make a poster out of the result. Some possible sentences are:

- The leaf/leaves grows/grow on the tree.
- The young leaf/leaves is/are growing on the tree.
- The leaf/leaves has/have been growing on the tree.
- The leaf has/ have grown on the tree.
- The leaf has/ have been growing on the tree.
- The leaf/leaves grew on the tree.
- The leaf/leaves was/were growing on the tree.
- The leaf/leaves had grown on the tree.
- The leaf/leaves had been growing on the tree.
- The leaf/leaves will grow on the tree in spring.
- The leaf/leaves will be growing on the tree in all summer.
- The leaf/leaves will have been growing on the tree all summer.
- The leaf/leaves will have grown by April.
- The leaf/leaves is/are going to grow on the tree in spring.
- The leaf/leaves is/are going to be growing on the tree in spring.
- The leaf/leaves is/are going to have been growing on the tree in spring.
- The leaf/leaves is/are going to have grown by April.
- The leaf/leaves would grow faster if there were more sunlight.
- The leaf/leaves would be growing if there were more sunlight.
- The leaf/leaves would have been growing if there were more sunlight.
- The leaf/leaves would have grown if there were more sunlight.
- The leaf/leaves could grow if there were more light.
- The leaf/leaves could be growing if there were more light.
- The leaf/leaves could have been growing if there were more light.
- The leaf/leaves could have grown if there were more light.

- The leaf/leaves should grow if there is more light.
- The leaf/leaves should be growing if there is more light.
- The leaf/leaves should have been growing if there were more light.
- The leaf/leaves should have grown if there had been more light.
- The leaf/leaves must grow if there is more light.
- The leaf/leaves must be growing if there is more light.
- The leaf/leaves must have been growing if there is more light.
- The leaf/leaves must have grown if there is more light.
- The leaf/leaves can grow to be very large.
- The leaf/leaves can be growing right now.
- The leaf/leaves was/were grown before we arrived in May.

This exercise supports students in learning plurals and shows that some plurals end in -ves instead of s.

Assignment: Find 5 plural words that do not end in s.

Family Matters
The following activity was contributed by Anibal Fernando Machado.

The aim of this game is to review family vocabulary and to expose students to the possessive case. Students are not supposed to be able to produce the sentences in the game. The objective is mostly reading comprehension. I have used this game with beginners (monolingual classes), and it has proved to be a lot of fun as well as very rewarding in terms of comprehension.

1-Print or write cards with the following sentences:
- My children's mother is my wife.
- My wife's mother is my children's grandmother.
- My mother's daughter's husband is my brother-in-law.
- My cousins' parents are my uncles and my aunts.
- My son's daughter is my granddaughter.
- My mother's son is my brother.
- My grandparents' sons, except my father, are my uncles.
- My cousin's sister is my cousin.
- My niece's brother is my nephew.
- My husband's father is my father-in-law.
- My children's grandparents on their mother's side are my parents-in-law.
- My sister's son is my nephew.
- My brother's wife is my sister-in-law.
- My cousin's mother is my aunt.
- My mother's mother is my grandmother.
- My father's brother is my uncle.
- My grandfather's wife is my grandmother.
- My parents' daughter is my sister.

- My mother's son is my brother.
- My nephew's sister is my niece.

Leave enough space between the verb and the next word so as to be able to cut the card in two pieces, one with the subject and verb, and the other with the object.

2-Divide the class into A's and B's. Give the A's the cards which have the beginnings and give the B's the ones that have the endings.

3-Ask both groups to think of how they would complete their cards. Allow them some time to think.

4-Now each member of each group must interact with the members of the other in order to find the card that matches theirs (this may become a bit of a chaos, but never mind, it helps students to relax and get closer to one another). Once they have, they must sit together, and wait until everybody has found their partner.

5-Ask each pair to read their sentences and confirm or correct with the help of the other students (this is a good listening-comprehension exercise).

6-Ask each pair to go to the chalkboard and write their sentences, so that the whole group has the opportunity to have all the sentences for further reference.

7-As a round-off, you may ask the class to formulate a rule on how the possessive case works.

Describing People

The aim of this listening comprehension activity is to provide students with input (have/have got) (be wearing) and to review vocabulary (physical descriptions and clothes). Students should have been exposed to vocabulary concerning physical description (height, build, color of hair, color of eyes) and clothes (color and pattern).

Procedure:
Have students draw a grid in their notebooks on a separate sheet, so that you can collect them. The grid should include the name of the student being described and these details about the students:

- height
- build
- hair length
- hair style
- hair color
- color of eyes

Also have the students create space to describe three items of clothing being worn- including the names of the items worn, the colors, and the patterns.

- Tell them that in order to fill out the grid they should choose one of the members of the class to describe, but they mustn't say who they have chosen.
- Give them some time to fill the grid out. Once they have finished, collect their papers.
- Tell the students that you are going to read the descriptions out and that they must write down the name of the person they think has been described. Make sure that they don't say the names out loud.
- Next, read out each form. Your reading should be something like this: "This is a boy/girl. He/she is a tall thin boy/girl with long straight fair hair and blue eyes. He/she is wearing a white and blue striped shirt, jeans, white socks and brown shoes."

Obviously, the physical characteristics will vary according to each individual and so will the clothes. Although there might be several students with the same physical characteristics, they should have no problems to identify the person described when you get to what they are wearing.

If the class is too large, you might choose to read out half their papers, and leave the rest for the following period. If so, before leaving, ask them to have a look at what everybody is wearing and to try to remember for the following day.

The next day, you can read the rest of their papers, but this time, when you get to the description of their clothes you will have to use "he/she was wearing," an opportunity to expose them to the past of the verb "BE" if they have never been exposed to it. Once you have finished with all the papers, write a similar description to the ones you read (or two if you used the past) on the chalkboard.

Next, write this on the board:
.....(name of person) is a .....(height and build) boy/girl with
.....(length).....(style).....(color)hair and .....(color) eyes. He/she is wearing.....
(color),.....(pattern),.....(item). The words in parenthesis should not be written on the chalkboard.

Riddles

Telling riddles is an excellent listening comprehension exercise for intermediate level ESL students. They are entertaining. Students love them whether they can solve them or not. They also make a great effort to understand the riddles so they can tell them to their friends after class. This activity is good for low intermediate and up.

Instructors would do well to utilize these procedures. Have students take notes as you tell each riddle. Recommend that they write freely and quickly try to capture as much of the story as they can while you tell the riddle at a natural speaking pace. Before asking for, or

revealing the solution, have students discuss the riddles in small groups or pairs. This encourages retelling the riddles, sharing notes, reviewing important details, and discussing possible solutions. Have students rewrite one or several of the riddles working from the notes they took. There are many sources for riddles in books and on the internet. Below are some sample riddles.

The Two Brothers
An Arab sheikh tells his two sons to race their camels to a distant city to see who will inherit his fortune. The one whose camel is slower will win. The brothers, after wandering aimlessly for days, ask a wise man for advise. After hearing the advice they jump on the camels and race as fast as they can to the city. What does the wise man say? Solution: He told the brothers to switch camels.

The Detective
Many years ago a private detective had to hire a new assistant. He had three candidates, and he decided to give them a little quiz. He said, "Look Guys, there's a crime that needs to be solved, and there's a clue in one of the public libraries in Brooklyn. The clue is stuck inside a book, between pages 165 and 166. Two of the guys jumped up and bolted out the door. The third guy just sat there. The private detective said to the man who remained, "You got the job." Why did he get the job? What did he know that the other two candidates didn't know? Solution: There is nothing between pages 165 and 166, just as there's nothing between pages 1 and 2 of a book. The candidate who didn't get up knew this. He knew the clue was a bogus clue. (Page one is the right hand page and page two is printed on the back of that page.)

