Graduate School of TESOL
Spring 2022

Methods for Young Learners

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Section 1
Syllabus & Schedule

Course: Methods for Young Learners
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Course Description

The goal of this course is twofold. First we will examine our beliefs and actions in a young learner context. Second, we will discuss various methods that are relevant in the young learner context. The rationale is that an understanding and awareness of theory facilitates the development of critical, reflective practice; that is, it helps you develop the ability to evaluate and improve you own teaching practices. To accomplish this you will encounter, practice, and reflect upon a variety of language teaching methods, techniques and strategies and the principles and theories that underlie them.

Texts

The text for this course will be a packet of materials that you can pick up from 참글.

Assessment

10% Attendance and Participation
10% Reading Homework
20% Class Description and Belief Statement
20% Method Presentation (week by week)
20% Lesson Plan (with Method Identification & Rationale) & Micro-Teaching
20% Final Learning Statement

Attendance & Participation

Attendance is **mandatory**. Participants who arrive to class **10 minutes or more** after the start of class will be **considered late**. Participants who are **late 3 times** will receive **1 absence**. Any participant who **misses ¼ or more** of all class meetings **WILL receive an F** in the course.

Homework on Reading

I will also check to make sure you are doing your reading homework. You will answer questions about your assigned readings and I will collect and give feedback on those questions.

Class Description & Belief Statement

First set the context.

> Describe the time, the place that the lesson took place and also describe the age, level, number of students that you taught. Describe the intended learning objective for the lesson and the focus skill that is being taught.

Name of teacher	Place of teaching	Date	Age/#/Level of Ss
Unit / Topic / Materials / Coursebook		Learning Objective	

Next describe the lesson you taught. Try to choose a lesson that you have taught recently so it is fresh in your mind. See below for the template you should use:

Part 1: Describe what happened at the very beginning of the lesson, the first 5-8 minutes.

What you did *What happened*	*What the students did*	*Your Reasons*

Part 2: Describe what happened in the middle part of the class. (Pick an activity from the middle of the lesson and describe it from it's beginning to end)

What you did *What happened*	*What the students did*	*Your Reasons*

Part 3: Describe what happened at the end of the class the last 10 minutes

| What you did
What happened	What the students did	Your Reasons

For the following description, you do not need to use complete sentences. Feel free to use bullets, e.g.

| What you did
What happened	What the students did	Your Reasons
⬧ I stood at the front of the class
⬧I turned on the computer and projector
⬧I played some instrumental jazz music
⬧ I greeted Ss in Korean | ⬧ Ss arrived in a group
⬧ Some Ss sat down others were talking at the back of class
⬧ Ss greet me in Korean
⬧ | ⬧ To get Ss attention
⬧ To create a positive learning atmosphere
⬧ To generate interest in my class |

Please note: This example represents the first 30-45 seconds of the class and you need to describe the first 5-8 minutes!!

As you describe your lesson, please, give as much detail as possible about what you did and what the students did. You must include:
- **What you did/said/wrote in order to explain and to respond to Ss.**
- **What Ss did/said/wrote.**
- **When English/Korean were used.**
- **How the textbook/materials were used.**

After Describing you class, please write a paragraph for each of the following questions:
1. What is the teacher's role in language learning? What are the students' roles?
2. What are some important characteristics/traits of the teaching / learning process?
3. Describe what the interaction patterns should look like in a lesson plan, and why?
4. How should the feelings of students be dealt with?
5. What is language and how should it be viewed?
6. What is culture and how should it be viewed?
7. What kind of evaluation/assessment should be used and why?
8. How should student errors be handled?
Please note: You should write a well developed paragraph for each of these questions. Each paragraph should more than 50 words.

Individual Method Presentation
Individually you present one of the following methods - each person will present on a different method

1) Direct Method
2) The Audio-Lingual Method
3) Storytelling & the Natural Approach
4) TPR & TPRS
5) Storytelling and Dialogic Reading
6) Commutative Language Teaching
7) CBI and Project based learning
8) CBI and Language Experience Approach (LEA)
9) TBL and Project based learning
10) Post Method Principles Eclecticism

Research materials will be made available through the course website.