The Wayward Students
Two undergraduate chemistry students at a major university had a highly successful semester in an introductory chemistry class. Their confidence was so high in fact that they decided to blow off their reading period, that period they give you to study for final exams, and they went to a fraternity party in a town quite a distance away. They had a pretty good time. So good in fact that they didn't make it back in time for their final exam. They missed the exam. In a panic, however, they devised a plan. They agreed to tell the professor that they had a flat tire and this prevented their returning in time to take the exam. They pleaded with him, "Let us take the exam, please. This could ruin us. We promise nothing like this will ever happen again." The professor agreed and told them to return the next morning. The two returned the following morning, and the professor gave them their exam. He had them leave their books and backpacks in the office and sent them to different rooms to take their exams. The test consisted of only two questions. One five-point question was some fairly simple chemistry problem, and each student, smiling confidently, answered the first question easily. Then they turned the page, and the next question was worth ninety-five-points. What was the second question that the professor put on the make-up exam? "Which car tire was it that got the flat?"

The Terrible Accident
A man and his son decided to go on a vacation for a week in the countryside. They drove out of the city and after a half an hour got into a terrible accident. The father was shaken,

bruised, and had a broken arm, but he did not have a life threatening injury. The son, however, was seriously injured. An ambulance came and took both of them to the hospital back in the city. The son needed immediate surgery. He was rushed into the operating room, and a doctor came. The doctor took a look at the boy's face and said, "I can't operate on this boy. Doctors aren't allowed to operate on family members. They could make a mistake because they are very nervous. Get another doctor quick. This is my son! Who is the doctor? Solution: The doctor was the boy's mother.

The Man and the Elevator
Every day a man who lives on the tenth floor, takes the elevator down in the morning to leave his apartment building. On the way home he takes the elevator up to the seventh floor, gets off, and walks three flights up to his apartment. He does this every day even though he hates walking the three flights up. When it rains, he takes his umbrella and can take the elevator all the way to the tenth floor. Why? Solution: He is very short and can only reach the seventh floor button. When it rains, he can reach the button with his umbrella.

Tongue Twisters
Students love the challenge.

- She saw shy sheep.
- Rubber baby buggy bumpers.
- How much wood would a wood chuck chuck, if a wood chuck could chuck wood?
- Moses supposes his toeses are roses,/But Moses supposes erroneously./For Moses he knowses his toeses aren't roses,/Like Moses supposes his toeses to be.
- The Leith police dismisseth us, which causeth us dismay.
- A fly and a flea in a flue,/Were caught. So what did they do?/Said the fly, "Let us flee!"/Said the flea, "Let us fly!"/So they flew through a flaw in the flue.
- This snail is stale./It's tail is stale./And this is stale tale.
- " Betty Botta bought some butter./"Oh," she said, "this butter's bitter!/If I use this bitter butter/It will make my batter bitter./I need a bit of better butter/ Just to make my batter better."/ Betty bought a bit of better butter./ Now Betty's batter isn't bitter.
- Round the rugged rock the ragged rascal ran.
- This isn't really a tongue twister, but it makes an excellent example of the ambiguities, and humor of the English language: Time flys. /You can't. /They fly too fast.

Create Your Own Game

Guess the definition: Choose a word from the list provided and see if you can pick out the correct definition. Here is an example
Hide, worth, search
1- .....: To look for.

2- .....: The value of something/someone.
3- .....: To put in a location where it cannot be found.

PLANNING THEMATIC UNITS

Themes for curriculum units can be derived from many sources. Planning thematic units allows the teacher to incorporate a variety of language concepts into a topic area that is interesting and worthy of study and that gives students a reason to use the language. Teachers should choose themes that lend themselves to teaching language that will be useful for their students. Themes and lessons should integrate language, content, and culture into activities that allow students to practice the foreign language and that prepare them to use it in a variety of contexts. A focus on communication, including the interactions present in all uses of the language (for speaking, listening, reading, and writing) is essential. Students need to be able to interpret the language, express themselves in the language, and negotiate meaning in the language (Savignon, 1997).

In beginning communicative language classes, the teacher's role includes introducing vocabulary and phrases and providing comprehensible language input for the students. Visuals and manipulatives, gestures, sounds, and actions all help students understand the new vocabulary and structures. Students need opportunities to be active participants in tasks that require them to negotiate meaning and practice language in communication with their teacher, their peers, and others.

Pesola (1995) developed the Framework for Curriculum Development for FLES programs, which begins with a thematic center and creates a dynamic relationship among the factors that teachers must take into account: language in use, subject content, and culture. (See also Curtain & Pesola, 1994 for a detailed description of the framework.) The framework highlights a set of questions to guide curriculum planning:

- Who are the students in terms of learner characteristics, such as developmental level, learning style, and experiential background?
- What are the planned activities, and how will teachers assess students' performance?
- How will the classroom setting affect the planned activities?
- What materials do teachers need to support the activities?
- What language functions, vocabulary, and grammatical structures will students practice through the activities?
- What knowledge about subject content and culture will the students gain?

Examples of Thematic Units

Three thematic units -- Visiting the Farm, A German Fairy Tale, and The South American Rainforest -- are described below. They were developed by teachers who used Pesola's framework to guide their planning process. In each of these units, the teachers created language immersion settings in their classrooms, planned lessons around themes that were interesting to the students, asked the students to think critically, reinforced concepts and skills from the regular classroom, integrated culture, and gave students many opportunities to use the target language in a variety of situations (Haas, 1999).

Visiting the Farm
Martine's second-grade French class focused on the farm for 4 weeks. The class began each day with an activity that reviewed previously learned language. For example, one student would make an animal sound and call on another student to say the name of the animal. As the students moved from activity to activity, Martine gave them short time limits for specific tasks to be completed on their own or in pairs or small groups. The students used French as they manipulated pictures and completed assigned tasks:

- brainstorming a list of names of farm animals in French that students already knew
- learning new animal names in French
- drawing a farm mural on butcher paper
- singing a song about animals in the barnyard ("Dans la basse cour")
- comparing barns in France and the United States
- planting two types of vegetables chosen from seed packets of common French vegetables
- measuring and charting the plants' growth
- tasting radishes with butter (as they are served in France)
- creating a labeled farm page for their book of all of the places they "visited" in class that year
- sorting food by plant or animal and completing and describing a food pyramid
- making baguette sandwiches
- comparing with a partner pictures of vocabulary words (e.g., the animals on their farm pages, their favorite foods, the ingredients in their baguette sandwiches)
- listening to the story of the three pigs in French and creating their own versions of the tale (e.g., the three horses and the big, bad, hungry cow) which they acted out
- and taking their baguette sandwiches with them to a fantasy picnic on the farm.

A German Fairy Tale
In this 3-week unit, Frederike introduced her third-grade German students to a story based on a Grimm's fairy tale about a pancake (Pfannküchen) by singing the song "Ich Habe Hunger" ("I Am Hungry") with them, then preparing batter (measuring in grams) and cooking a pancake in class. Next, pairs of students compared the sentences they had cut apart from mixed-up copies of the recipe and resequenced them in the appropriate order. Throughout the unit, Frederike began each class by telling or retelling part of the pancake story. "The Thick, Fat Pancake" ("Der Dicke Fette Pfannkuchen") is the story of an old woman who bakes a pancake that does not want to be eaten. It jumps out of the pan and rolls through the forest. The pancake's delicious smell attracts one forest animal after another. The names of the animals describe their characteristics, such as Wolf Sharptooth (Wolf Scharfzahn) and Rabbit Longears (Haselongohr). As the animals tell the pancake to stand still so that they can eat it, each one adds another adjective to describe the pancake: "Thick, fat, dear, sweet, yummy, wonderful, golden, delicious, marvelous pancake, stand still! I want to eat you up!" At this request, the pancake laughs and waves and continues rolling down the hill. Finally, the pancake meets two hungry

orphans, jumps into their laps and begs, "Eat me, I will give you strength." The orphans then eat the pancake.