You will have 12-15 minutes. In your presentation you need to cover the following:
1. What are the main principles about language, teaching and learning that guides the techniques and strategies of the method?
2. What are some of the key techniques and strategies that the method uses to convey, practice, and assess language and language learning?
3. How might you use the method, its techniques and strategies in your own future teaching?
(Describe an activity or specific learning sequence and explain how it uses the principles, techniques and strategies of the method)

Lesson Plan & Rationale
Participants will be asked to develop a 15 - 20 minute lesson that applies the theories that they have studied in the class.

Pick a language topic from a young learner textbook. Adapt the textbook material to develop two or three activities that creatively use an assortment of methods/techniques/strategies that we have discussed. Combining aspects of several methods is expected, because there is **NO PERFECT METHOD** for teaching. Remember, your teaching will be assessed by how well your methods, techniques, and strategies help student learning - NOT by how well you adopt a method.

Before you start, please submit a lesson plan in a simplified format:

Procedures + Instructional language	Method/Reason
Step 1: Setup - have students seated in a semi-circle, pass around cushions, play baroque music + welcome students individually	Desuggestopedia – relax students, put them at ease & so open to learning

On the left hand side include the step that you will be doing and the instructional language
On the right hand side point out which parts of your lesson correspond to the Methods we've been covering.

Microteaching
You will teach your lesson to the class – it will be an actual lesson. **DO NOT** explain your lesson, just go ahead and do the lesson as if they were your students.

After you teach your lesson to your group, you will get feedback of up to 10 minutes on what worked well and what didn't work so well.

Criteria for Assessment

1.	Lesson Plan & Rationale 20%	Clear staging & effectiveness of instructional language; relevant method & pertinent reason.			
2.	Microteaching 10%	Graded in the following way:			
		5 = Excellent	4 = Good	3 = Average	2=Below Average	1 = Poor
		1. Procedural steps are followed, good organization. 2. Techniques/principles of Method(s) smoothly incorporated into the lesson. 3. Sound understanding shown of activity, method, principles and technique. 4. Activity demonstrates creative input on the part of the teacher. 5. Activity is appropriate for targeted learners. 6. Instructions are clear and comprehensible. 7. Teachers voice is at an appropriate volume and sufficiently clear. 8. Activities are between 5 and 10 minutes in length.				

Final Learning Statement
You do not need to re-write your class description. You only need to re-answer the following questions:

1. What is the teacher's role in language learning? What are the students' roles?
2. What are some important characteristics/traits of the teaching / learning process?
3. Describe what the interaction patterns should look like in a lesson plan, and why?
4. How should the feelings of students be dealt with?
5. What is language and how should it be viewed?
6. What is culture and how should it be viewed?
7. What kind of evaluation/assessment should be used and why?
8. How should student errors be handled?

Please, submit your original answers with my feedback along with the re-write.

English Language Textbooks and Teaching Methods

Weekly Schedule

Week Schedule

Week	Content	Homework
1	Course Overview; Introduction to ELT Approaches and Methods for YL	Class Description & Belief Statement
2	Key Terms Sample Presentation GTM Class Description & Belief Statement Due	
3	Direct Method Student Presentation Discussion of Techniques & Applications Critical Period Hypothesis & Immersion	Reading #1: Learning & Development
4	The Audio-Lingual Method Student Presentation Discussion of Techniques & Applications esp. games Introduce/Contrast PPP/PPU Frameworks	
5	Storytelling & the Natural Approach Student Presentation Discussion of Techniques & Applications Introduce the PDP framework	Reading #2: Child as Language Learner
6	TPR & TPRS Student Presentation Discussion of Techniques & Applications	
7	Storytelling and Dialogic Reading Student Presentation Discussion of Techniques & Applications	Reading #3: Working with Young Learners
8	Communicative Language Teaching Student Presentation Discussion of Techniques & Applications	Reading #4: Implications
9	CBI and Project based learning Student Presentation Discussion of Techniques & Applications	
10	CBI and Language Experience Approach (LEA) Student Presentation Discussion of Techniques & Applications Introduce the EIF Framework	Reading #5: Using Games
11	TBL and Project based learning Student Presentation Discussion of TBL with a Focus on Framework that structures the teaching and learning process	
12	Post Method Principles Eclecticism Student Presentation Discussion of Techniques & Applications	Work on rough draft of lesson plan
13	Conferencing on Lesson Plan with Method Identification and Rationale	
14	Micro-teaching	
15	Micro-teaching	Finalize Final Learning Statement
16	Class Closure Final Learning Statement Due	

Section 2
Readings
&
Homework
Questions

Learning & Development – Pinter (2006)
(Please answer **in full sentences** and **use your own words**)

1. What are constructivism, assimilation and accommodation?

2. What are Piaget's stages of development? What are some major characteristics of each stage? What are some criticisms of Piaget's stages? What is important for teachers to remember about these descriptions and criticisms?

3. According to Vygotsky how do children learn? What is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZDP)? What is scaffolding?

4. Why is language used in interaction with parents and teachers important? What does this mean for teacher talk?

1 LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

This first chapter is devoted to questions of how children develop and learn at home and at school. It will discuss how they learn new concepts and develop new ideas about the world, and how adults (parents, carers, and teachers) can help them make the process of learning as successful as possible. The aim is to make a link between what we know about children's development and learning in general and language learning in particular. It is important for language teachers to explore these links and take children's learning and their development in other areas into account. Many of the principles discussed in this chapter will be referred to and built on in subsequent chapters.

Active learning: 'constructivism'

Learning is an active process. All parents and teachers who have observed children in learning situations can testify just how actively they are involved when they are interested. For example, they can be completely absorbed in the story that they are listening to or in the pretend game that they are playing. When they are motivated, children are happy to try new things and to experiment with ideas and thoughts in conversations with adults and teachers. Children learn through their explorations and play, and through opportunities to talk things through with others, usually adults. Exploring can refer to things in concrete terms (for example, playing with sand and water or building with toy bricks) or in abstract terms in conversations with others. Often the two happen simultaneously, for example, children and adults can play together with water and sand and talk about what they are doing.

Jean Piaget (1896–1980), who began to develop his ideas in the first half of the twentieth century, was one of the most famous child psychologists of all times. He referred to active learning as 'constructivism'. He suggested that children construct knowledge for themselves by actively making sense of

their environment. For example, a young child might know that baby birds such as chicks and ducklings are hatched from eggs. When this child comes across other animals during a visit to a farm, he or she assumes that the pigs are hatched from eggs, too. According to Piaget, this is the process of 'assimilation'. The child is assimilating information to fit his or her own interpretation of the world and existing ways of thinking (i.e. all animals are hatched from eggs). At a later stage, maybe, in a conversation about animals, a parent might explain that piglets are not hatched from eggs. At this point the child will have to adapt or change his or her way of thinking to accommodate this new idea. Piaget refers to this process as 'accommodation'. Without this adaptation—something that the child has to do for himself— learning would not take place. Assimilation and accommodation thus describe two sides of the same process, i.e. learning. Such interaction between the environment and children's existing knowledge is ongoing and throughout the years further and further refinements are added to the growing knowledge base. In this way, children are active constructors of their knowledge of the world.

Piaget's stages of development

Teachers and parents can often judge very well what their children can or cannot yet do or understand. Even though children are all unique learners, they also show some characteristics in common with their peers. When parents of similar-aged children talk together they often realize that their children act similarly in a range of situations. For example, parents of five-year-olds find that their children use similar arguments in conversations or enjoy very similar games, activities, and jokes.

Such similarities within age bands were observed by Piaget too, and he developed his famous framework which suggests that there are four universal stages of development that all children go through. Piaget and his colleagues constructed tasks and conducted experiments based on this theory and produced a detailed description of the four stages. In 1923 Piaget published a book called *The Language and the Thought of the Child* in which he argued that development was a process of acquiring the principles of formal logic. He referred to basic logical abilities as 'operations', hence the naming of the stages. Each child follows these stages in exactly the same order, and development unfolds as a result of the biological processes of growth, and the development of the child's brain. Table 1.1 summarizes the main characteristics of children's development within each 'Piagetian' stage.

It is useful for teachers to be familiar with the Piagetian framework because teaching English to children can mean working with very different age groups with different interests and needs. Teaching a class of 12-year-olds

Sensori-motor stage (from birth to two years of age)
- The young child learns to interact with the environment by manipulating objects around him.