The students practiced new vocabulary by drawing pictures on the board as Frederike recited the scene and by sequencing sentences about the story using sentence strips and a pocket chart. The retellings were never boring and always included student input and probing questions that elicited information about the animals in the fairy tale. With each storytelling, Frederike emphasized different vocabulary or introduced a new animal. She also engaged the students in activities that provided practice in using German:

- copying sentences from the story and illustrating them to create personal storybooks
- listing characteristics of the animals, such as the large, sharp teeth of the wolf
- creating surnames for the animals, like Wolf Sharptooth
- playing "inside outside circles" (Kagan, 1986), with one circle of students asking questions about the story and their partners in the other circle answering
- pretending to become animals and pancakes when the teacher waved her magic wand, then role playing their actions in the story
- singing and dancing the "duck dance" and learning the parts of the animals' bodies
- listing what the animals ate and learning the German words for carnivore, herbivore, and omnivore
- practicing reading the fairy tale to a partner
- selecting roles for a play based on the fairy tale and presenting the play for their parents and the first-grade German students
- reading their illustrated storybooks to the first graders.

The South American Rainforest

"¿Necesitamos los portafolios de español?" (Do we need our Spanish notebooks?) is one of the questions students ask as they prepare for Soledad's fifth-grade Spanish class. Soledad begins the first class of this 6-week unit on the rainforest with a song about the weather and questions about the weather outside. Soon the class is working with maps, first with Soledad asking questions about the location of various rain forests in the world, then with the students in the role of teacher, asking other students questions.

The activities that follow lead students to communicate with each other, practice their Spanish, and focus on vocabulary and structure: locating rainforests on the map using their background knowledge from social studies class; contributing to a written description of rainforests on the overhead projector; reading chorally what they have written; and playing games and singing songs that practice the names of animals and their movements.

They also work in small groups performing the following activities:

- color the different animals
- create sentences about animal pictures
- introduce themselves as an animal to their neighbors
- create a dialog between two animals
- write their animal dialogs on chart paper

- read and role-play the dialogs, and
- edit the dialogs that they have written.

They learn about the layers of the rainforest and where each animal lives, what they eat, and what their body coverings are. They write and record conversations between two animals that incorporate all of the information covered in class. They create the sounds of the rain in the rainforest through claps, snaps, and pounding feet. They write a paragraph about the rainforest and, finally, they make batidos de mango (mango shakes).

Although each class is different from the others in content and specific activities, all of the teachers planned interesting thematic units that included daily review of language; rich, comprehensible input in an immersion setting; and opportunities to think critically and to process language and negotiate meaning. They also involved students as active and interactive participants in a variety of activities that reflect the goals of the national standards. Although creating thematic units takes time and effort on the part of the teacher, this way of teaching engages students and provides them with a meaningful and exciting context in which to learn a new language.

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American TESOL Advanced Assignments 12-21: Chapters 7-30 of the Cambridge Guide to TESOL

_____

12. Define and describe the elements of pronunciation.

_____

13. What learning materials/teaching aids will you utilize in the TESOL classroom?

_____

14. Define psycholinguistics and bilingualism.

_____

15. Define sociolinguistics, and the difference between macro and micro sociolinguistics.

16. What are the different ways you can utilize computers in the classroom?

17. Define Observation and its four broad functions in context to TESOL teaching. (Chapter 16)

18. What are the different concepts you will explore when doing student assessments? (Chapter 20)

19. Define syllabus, and the four elements that accompany the syllabus.

20. Name and describe 5 language learning strategies for TESOL.

21. Read chapters 25-30. In detail, explain one method of TESOL teaching that you think will work the best for you in the TESOL classroom? Why?

INTELLIGENCE TYPES AND APPROPRIATE EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES

Fluency is an important dimension of communication. Communication involves the integration of different language skills, one of which is pronunciation. By pronunciation in language learning we mean the production and perception of the significant sounds of a particular language in order to achieve meaning in contexts of language use. This comprises the production and perception of segmental sounds, of stressed and unstressed syllables, and of the 'speech melody', or intonation ESL students aim to clearly pronounce and competently communicate in English. Therefore, authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of TESOL classroom activities.

Intelligence Educational Activities

- Linguistic: lectures, worksheets, word games, journals, debates
- Logical: puzzles, estimations, problem solving
- Spatial: charts, diagrams, graphic organizers, drawing, films
- Bodily: hands-on, mime, craft, demonstrations
- Musical: singing, poetry, jazz chants, mood music
- Interpersonal: group work, peer tutoring, class projects
- Intrapersonal: reflection, interest centers, personal values tasks
- Naturalist: field trips, show and tell, plant and animal projects

(Adapted from Christison, 1998)

The challenge here is to identify these intelligences in individual learners and then to determine appropriate and realistic instructional tasks in response. These can be complemented by the right choice of materials and teaching aids such as music (songs), flash cards and games. Materials can be linguistic, visual, auditory or kinesthetic, and they can be presented in print, through live performance or display, or on cassette, CD-Rom, DVD or internet. In addition, computers can assist instructors in teaching phonetics; speaking, listening, reading and writing skills; composition; grammar, and vocabulary practice.

LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGY

Language teaching came into its own as a profession in the last century. Central to this phenomenon was the emergence of the concept of "methods" of language teaching. The method concept in language teaching, the notion of a systematic set of teaching practices based on a particular theory of language and language learning, is a powerful one, and the quest for better methods was a preoccupation of teachers and applied linguists throughout the 20th century. Howatt's (1984) overview documents the history of changes of practice in language teaching throughout history, bringing the chronology up through the Direct Method in the 20th century.

Language Teaching Methodology Defined

Methodology

Methodology in language teaching has been characterized in a variety of ways. A more or less classical formulation suggests that methodology is that which links theory and practice. Theory statements would include theories of what language is and how language is learned or, more specifically, theories of second language acquisition (SLA). Such theories are linked to various design features of language instruction. These design features might include stated objectives; types of activities; roles of teachers, learners, materials; and syllabus specifications.

Syllabus

The syllabus – the plan of what is to be achieved through teaching and learning -- is part of an overall language curriculum or course and consists of four elements: aims, content, methodology and evaluation. Aims identifies what will be worked upon by the teacher and students in terms of content selected to be appropriate for the class. Content is the core of the lesson, what the teacher and students want to learn. Methodology refers to how teachers present and students learn the content. And evaluation is the process of assessing outcomes from the learning and judging the appropriateness of other elements of the curriculum.

Observation

Design features in turn are linked to actual teaching and learning practices as observed in the environments where language teaching and learning take place. Observation refers to the purposeful examination of teaching and/or learning events through systematic processes of data collection and analysis. In language teaching and applied linguistics, classroom observation has historically served four broad functions. First, pre-service teachers are often observed in the practicum context by teacher educators, who typically give them advice on the development of their teaching skill as a regular part of pre-service training programs. Second, practicing teachers are observed either by novice teachers or colleagues for the professional development purposes of the observer. Third, practicing teachers are observed by supervisors, course co-coordinators, department heads, principals or head teachers, in order to judge the extent to which the teachers adhere to the administration's expectations for teaching methods, curricular coverage, class control, etc. And fourth, observation is widely used as a means of collecting data in classroom research.

This whole complex of elements defines language teaching methodology.

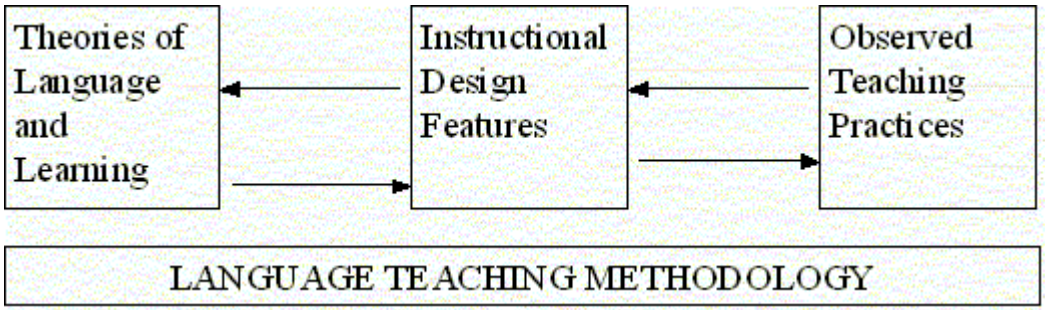

Figure 2. Language Teaching Methodology

Schools of Language Teaching Methodology

Within methodology a distinction is often made between methods and approaches, in which methods are held to be fixed teaching systems with prescribed techniques and practices, whereas approaches represent language teaching philosophies that can be interpreted and applied in a variety of different ways in the classroom. This distinction is probably most usefully seen as defining a continuum of entities ranging from highly prescribed methods to loosely described approaches.

The period from the 1950s to the 1980s has often been referred to as "The Age of Methods," during which a number of quite detailed prescriptions for language teaching were proposed. Situational Language Teaching evolved in the United Kingdom while a parallel method, Audio-Lingualism, emerged in the United States. In the middle-methods period, a variety of methods were proclaimed as successors to the then prevailing Situational Language Teaching and Audio-Lingual methods. These alternatives were promoted under such titles as Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, and Total Physical Response. In the 1980s, these methods in turn came to be overshadowed by more interactive views of language teaching, which collectively came to be known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Communicative Language Teaching advocates subscribed to a broad set of principles such as these: learners learn a language through using it to communicate, and learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error. However, CLT advocates avoided prescribing the set of practices through which these principles could best be realized, thus putting CLT clearly on the approach rather than the method end of the spectrum.

Communicative Language Teaching has spawned a number of off-shoots that share the same basic set of principles, but which spell out philosophical details or envision instructional practices in somewhat diverse ways. These CLT spin-off approaches include The Natural Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, Content-Based Teaching, and Task-Based Teaching.

It is difficult to describe these various methods briefly and yet fairly, and such a task is well beyond the scope of this text. However, several up-to-date texts are available that do detail differences and similarities among the many different approaches and methods that have been proposed. (See, e.g., Larsen-Freeman, 2000, and Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

As suggested, some schools of methodology see the teacher as the ideal language model and commander of classroom activity (e.g., Audio-Lingual Method, Natural Approach, Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response) whereas others see the teacher as a background facilitator and classroom colleague to the learners (e.g., Communicative Language Teaching, Cooperative Language Learning).

There are other global issues to which spokespersons for the various methods and approaches respond in alternative ways, for example, in the matter of how bilingualism, the phenomenon of competence and communication in two languages, develops in adults. Should second language learning by adults be modeled on first language learning by children? One set of schools (e.g., Total Physical Response, Natural Approach) notes that first language acquisition is the only universally successful model of language learning we have, and thus that second language pedagogy must necessarily model itself on first language acquisition. An opposed view (e.g., Silent Way, Suggestopedia) observes that adults have different brains, interests, timing constraints, and learning environments than do children, and that adult classroom

learning therefore has to be fashioned in a way quite dissimilar to the way in which nature fashions how first languages are learned by children.

Another key distinction turns on the role of perception versus production in early stages of language learning. One school of thought proposes that learners should begin to communicate, to use a new language actively, on first contact (e.g., Audio-Lingual Method, Silent Way, and Community Language Learning), while the other school of thought states that an initial and prolonged period of reception (listening, reading) should precede any attempts at production (e.g., Natural Approach).

Assessment

The future is always uncertain, and this is no less true in anticipating methodological directions in second language teaching than in any other field. Assessment will be key in the determination of what makes a TESOL program successful. Assessment refers to a variety of ways of collecting information on a learner's language ability or achievement, and evaluation is judgment made on the basis of a student's performance. The following is a brief discussion of various concepts in assessment.

Formative Assessment

Formative assessment is made to determine a student's knowledge and skills, including learning gaps as they progress through a unit of study. It is used to inform instruction and occurs during the course of a unit of study. It also makes up the subsequent phase of assessment for learning. Formative assessment can be based on a variety of information sources (e.g., portfolios, works in progress, teacher observation, and conversation).

Summative Assessment

Summative assessment that is made at the end of a unit of study determines the level of understanding the student has achieved. In addition it includes a mark or grade against an expected standard. Results can be communicated to the student and parents.

Assessment for Learning

Assessment for learning begins with initial or diagnostic assessment. Feedback to the student can be verbal or written, and no grade or score is given. This type of assessment occurs throughout the learning process, from the outset of the course of study to the time of summative assessment.

Assessment as Learning

In this type of assessment, a student self-assesses his/her learning and takes responsibility for moving his/her thinking forward (metacognition). This occurs throughout the learning process.

THE FUTURE OF TESOL

Some current predictions assume the carrying on and refinement of current trends; others appear a bit more science-fiction-like in their vision. Outlined below are 10 scenarios that are likely to shape the teaching of second languages in the next decades of the new millennium. These methodological candidates are given identifying labels in a somewhat tongue-in-cheek style, perhaps a bit reminiscent of yesteryear's method labels.

Teacher/Learner Collaboration

Matchmaking techniques will be developed which will link learners and teachers with similar styles and approaches to language learning. Looking at the Teacher and Learner roles sketched in Figure 2, one can anticipate development of a system in which the preferential ways in which teachers teach and learners learn can be matched in instructional settings, perhaps via on-line computer networks or other technological resources.

Method Synergistics

Crossbreeding elements from various methods into a common program of instruction seems an appropriate way to find those practices which best support effective learning. Methods and approaches have usually been proposed as idiosyncratic and unique, yet it appears reasonable to combine practices from different approaches where the philosophical foundations are similar. One might call such an approach "Disciplined Eclecticism."

Curriculum Developmentalism

Language teaching has not profited much from more general views of educational design. The curriculum perspective comes from general education and views successful instruction as an interweaving of Knowledge, Instructional, Learner, and Administrative considerations. From this perspective, methodology is viewed as only one of several instructional considerations that are necessarily thought out and realized in conjunction with all other curricular considerations.

Content-Basics

Content-based instruction assumes that language learning is a by-product of focus on meaning--on acquiring some specific topical content--and that content topics to support language learning should be chosen to best match learner needs and interests and to promote optimal development of second language competence. A critical question for language educators is "what content" and "how much content" best supports language learning. The natural content for language educators is literature and language itself, and we are beginning to see a resurgence of interest in literature and in the topic of "language: the basic human technology" as sources of content in language teaching.

Multintelligencia

The notion here is adapted from the Multiple Intelligences view of human talents proposed by Howard Gardner (1983). This model is one of a variety of learning style

models that have been proposed in general education with follow-up inquiry by language educators.

Total Functional Response
Communicative Language Teaching was founded (and floundered) on earlier notional/functional proposals for the description of languages. Now new leads in discourse and genre analysis, schema theory, pragmatics, and systemic/functional grammar are rekindling an interest in functionally based approaches to language teaching. One pedagogical proposal has led to a widespread reconsideration of the first and second language program in Australian schools where instruction turns on five basic text genres identified as Report, Procedure, Explanation, Exposition, and Recount. Refinement of functional models will lead to increased attention to genre and text types in both first and second language instruction.

Strategopedia
"Learning to Learn" is the key theme in an instructional focus on language learning strategies. Such strategies include, at the most basic level, memory tricks, and at higher levels, cognitive and metacognitive strategies for learning, thinking, planning, and selfmonitoring.

Cognitive Strategies aid the learners to make and strengthen associations between new and already-known information and, also facilitate the mental restructuring of information. Some examples of cognitive strategies are: guessing from context, analyzing, reasoning inductively, and deductively, while taking systematic notes and reorganizing information.

Mnemonic Strategies help learners to connect a new item with something they already know. These strategies are useful for memorizing information in an orderly sequence, (acronyms), in various ways; some examples are: by sounds also known as rhyming, by body movement also known as total physical response, in which the teacher gives a command in English and learners physically follow this.

Meta-Cognitive Strategies help learners manage themselves as learners, the general learning process and specific learning tasks. There are several varieties that exist. A group of meta-cognitive strategies makes it easier for individuals to know themselves better as language learners. Another set of meta-cognitive strategies relates to managing the learning process in general and includes identifying available resources, deciding which resources are valuable for a given task, setting a study schedule, finding or creating a good place to study, etc. whereas, other meta-cognitive strategies help learners deal effectively with a given language task, not just with the overall process of language learning.