Pre-operational stage (from two to seven years of age)
- The child's thinking is largely reliant on perception but he or she gradually becomes more and more capable of logical thinking. On the whole this stage is characterized by egocentrism (a kind of self-centredness) and a lack of logical thinking.

Concrete operational stage (from seven to eleven years of age)
- Year 7 is the 'turning point' in cognitive development because children's thinking begins to resemble 'logical' adult-like thinking. They develop the ability to apply logical reasoning in several areas of knowledge at the same time (such as maths, science, or map reading) but this ability is restricted to the immediate context. This means that children at this stage cannot yet generalize their understanding.

Formal operational stage (from eleven years onwards)
- Children are able to think beyond the immediate context in more abstract terms. They are able to carry out logical operations such as deductive reasoning in a systematic way. They achieve 'formal logic'.

Table 1.1: Piagetian stages of development

requires very different materials, methods, and teaching style from a class of six-year-olds. Given that the starting age for language learning seems to be going down in most contexts (see Chapter 4 on policy), the majority of teachers will probably have to be able to respond to the needs and interest of various age groups, including those in the Piagetian pre-operational stage.

Piaget's 'thinking' revolution: from pre-operational to operational stage

It is worth exploring Piaget's 'thinking revolution' in a bit more detail. Piaget's assessment of children under seven years of age was that they were lacking logical thinking. Instead, young children are characterized by 'egocentrism', which means that they typically look at the world around them from their own point of view and they find it difficult, if not impossible, to appreciate someone else's point of view. One of Piaget's famous experiments was the so-called 'Three mountain experiment' (see Figure 1.1). In this exercise Piaget and his colleagues asked young children to walk around a three-dimensional display of three mountains where each mountain was distinguished by a different colour and a distinctive summit. Once the children had had a chance to look at the mountains, the

experimenters placed a doll at the opposite side of the display facing the children from the other end. At this point they asked the children to choose a photo which showed the doll's perspective. Typically, children under the age of seven in this experiment were unable to choose the correct photo. Instead, they chose the photo which was identical to their own perspective. This was considered as proof of these children's egocentrism.

Figure 1.1: The three mountain experiment

Many tasks similar to the one above were given to children of seven years of age and younger. Some of these tasks tested 'conservation', i.e. the understanding that moving two sticks of the same length away from each other does not change their length, or that pouring water from one container into another does not add or take away anything from the original amount of water. Other tasks tested 'class inclusion', i.e. the relationship of subcategories and main categories and principles of hierarchy, for example, how the concepts of animals, types of animals like dogs, and types of dogs like terriers relate to each other. Typically, the great majority of children under the age of seven gave incorrect answers to all the questions. Piaget concluded that their development had not reached the stage where they could have applied the rules of logic.

Criticism of Piaget's stages

The pre-operational stage

Both parents and teachers worldwide may feel that Piaget's assessment of children under the age of seven was a bit harsh. One of Piaget's main critics

was Margaret Donaldson, the Scottish child psychologist. She suggested that Piaget underestimated young children. First of all, the language used by Piaget and his colleagues in the tasks was confusing for them. In particular, the questions Piaget and his colleagues asked were unnatural and ambiguous. For example, 'Are there more yellow flowers or flowers in this picture?' was a typical question that was put to the children in one of the class inclusion tasks. Donaldson argued that questions like this were uncommon in everyday language use and that the children could not make sense of them. Another source of criticism was the context of the Piagetian experiments. Many children failed because they misunderstood the context. For example, in the conservation tasks when the adult experimenter rearranged the sticks, the children expected a change as a result of the adult's manipulation of the objects. Many children thought that something must have changed, otherwise it would not make sense to ask the same question again. Donaldson decided to redesign some of the original experiments in a more child-friendly format. In a book published in 1978 entitled *Children's Minds*, Margaret Donaldson reported that once these tasks were presented in a familiar context, the majority of the results for children under the age of seven improved. In fact, it has repeatedly been demonstrated that when young children are presented with familiar tasks, in familiar circumstances, introduced by familiar adults using language that makes sense to them, they show signs of logical thinking much earlier than Piaget claimed. These findings and criticisms have important implications for teachers, in particular with regard to issues of testing and assessment in young learners' classrooms. Unfamiliar tasks, unfamiliar contexts, and unfamiliar adults can cause children anxiety and as a result they may perform well below their true ability or not respond at all to the questions or tasks.

The operational stages

Even though the most important criticisms concerned Piaget's pre-operational stage, the description of operational stages turned out to be problematic, too. Children between the ages of seven and 11 all develop formal thinking to some extent but this is usually due to their schooling which promotes such thinking. However, their contexts and cultural practices vary greatly and this leads to a great deal of variety across this age group worldwide. With regard to the final stage, Piaget's descriptions were simply overconfident. The ultimate intellectual challenge of being able to think according to the rules of formal logic is not actually fully and automatically achieved by all teenagers or even adults. Indeed, people do not need to think in a logical fashion in most everyday contexts. Analytical development leading to formal logic is also the result of formal schooling rather than natural maturation and different educational systems contribute to maintaining differences between same-aged children or teenagers in

different parts of the world. In addition, it is also reasonable to propose that development does not actually stop at the age of eleven or twelve but continues well beyond this age, well beyond Piaget's last stage.

While it is true that Piaget's original ideas have been challenged, most developmental psychologists would still support the existence of some stage-like development in children even though the stages are believed to be less rigid and perhaps less deterministic than originally suggested by Piaget. What is important for teachers to learn from Piaget's theory? It is important for teachers to be sensitive and open to the needs and interests of various age groups and continually monitor their changing needs. Careful monitoring and regular feedback from children will help teachers select suitable materials that are developmentally appropriate for the given age group in a given context. As stated in the Introduction of this book, particular attention will be paid to differentiating between the needs of younger and older children. In the following chapters, where appropriate, principles underlying the use of tasks, activities, and other materials with both younger and older children will be offered.

The role of interaction: 'social constructivism'

Vygotsky's theory of learning

With the stage theory, Piaget emphasized the biological basis of development and the universal progression from stage to stage in every child. However, there is an important social side to children's development too. The social environment, the cultural context, and in particular the influence of peers, teachers, and parents engaged in interactions with children are also major sources of learning and development.

Social constructivism is associated with the ideas of the Russian psychologist, Lev Vygotsky (1896–1934). Vygotsky was a contemporary of Piaget and shared some of his basic beliefs about child development. He agreed with Piaget that children construct knowledge for themselves and that they actively participate in the learning process. However, he pointed out that the social environment too has an important role to play. In his book entitled *Mind and Society, the Development of Higher Mental Processes* (translated into English in 1978), he explored the role of culture and social context. He turned teachers' and parents' attention to the powerful effect of the social context: hence 'social' is added to constructivism. Quite apart from which Piagetian stage a child belonged to, Vygotsky was interested in the learning potential of the individual, recognizing the fact that all children were unique learners. He was interested to explore what individual children were capable of achieving with the help and support of a more knowledgeable partner.

Accordingly, the most famous Vygotskian concept was born, the 'Zone of Proximal Development' (or, as it is often referred to, the 'ZPD'). This concept describes the difference or the 'zone' between the current knowledge of the child and the potential knowledge achievable with some help from a more knowledgeable peer or adult. Vygotsky argues that working within the ZPD is a fertile ground for learning because it starts with what the child already knows and carefully builds on it according to the child's immediate needs to go forward. Figure 1.2 gives a visual representation of the ZPD.
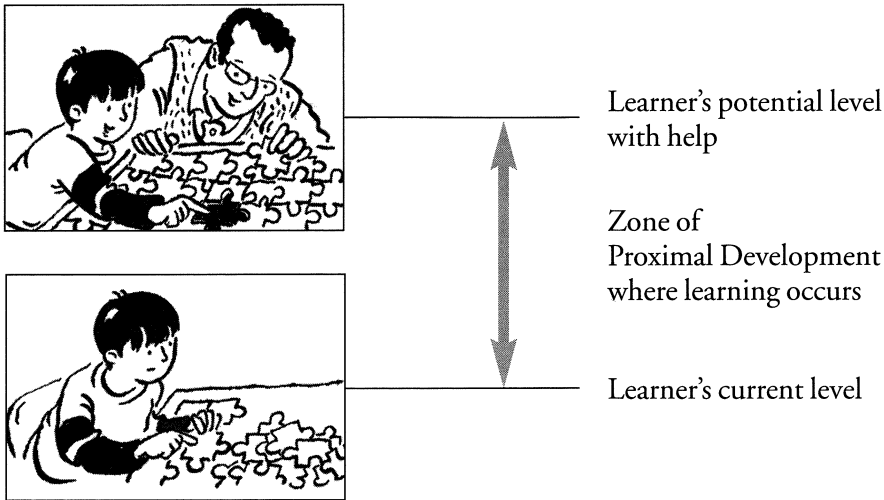