Affective Strategies include individuals identifying their own feelings (for example anxiety, anger, and contentment) and becoming aware of the learning circumstances that cause them. Using a language learning diary to record feelings about language learning is also helpful, as can emotional checklists. However, cultural norms make an influence on

the acceptability or variability of affective strategies.

Social Strategies ease learning with others and help learners understand the culture of the language they are learning. Some examples of social strategies are asking questions for clarification or confirmation, asking for help, learning about social or cultural norms and values and studying together outside of the class. Research findings suggest that these strategies can indeed be taught to language learners, that learners will apply these strategies in language learning tasks, and that such application does produce significant gains in language learning. Simple and yet highly effective strategies, such as those that help learners remember and access new second language vocabulary items, will attract considerable instructional interest in Strategopedia.

Lexical Phraseology

The lexical phraseology view holds that only "a minority of spoken clauses are entirely novel creations" and that "memorized clauses and clause-sequences form a high proportion of the fluent stretches of speech heard in every day conversation." One estimate is that "the number of memorized complete clauses and sentences known to the mature English speaker probably amounts, at least, to several hundreds of thousands" (Pawley & Syder, 1983). Understanding of the use of lexical phrases has been immensely aided by large-scale computer studies of language corpora, which have provided hard data to support the speculative inquiries into lexical phraseology of second language acquisition researchers. For language teachers, the results of such inquiries have led to conclusions that language teaching should center on these memorized lexical patterns and the ways they can be pieced together, along with the ways they vary and the situations in which they occur.

O-zone Whole Language

Renewed interest in some type of "focus on form" has provided a major impetus for recent second language acquisition (SLA) research. "Focus on form" proposals, variously labeled as consciousness-raising, noticing, attending, and enhancing input, are founded on the assumption that students will learn only what they are aware of. Whole language proponents have claimed that one way to increase learner awareness of how language works is through a course of study that incorporates broader engagement with language, including literary study, process writing, authentic content, and learner collaboration.

Psycholinguistics and Sociolinguistics

Psycholinguistics is the study of language as it relates to behavioral and cognitive characteristics of language users. It is interdisciplinary in nature and is studied by people in a variety of fields, such as psychology, cognitive science, and linguistics. There are several subdivisions within psycholinguistics that are based on the components that make up human language, and the linguistic part of human communication represents only a small fraction of total meaning. At least one applied linguist has gone so far as to claim that, "We communicate so much information non-verbally in conversations that often the verbal aspect of the conversation is negligible." Despite these cautions, language teaching has chosen to restrict its attention to the linguistic component of human communication,

even when the approach is labeled communicative. The methodological proposal is to provide instructional focus on the non-linguistic aspects of communication, including rhythm, speed, pitch, intonation, tone, and hesitation phenomena in speech and gesture, facial expression, posture, and distance in non-verbal messaging.

Sociolinguistics examines the relationship between language use and the social world, particularly how language operates within and creates social structures. Sociolinguistic studies have looked at speech communities based on social categories such as age, class, ethnicity, gender, geography, profession and sexual identity. Micro-sociolinguistics refers to research with a linguistic slant, often focusing on dialect and stylistic/ register variation. Both quantitative and qualitative research methods have been employed to explore such linguistic phenomena as phonological differences between dialects or discourse variation between male and female speakers. Macro-sociolinguistics looks at the behaviors of entire speech communities, exploring issues such as why immigrant communities retain their native languages in some social contexts but not in others, or how social identity can affect language choice.

Lexical Approach to Second Language Teaching

The lexical approach to second language teaching has received interest in recent years as an alternative to grammar-based approaches. The lexical approach concentrates on developing learners' proficiency with lexis, or words and word combinations. It is based on the idea that an important part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical phrases as unanalyzed wholes, or "chunks," and that these chunks become the raw data by which learners perceive patterns of language traditionally thought of as grammar (Lewis, 1993, p. 95). Instruction focuses on relatively fixed expressions that occur frequently in spoken language, such as, "I'm sorry," "I didn't mean to make you jump," or "That will never happen to me," rather than on originally created sentences (Lewis, 1997a, p. 212). This digest provides an overview of the methodological foundations underlying the lexical approach and the pedagogical implications suggested by them.

A New Role for Lexis

Michael Lewis (1993), who coined the term lexical approach, suggests the following:

- Lexis is the basis of language.
- Lexis is misunderstood in language teaching because of the assumption that grammar is the basis of language and that mastery of the grammatical system is a prerequisite for effective communication.
- The key principle of a lexical approach is that "language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar."
- One of the central organizing principles of any meaning-centered syllabus should be lexis.

Types of Lexical Units

The lexical approach makes a distinction between vocabulary traditionally understood as a stock of individual words with fixed meanings and lexis, which includes not only the single words but also the word combinations that we store in our mental lexicons.

Lexical approach advocates argue that language consists of meaningful chunks that, when combined, produce continuous coherent text, and only a minority of spoken sentences are entirely novel creations.

The role of formulaic, many-word lexical units have been stressed in both first and second language acquisition research. (See Richards & Rodgers, 2001, for further discussion.) They have been referred to by many different labels, including "gambits" (Keller, 1979), "speech formulae" (Peters, 1983), "lexicalized stems" (Pawley & Syder, 1983), and "lexical phrases" (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). The existence and importance of these lexical units has been discussed by a number of linguists. For example, Cowie (1988) argues that the existence of lexical units in a language such as English serves the needs of both native English speakers and English language learners, who are as predisposed to store and reuse them as they are to generate them from scratch. The widespread "fusion of such expressions, which appear to satisfy the individual's communicative needs at a given moment and are later reused, is one means by which the public stock of formulae and composites is continuously enriched" (p. 136).

Lewis (1997b) suggests the following taxonomy of lexical items:

- words (e.g., book, pen)
- polywords (e.g., by the way, upside down)
- collocations, or word partnerships (e.g., community service, absolutely convinced)
- institutionalized utterances (e.g., I'll get it; We'll see; That'll do; If I were you . . . Would you like a cup of coffee?)
- sentence frames and heads (e.g., That is not as you think; The fact/suggestion/problem/danger was . . .) and even text frames (e.g., In this paper we explore . . .; Firstly, . . .; Secondly, . . .; Finally, . . .)

Within the lexical approach, special attention is directed to collocations and expressions that include institutionalized utterances and sentence frames and heads. As Lewis maintains, "instead of words, we consciously try to think of collocations, and to present these in expressions. Rather than trying to break things into ever smaller pieces, there is a conscious effort to see things in larger, more holistic, ways" (1997a, p. 204).

Collocation is "the readily observable phenomenon whereby certain words co-occur in natural text with greater than random frequency" (Lewis, 1997a, p. 8). Furthermore, collocation is not determined by logic or frequency, but is arbitrary, decided only by linguistic convention. Some collocations are fully fixed, such as "to catch a cold," "rancid butter," and "drug addict," while others are more or less fixed and can be completed in a relatively small number of ways, as in the following examples:

- blood / close / distant / near(est) relative
- learn by doing / by heart / by observation / by rote / from experience
- badly / bitterly / deeply / seriously / severely hurt

Lexis in Language Teaching and Learning

In the lexical approach, lexis in its various types is thought to play a central role in

language teaching and learning. Nattinger (1980, p. 341) suggests that teaching should be based on the idea that language production is the piecing together of ready-made units appropriate for a particular situation. Comprehension of such units is dependent on knowing the patterns to predict in different situations. Instruction, therefore, should center on these patterns and the ways they can be pieced together, along with the ways they vary and the situations in which they occur.

Activities used to develop learners' knowledge of lexical chains include the following:

- intensive and extensive listening and reading in the target language
- first- and second-language comparisons and translation carried out chunk-for chunk, rather than word-for-word and aimed at raising language awareness
- repetition and recycling of activities, such as summarizing a text orally one day and again a few days later to keep words and expressions that have been learned active
- guessing the meaning of vocabulary items from contex
- noticing and recording language patterns and collocations
- working with dictionaries and other reference tools
- working with language corpuses created by the teacher for use in the classroom or accessible on the Internet such as the British National Corpus (http://thetis.bl.uk/BNCbib) or COBUILD Bank of English (http://titania.cobuild.collins.co.uk) to research word partnerships, preposition usage, style, and so on.

The Next Step: Putting Theory Into Practice

Advances in computer-based studies of language, such as corpus linguistics, have provided huge databases of language corpora, including the COBUILD Bank of English Corpus, the Cambridge International Corpus, and the British National Corpus. In particular, the COBUILD project at Birmingham University in England has examined patterns of phrase and clause sequences as they appear in various texts as well as in spoken language. It has aimed at producing an accurate description of the English language in order to form the basis for design of a lexical syllabus (Sinclair, 1987). Such a syllabus was perceived by COBUILD researchers as independent and unrelated to any existing language teaching methodology (Sinclair & Renouf, 1988). As a result, the Collins COBUILD English Course (Willis & Willis, 1989) was the most ambitious attempt to develop a syllabus based on lexical rather than grammatical principles. Willis (1990) has attempted to provide a rationale and design for lexically based language teaching and suggests that a lexical syllabus should be matched with an instructional methodology that puts particular emphasis on language use. Such a syllabus specifies words, their meanings, and the common phrases in which they are used and identifies the most common words and patterns in their most natural environments. Thus, the lexical syllabus not only subsumes a structural syllabus, it also describes how the "structures" that make up the syllabus are used in natural language.

Despite references to the natural environments in which words occur, Sinclair's (1987) and Willis's (1990) lexical syllabi are word based. However, Lewis's (1993) lexical syllabus is specifically not word based, because it "explicitly recognizes word patterns

for (relatively) de-lexical words, collocation power for (relatively) semantically powerful words, and longer multi-word items, particularly institutionalized sentences, as requiring different, and parallel pedagogical treatment" (Lewis, 1993, p. 109). In his own teaching design, Lewis proposes a model that comprises the steps, Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment, as opposed to the traditional Present-Practice-Produce paradigm. Unfortunately, Lewis does not lay out any instructional sequences exemplifying how he thinks this procedure might operate in actual language classrooms. For more on implementing the lexical approach, see Richards & Rodgers (2001).

Zimmerman (1997, p. 17) suggests that the work of Sinclair, Nattinger, DeCarrico, and Lewis represents a significant theoretical and pedagogical shift from the past. First, their claims have revived an interest in a central role for accurate language description. Second, they challenge a traditional view of word boundaries, emphasizing the language learners need to perceive and use patterns of lexis and collocation. Most significant is the underlying claim that language production is not a syntactic rule-governed process but is instead the retrieval of larger phrasal units from memory. Nevertheless, implementing a lexical approach in the classroom does not lead to radical methodological changes. Rather, it involves a change in the teacher's mindset. Most important, the language activities consistent with a lexical approach must be directed toward naturally occurring language and toward raising learners' awareness of the lexical nature of language.

Communicative Reading Tasks for the Foreign Language Classroom

In describing reading proficiency, the relative difficulty or ease that an individual reader experiences in reading a particular text, researchers have recognized the importance of both text- and reader-based factors. The following focuses on the factor of purpose, as determined by the reader or the instructional context. Having a purpose means having a reason to read and approaching a text with a particular goal in mind, whether that goal involves learning or entertainment. In both real-world and classroom situations, purpose affects the reader's motivation, interest, and manner of reading.

Reading in the Real World

Reading in the real world is defined here as reading outside the classroom, or non-academic reading. Real-world reading is performed for any number of reasons, and the nature of reading varies according to the reader's purpose and situation. These factors inevitably determine the reader's approach to the text, the amount of attention paid, the time spent, as well as what features or parts of the text are focused on.

Perhaps the broadest distinction commonly made in defining real-world reading purpose is that of reading for pleasure versus reading for information. Pleasure reading is most frequently associated with narrative, and in particular, popular fiction. It is commonly perceived to be the antithesis of academic or serious reading. By contrast, reading to learn is pursued to gain insight or information. Reading for information may range from the scanning of documents and the reading of letters to in-depth reading of articles or books. Whether we are reading for pleasure or information, the nature of the reading

depends on what we want from the text, as well as situational factors such as time available or constraints relative to place of reading. No matter what our agenda, why and where we read inevitably determine how we read.

Pleasure Reading in a Foreign Language

In second language acquisition research and theory, Krashen has consistently argued that pleasure reading is an important source of comprehensible input for acquisition. The only requirement "is that the story or main idea be comprehensible and the topic be something the student is genuinely interested in, that he would read in his first language" (Krashen, 1982, p. 164). To encourage light reading in a foreign language, foreign language departments can provide a library or resource where students can browse and take out reading materials of interest. At the high school or college levels, it is possible to incorporate some free outside reading into course syllabi. Over the course of a semester, students can be asked to perform one self-selected reading and report on it in oral or written form. While the reporting task turns the activity into work, the important element of self-selection is still retained. Alternatively, students can work with magazines and newspapers in the classroom or library to create a portfolio of texts on a topic of interest. In the portfolio, students identify the source and briefly summarize the gist of each text. In addition, they write a paragraph explaining their interest in the topic, reactions to certain articles, and questions they may have. The instructor responds in writing with comments on both the topic itself and the text collection.

Because reading is valuable input for language acquisition, it makes sense to take advantage of the fact that many students in elementary courses are capable of reading far beyond the level at which they speak. Strong language learners and good readers can benefit from reading longer, narrative texts at earlier levels of instruction. Unfortunately, readings in elementary textbooks for commonly taught languages are generally limited to short, informational texts. Literary and cultural readings in intermediate textbooks are often only excerpts. As a supplement to introductory textbooks, instructors can assign universally known stories or tales, or longer authentic texts on topics with which students are already familiar. Intermediate-level students can read detective stories or other formulaic fiction.

The Factor of Interest

Wherever possible, instructors should ask students directly about their interests and provide them with choices of authentic texts. But reader interest in a text can also be a function of purpose. Educational researchers have defined several different categories of interest. Individual or personal interest refers to long-standing preferences on the part of a particular reader for certain topics or related subject matter (Schiefele, 1992). By contrast, situational interest refers to interest generated by situational factors, including the text itself. Text-based situational interest is generally defined as interest that is elicited by text through topics or ideas that are of universal or archetypal appeal (Hidi & Anderson, 1992). Another form of situational interest, and one that concerns us here, is reading purpose.

In a study that sought to determine the effect on interest and recall of reading with a

particular perspective, Schraw and Dennison (1994) found that focusing readers' attention on selected text information increases what the researchers term purpose-driven interest and that text segments that are relevant to a readers' purpose are recalled better than those that are not. The implications of this study for classroom instruction are clear and significant. When readers are asked to read a text with a particular focus or angle, both their reading interest and retention of text material are heightened.

Reading Purpose in the Classroom and the Concept of Task

Because reading is more interesting and text information is understood and recalled better when reading is purpose driven, it follows that creating purpose in the classroom reading situation will enhance readers' interest and performance. But how narrowly should the concept of purpose be defined? In the broadest sense, even the most traditional textbook comprehension exercises provide students with the purpose of reading a text for specific information. Yet traditional comprehension questions generally address all information in the text in an undifferentiated manner. This kind of even, comprehensive coverage is well intentioned but unfortunately results in a leveling of content, as if all ideas or aspects of the text were equally important. In short, there is no reading perspective. Rarely in real-world reading do we pay equal attention to everything in a text, and exercises that lead students to approach a text in this way may well remove the important element of interest from the reading process. An alternative to comprehension questions that often accompany textbook dialogues or cultural texts is to have students write a list based on the text. Depending on content, this could be a list of places, events, or even facts the student finds interesting.