Learner's potential level with help

Zone of Proximal Development where learning occurs

Learner's current level

Figure 1.2: The Zone of of Proximal Development

For example, think of a four-year-old boy who is sitting down to share a story book with a parent when he notices that the cover page of the story book is full of colourful stars. He is eager to start counting the stars and he is able to count up to about 15 or 16 but beyond that he gets confused with the counting. He will say things like 'twenty ten' instead of thirty, leave out some numbers altogether, or just stop, not knowing how to carry on. Left to his own devices, he will probably abandon the task of counting. However, a parent or teacher, or even an older brother or sister, can help him to continue. They can prompt him by inserting the next correct number or by giving a visual clue (for example, showing the number of fingers) or by pronouncing the first sound of the word (*twenty-fff*) that follows.

Helping children to learn by offering systematic support

Given this kind of help, the child may be able to count up to 50 or even 100. When such help is provided in a systematic manner, it is often referred to as

'scaffolding'. Building on both Piaget's and Vygotsky's theory and work, Jerome Bruner, an American psychologist, and his colleagues, introduced this term in 1976 (see also Wood, Bruner, and Ross). Scaffolding is essentially an instructional strategy which ensures that the child can gain confidence and take control of the task (for example, counting the stars) or parts of the task as soon as he or she is willing and able to. At the same time, he or she is offered immediate, meaningful support whenever stuck. During the interaction that takes place in the ZPD, the adult encourages the child with praise, points out possible difficulties, and makes sure distractions are avoided. The adult also ensures that the learner stays on track and is motivated to finish the task. The support is carefully adjusted to the needs of the individual child.

The importance of language for learning

The language used in interactions with parents and teachers is important because it is the vehicle through which understanding and learning take place. It is language that allows us to make messages accessible to our listeners. It is language that allows us to ask questions and clarify what is not clear, and it is language that allows us to express our ideas with great precision. According to Vygotsky, all learning happens in social interactions with others. Learning occurs in conversations, as a result of understanding and interpreting for ourselves what others are saying. At the beginning, when children are very young, parents support them by explaining new ideas carefully, by repeating information in different contexts until they are satisfied that the messages have got through. In other words, early on, adults take responsibility for, or 'regulate', children's learning. One of the most important tools parents use to regulate their children's learning is language, in particular, dialogues. Using language, they remind children what they already know, explain how to go about solving problems, and in general support their learning. Later on, children learn to signal when something is not clear or ask questions to clarify a point. As children mature, they learn to regulate more and more aspects of their learning. Chapter 2 will discuss the crucial role of carers' language to children in more detail and Chapter 8 will explore children's development in taking more responsibility for their learning.

The significance of language has important implications for teacher talk in all classrooms, including of course the foreign or second language classroom. For example, EYL teachers need to be aware that their language use is often the main source of language input. Children learn new language forms in meaningful contexts so listening to the teacher is essential both for modelling pronunciation and for providing opportunities for understanding new input from context. Children also need opportunities to join in and interact with the teacher and with each other. Teachers will need to think about how

they can best scaffold children's early language production in their English classes, what questioning techniques they will use to elicit language from their learners, and how they can encourage children to use language meaningfully with each other.

Children are all unique learners

Gardner's framework for multiple intelligences

Having considered how similarly-aged children share certain characteristics (Piaget) and how the social environment, in particular social interaction with parents and teachers, can make a difference in terms of offering unique, enriching experiences (Vygotsky), I shall now explore the issue of uniqueness.

Teachers and parents often notice that individual children enjoy different activities. For example, if we take working with stories, children who are musical often enjoy singing and dancing and expressing themselves through drama and ballet. At the same time, they may show very little interest in writing, drawing, or colouring. Other children might get embarrassed if asked to join in with singing and dancing but enjoy writing or drawing based on the story. When assessing children's intelligence, many psychologists have argued for the need to take such differences in individuals into account. Howard Gardner, an American psychologist, in a publication entitled *Frames of Mind: Theory of Multiple Intelligences* (1983) suggested that intelligence had no unitary character, rather, it manifested itself in many different ways in different children. He refers to these multiple intelligences as 'frames of mind'. The types of intelligences are linguistic, logico-mathematical, musical, spatial, bodily/kinaesthetic, interpersonal, intra-personal, and natural. New ideas and new practical interpretations with regard to the types of basic intelligences are constantly developing and Table 1.2 merely summarizes the main features of each type of intelligence.

According to Gardner's framework, in the example about working with stories, the first group of children would be described as showing particular strengths in the areas of musical and bodily/kinaesthetic intelligences while the second group exhibit linguistic and spatial intelligences. Teachers who are aware of this framework can ensure that their teaching is meaningful to all children with any one or any combination of these intelligences.

Learning styles

These descriptions of intelligences can be related to another term commonly used in the educational literature, i.e. 'learning styles'. Styles can describe personality types such as more careful and reflective children as opposed to

Linguistic:	sensitivity to the sound, rhythm, and meaning of words and the different functions of language
Logico-mathematical:	sensitivity to and capacity to detect logical and numerical patterns, ability to handle long chains of logical reasoning
Musical:	ability to produce or appreciate pitch, rhythm, or melody and aesthetic-sounding tones, understanding of the forms of musical expressiveness
Spatial:	ability to perceive the visual/spatial world accurately, to perform transformations on those perceptions, and to recreate aspects of visual experience in the absence of relevant stimuli
Bodily-kinaesthetic:	ability to use the body skilfully for expressive as well as goal oriented purposes, ability to handle objects skilfully
Interpersonal:	ability to detect and respond appropriately to the moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions of others
Intrapersonal:	ability to discriminate complex inner feelings and to use them to guide one's own behaviour, knowledge of one's own strengths, weaknesses, desires, and intelligences
Naturalist:	ability to recognize and classify varieties of animals, minerals, and plants

Table 1.2: Gardner's Multiple Intelligences. Adapted from L. Berk: Child Development, *Allyn and Bacon 2002.*

impulsive and more interactive children. Other styles, related to personality features, describe cognitive categories such as analytic or global learners. Analytic learners are those with an attention to detail and global learners are those who are more holistic in their approach. Finally, some styles describe perceptual differences. Some children prefer listening to new input while others need lots of visual stimulus. Yet others are kinaesthetic, which means that they like to feel and touch things and move their body in expressive ways to aid their learning and communication.

It is important for teachers to take into account that all children have stronger and weaker aspects of their multiple intelligences and preferred learning styles. Some of the early preferences and styles might change with time but there will always be a variety of learners in every class. Therefore teachers need to incorporate a variety of activities into second and foreign language classrooms to ensure that everybody's preferences are catered for at least some of the time. For example, when new rhymes or songs are introduced in an English class, it is a good idea to present them using a variety of techniques. Children can listen to the teacher or the tape saying or singing the rhyme or the song. This will cater for learners with an auditory preference. Children can also look at the text of the song or the rhyme in the

book or look at the illustrations. This activity will cater for visual learners. Finally, children can watch the teacher miming the actions and join in with the words and actions, too. This will cater for kinaesthetic learners. Incorporating various 'senses' also makes learning memorable and fun. Once aware of having to cater for different intelligences, teachers can make their lessons more accessible to all children.

Exceptional children and mixed ability classes

In almost all contexts teachers will have to deal with exceptional children: children with very high ability or slower learners with emotional and/or learning difficulties of various types. Many teachers work with large mixed ability classes and they face a similar sort of problem when they have to cater for different needs within the same class. It is essential that all children of all abilities find learning a new language a motivating and rewarding exercise and that they can progress at their own pace. It is the teacher's challenge to provide them with suitable tasks and rewards according to their individual needs. Exceptionally gifted children will need to learn early on to work independently so that they can carry on with motivating tasks while the rest of the class are engaged in something else. Similarly, slower learners need suitably challenging tasks and special support that will keep them motivated and ensure small successes. Children of all abilities will enjoy working together in pairs or small groups and more capable learners can often help weaker ones. These considerations might lead to dividing children into ability groups some of the time and helping them to learn to work independently at other times. It is important for teachers to monitor children's progress carefully because they can develop new strengths and interests over time and they go through spurts of development and other 'ups and downs'. For example, young children are often affected by events at home such as the birth of a brother or sister, a lost teddy, or a parent being away from home, and their performance at school might decline temporarily. It is a good idea for teachers to keep in touch with parents and work together to solve problems.