Reading with a purpose means approaching texts with a specific goal. When possible, students can be asked to read a text from a specific point of view, depending on what the text might suggest. In the classroom, students can be given reasons to read that approximate their purposes in a variety of real-world situations. They can read ads for apartments to find one that fits a particular set of requirements, look through movie listings and reviews to decide whether to see a particular movie, or respond to a written invitation.

Beyond these comprehension exercise types, purposeful reading can also be part of whole communicative tasks in the foreign language classroom. Nunan (1993) defines a communicative task as a "piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on meaning rather than form" (p. 59). Strictly speaking, in task activities, the goal is non-linguistic. The idea is to get something done via the language, to read a text and do something with the information (Long & Crookes, 1992). Whole tasks involve performance of reading in conjunction with other skills: listening, speaking, or writing. For example, students in a small group might read a number of texts, such as brochures, timetables, or maps, and listen to radio weather or traffic reports in order to carry out the larger task of deciding on the best method of transportation to use on a trip. In such an activity, each student deals with one category of information, and all students must communicate their information to one another to come up with the best plan for the trip.

Still other kinds of communicative tasks may be activities that would not actually occur in real-world situations. For example, a classroom reading task might involve students drawing a picture based on a written text, reconstructing a text that has been cut up into paragraphs, or, in pairs, reading slightly different versions of the same story and discovering differences through speech alone. These tasks, while not real world, are still communicative; the focus is on understanding a text to get something done.
A task approach conveys to students the value of fluent and efficient reading, because reading for a specific purpose means reading texts in different ways at different speeds, depending on the information needed and the task to be carried out. Another advantage of tasks is that students can work with authentic texts from the start. A complex, unedited text can be made accessible by adjusting the level of difficulty of the task. The same text can be used at different points during a semester, each time with a different task or purpose. In rereading the same text with a different purpose, students derive a sense of accomplishment from their progressively greater comprehension and more extended use of the text.

Textual Analysis: Working with Meaning and Form
Recent reading research points to the benefits of working with texts for the purpose of drawing students' attention to formal features of written language as well (Long & Crookes, 1992). A communicative or task approach can and should be combined with analysis of text structure and linguistic features of text; however, most specialists concur that instructors should focus on textual messages first. If an individual student cannot perform a task successfully due to misreading of a text, the student will need to reread problematic segments and attend more closely to the text structure. If many students in a class experience difficulty with certain syntactical structures or forms of text organization, the instructor may choose to conduct a reading lesson that targets those areas.

Students can be led from considerations of content to those of form in a natural manner. In the domain of rhetoric, for example, students can be asked to identify the discourse features of the text that contribute to its persuasiveness. They can focus on pragmatic issues of register and audience and examine the lexical networks that connect text segments and the use of syntax to establish topic and theme. Textual analysis of this sort is a different kind of activity from reading to perform a communicative task. Both uses of text are beneficial, but it is necessary for instructors and students to distinguish between them. It is also important that a text be apprehended first in terms of meaning and reader response.

Foreign Language Literacy and Academic Tasks
In advanced-level courses, such as film studies or special topics in literature, the real world uses of text are less evident; rather, the focus is on academic tasks. In most academic tasks, such as presenting a report or writing a paper, reading plays a significant role.

In discussions of the concept of critical literacy, reading and interpretation have been defined by a variety of researchers as being able to talk about a text, which in turn means being able to participate in a "conversation of readers" (Graff, 1992). In his view, literacy is both a social and cognitive process. Importantly, Graff situates reading within the larger communicative context of academic discourse and emphasizes the primacy of context over text. He argues that reading a literary text in order to support or counter a particular critical argument can engage students who otherwise would not know what to think or say about what they are reading.

Thus, in literature courses, an important sense of purpose can be created by asking students to read from a particular angle or with a particular argument in mind. Literacy tasks for upper-level coursework should afford diverse opportunities for interaction among students: In a discussion of academic discourse and collaborative learning, Bruffee (1984) borrows the Vygotskian concept of thought as internalized conversation to argue for "engaging students in conversation among themselves at as many points in both the writing and the reading process as possible", in short, for pedagogical practice that acknowledges and reflects the social and inter-textual nature of literacy and knowledge. This means less emphasis on reading as a solitary activity and more on reading and talking with others.

Pre-reading Activities for the Advanced Level

A reader's background knowledge with respect to text topic and genre is recognized as a significant factor in text comprehension. As a result, textbooks and pedagogical practice now routinely include pre-reading activities with authentic texts or other reading selections. Interestingly, a benefit of such activities is the focus or purpose for reading that they can provide. The value of pre-reading work for both comprehension and interest does not diminish at the advanced level. In literature courses, for example, writing and discussion can serve equally well as an entry into a whole text or text segment.

Prereading discussion can focus on a critical argument or controversy surrounding interpretation of a text. More simply, discussion or writing tasks can elicit students' personal views or previous readings on a topic or their expectations with respect to text content or point of view. In a civilization course, students familiar with American and French newspapers can be asked to compare articles from The Washington Post or USA Today on terrorism in Paris with articles from Le Monde or Le Figaro. Prior to the reading, they can articulate their expectations about what facts will be highlighted and what perspective or political stance, if any, the articles will reflect. Discussing these issues before rather than after reading provides focus, which in turn creates interest in the texts.

As preparation for reading authentic foreign language texts on a cultural topic, students can engage in peer reading and debate. In this activity, the instructor provides students with a topic for debate formulated in terms of a specific question. Each student writes a short position statement on the topic, making an argument that may or may not represent their view. In groups, students read through and discuss all statements, culling what they believe to be the best arguments for and against each side of the debate. The groups then

compare their results. Again, prior discussion of the arguments provides a focal point for reading.

Writing is a particularly effective form of pre-reading activity that prompts readers to reflect on what they are about to read. Writing activities foster the development of a sense of authorship, which in turn helps make students more critical readers. An effective way to promote active response to text is through assignment of reading journals. In these, students write entries prior to each reading assignment. In addition to writing their reactions to text passages already read, they are encouraged to write prospectively, anticipating story line or character development and formulating questions about what they are about to read. Journal entries are handed in to the instructor or exchanged with other students and form the basis for discussion or for other, more developed writing tasks.

Uses of Text Across the Curriculum

Ideally, it is the intended use of texts by learners that should drive reading instruction across the curriculum. In high schools and colleges, learners' needs may range from fulfilling a language requirement to language use in travel or study abroad or general interest in language and culture. Because of this wide range, it is often difficult to base instruction on a well-defined set of learners' future needs or target tasks; however, it is possible to place increased emphasis on learners' potential uses of text. Such a focus might prompt reevaluation of a variety of foreign language courses and programs, ranging from foreign language across the curriculum to reading requirements for M.A. and Ph.D. candidates in the humanities.

At all levels of foreign language instruction, providing students a reason to pick up a text also gives them a way to read it. In elementary and intermediate classes, whole real-world tasks that offer other kinds of communicative purpose convey to students the value of reading for message. In advanced-level courses, the principle of reading with a purpose means rethinking the conventional "read and discuss" approach to literary and cultural texts. It means that some of the classroom discussion that has traditionally taken place after reading would be better placed before so students have something to read for. Reading with a perspective or reading to decide for or against a particular interpretation not only creates interest in the text but also provides students with something interesting to say after reading. At all levels of foreign language coursework, purposeful reading can enhance interest and recall on the part of students. Just as important, the concept of purpose provides a useful organizing principle for the coordination of reading instruction across the curriculum.

Thematic, Communicative Language Teaching

Foreign language instruction for children can be enriched when teachers use thematic units that focus on content-area information, engage students in activities in which they must think critically, and provide opportunities for students to use the target language in meaningful contexts and in new and complex ways. The national standards for foreign language teaching and learning support this approach to language instruction (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1996).

According to the standards, when teachers plan lessons they should focus on the five Cs: Communication, Culture, Connections with other disciplines, Comparisons with students' native languages and cultures, and use of the foreign language in Communities outside the classroom. Increasingly, foreign language educators are integrating the five Cs of the standards into "content-related" (Curtain & Pesola, 1994) or "theme-based" (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992) curricula. These curricula reinforce or extend the content of the regular classroom curriculum to give coherence to the language lessons. A unit on the solar system, for example, might include vocabulary that describes the attributes of the planets, which students are also learning about in English. Students might also listen to and recite a poem about the moon and the stars, compare the view of the "rabbit in the moon" found in Aztec and Asian cultures to the North American view of the "man in the moon," observe the night sky (phases of the moon and star constellations) in their area at different times of the year, and compare their observations with those of students in other parts of the world through email exchanges in the target language.

Content-Centered Language Learning

Although estimates of the number of language minority students in U.S. schools vary, there is consensus that the numbers are rising dramatically. "Increasingly, the American classroom is multiethnic, multiracial, and multilingual at all levels" (Crandall, 1992). In response, a number of program models have been developed to meet the needs of language minority students, many involving the integration of language and content instruction. In addition, attention to the lack of foreign language proficiency among Americans has led to the development of a number of foreign language programs that integrate academic content into language instruction. In this approach, the second or foreign language is used as the medium of instruction for mathematics, science, social studies, and other academic subjects; it is the vehicle used for teaching and acquiring subject specific knowledge.

Why Use Content-Centered Instruction?

In the United States, Krashen's theory (1982) of second language acquisition has influenced the development of integrated instruction at all levels. Krashen suggests that a second language is most successfully acquired when the conditions are similar to those present in first language acquisition: that is, when the focus of instruction is on meaning rather than on form; when the language input is at or just above the proficiency of the learner; and when there is sufficient opportunity to engage in meaningful use of that language in a relatively anxiety-free environment. This suggests that the focus of the second language classroom should be on something meaningful, such as academic content, and that modification of the target language facilitates language acquisition and makes academic content accessible to second language learners.

Cummins (1981) argues that individuals develop two types of language proficiency: basic interpersonal language skills and cognitive academic language proficiency. He suggests that these two types of proficiency vary according to the degree of context available to the individual and the degree of cognitive challenge of the task. Social

language can be acquired in 1 to 2 years, but the level of proficiency needed to read social studies texts or solve mathematics word problems can take 5 to 7 years to develop (Collier, 1987).

Integrated language and content instruction offers a means by which English as a second language (ESL) student can continue their academic or cognitive development while they are also acquiring academic language proficiency. It also offers a means by which foreign language students can develop fuller proficiency in the foreign language they are studying. In foreign language or two-way bilingual immersion programs, in which a portion of the curriculum is taught through the foreign language, some type of integrated language and content instruction appears to be essential.

Program Models

Content-based language instruction. In this approach--also called integrated language and content instruction--ESL, bilingual or foreign language teachers use instructional materials, learning tasks, and classroom techniques from academic content areas as the vehicle for developing language, content, cognitive, and study skills. The second language is used as the medium of instruction for mathematics, science, social studies, and other academic subjects. Instruction is usually given by a language teacher or by a combination of the language and content teachers.

Sheltered Subject MatterTteaching

This approach involves adapting the language of texts or tasks and use of certain methods familiar to language teachers (demonstrations, visuals, graphic organizers, or cooperative work) to make instruction more accessible to students of different English proficiency levels. This type of instruction is also called sheltered English or language-sensitive content instruction and is given by the regular classroom or content teacher, or by a language teacher with special expertise in another academic area (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989).

Theme-Based

In these programs, a language curriculum is developed around selected topics drawn from one content area (e.g., marketing) or from across the curriculum (e.g., pollution and the environment). The goal is to assist learners in developing general academic language skills through interesting and relevant content.

Sheltered Instruction

Here, a content curriculum is adapted to accommodate students' limited proficiency in the language of instruction. This model was originally developed for elementary foreign language immersion programs to enable some portion of the curriculum to be taught through the foreign language (Genesee, 1987). It is commonly used in immersion and two-way bilingual programs (Met, 1991) and has been adapted for use in second language programs with large numbers of limited English proficient students of intermediate or advanced English proficiency.

Language Across the Curriculum
This is the name given to content-centered instruction that involves a conscious effort to integrate language instruction into all other curricular offerings. This may include the development of integrated curricula and some kind of
paired or team teaching.

In schools where enough students share a common first language, bilingual programs using sheltered instruction have been developed. In one program, students move from content instruction in their first language to sheltered-content instruction in English and then to mainstream classes where they are integrated with English-speaking peers. They receive content-based ESL instruction as well (Freeman, Freeman, & Gonzales, 1987).

For schools with insufficient numbers of language minority students to create sheltered language programs, the techniques for sheltering instruction can be implemented in classes with both native and non-native English-speaking students.

Adjunct Mode
This model links a specific language learning course with a content course in which both second language learners and native English speakers are enrolled. The courses share a content base, but the focus of instruction differs. The language teacher emphasizes language skills, such as academic reading or writing, while the content teacher focuses on traditional academic concepts. This model requires substantial coordination between the language and content teacher; usually the ESL teacher makes the extra effort of becoming familiar with the content. An adjunct program is usually limited to cases where students have language skills that are sufficiently advanced to enable them to participate in content instruction with English speaking students.

Teaching Methods of Content-Centered Second Language Instruction
There is a variety of strategies and techniques used in content-centered second language instruction. Here, the discussion will be limited to four types of strategies--cooperative learning and other grouping strategies, task-based or experiential learning, whole language strategies, and graphic organizers--that increase attention to academic language learning, contribute to content learning, and encourage development of thinking and study skills. (See Crandall, 1992, for additional information.)

Cooperative Learning
In this method, students of different linguistic and educational
backgrounds and different skill levels work together on a common task for a common goal in either the language or the content classroom. Cooperative groups encourage students to communicate, to share insights, test hypotheses, and jointly construct knowledge. Depending on their language proficiency, students can be assigned various roles as facilitator, recorder, reporter, or illustrator. Other grouping strategies involve peer tutoring or pairing a second language learner with a more English-proficient peer.

Task-Based or Experiential Learning
In this approach, appropriate contexts are provided for developing thinking and study skills as well as language and academic concepts for students of different levels of language proficiency. Students learn by carrying out specific tasks or projects: for example, "doing science" and not just reading about it (Rosebery, Warren, & Conant, 1992).

Whole Language Approach
The philosophy of whole language is based on the concept that students need to experience language as an integrated whole. It focuses on the need for an integrated approach to language instruction within a context that is meaningful to students (Goodman, 1986). The approach is consistent with integrated language and content instruction as both emphasize meaningful engagement and authentic language use, and both link oral and written language development (Blanton, 1992). Whole language strategies that have been implemented in content-centered language classes include dialogue journals, reading response journals, learning logs, process-based writing, and language experience stories (Crandall, 1992).

Graphic Organizers
These provide a "means for organizing and presenting information so that it can be understood, remembered, and applied" (Crandall, 1992). Graphs, regalia, tables, maps, flow charts, timelines, and Venn diagrams are used to help students place information in a comprehensible context. They enable students to organize information obtained from written or oral texts, develop reading strategies, increase retention, activate schema as a pre-reading or pre-listening activity, and organize ideas during the prewriting stage (Crandall, 1992).

Among the issues facing content-centered language instruction in the United States is the need for research to evaluate the effectiveness of integrated instruction, specifying optimal conditions for various programmatic effects, including the timing of integrated instruction, the relative effectiveness of different program models, and the use of various instructional strategies, texts, and assessment measures. Teacher training is another concern as the number of second language learners in U.S. classrooms increases. To accommodate this diverse student population, content-area teachers need to know how to shelter their instruction, and language teachers need to learn how to integrate academic language and content better in their classrooms (Crandall, 1992).

22. Write a 1-2 page thesis with at least one cited source. You can write on any type of language barriers that you may encountered while living abroad or teaching anywhere. Also, the thesis could be about an additional teaching method that was not discussed in the text or how the brain learns a second language. The topic can be related to material originally discussed in the text.

Thesis Statement:

Thesis

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