Summary

Children within the same age groups may show similar characteristics but at the same time they are also very different as individuals with their strengths and preferences as learners. While teachers can benefit from familiarizing themselves with the universal aspects of children's development, it is also important that this is balanced out with focus on the individual child. Teachers will have to use their best judgement in deciding about the most suitable materials and techniques to fit their learners of different ages in different contexts. Learning about the children by talking to them, observ-

ing them, and talking to their parents can help teachers to understand the children they are working with. By incorporating variety into everyday practice, teachers of children can make their lessons full of stimulation for all learner types and intelligences.

Recommended reading

Background theory

Berk, L. 2000. *Child Development.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

This is a comprehensive book on child psychology which covers cognitive, emotional, and social development from birth to adolescence. It is of interest to those teachers who want to refresh their knowledge about child development in general.

Cohen, D. 2002. *How the Child's Mind Develops.* Hove: Routledge.

This is a thought-provoking and entertaining account of child development for both interested parents and teachers. The main theories are summarized in a highly accessible manner. The book contains many interesting topics such as the effect of television and computers on children.

Donaldson, M. 1978. *Children's Minds.* London: Fontana Press.

This book explores the effect of school on children's development. It describes the demands of a new mode of thinking required by school and the nature of difficulties children face but it also offers suggestions to parents and teachers with regard to how they can help children to cope with these difficulties.

Grieve, R. and **M. Hughes** (eds.). 1990. *Understanding Children.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

This book covers areas including language development, reading, writing, picture drawing, and perceptions in separate essays written by established researchers in each field.

Wood, D. 1998. *How Children Think and Learn.* Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

This book covers language development and cognitive development. Wood reviews theoretical debates in psychology and offers a synthesis of what is known about children's thinking and learning.

Tasks

If you would like to look at some practical tasks to explore your own practice related to the content of this chapter, you can try Tasks 1: 'Exploring different age groups' and 2: 'Observing teachers' language use' (Appendix pages 155 and 157).

The Child as a Language Learner – Linse (2005)
(Please answer **in full sentences** and **use your own words**)

1. What is developmentally appropriate instruction / developmentally appropriate practice?

2. Describe the following attributes: emotional/social development, cognitive development, and physical development. Think of a child you know and describe their emotional/social, cognitive and physical development (like on page 6 – original pagination)

3. What is the difference between language acquisition and learning? What is comprehensible input? Why is it important with children?

4. What are some ways to make language comprehensible? Give specific examples.
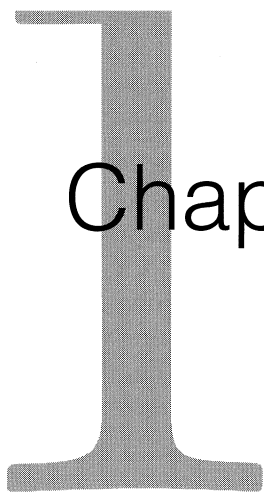
Chapter **One**

The child as a language learner

1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of some of the issues related to children's overall development as well as their language development. We will begin with information about developmentally appropriate instruction and three major areas of children's development: social-emotional, cognitive, and physical. We will then move to suggestions for learning about children's development and interests. Then the distinction between language acquisition and language learning is provided. Finally, ways to make input comprehensible and to support children's language development are discussed.

2. What is developmentally appropriate instruction?

Experienced early childhood professionals encourage **caregivers** and teachers of young learners to provide **developmentally appropriate instruction.** (For the purposes of this book, young learners are defined as children between the ages of 5-12.) By the very nature of your job as a teacher of young learners, you must be aware of children's basic physical and psychological needs. Teachers of young learners should provide the care necessary to meet these needs so that they can thrive and focus on learning. In other words, teachers of young learners have two jobs: to provide care and to provide instruction. In order to provide the best possible instruction, you need to adjust educational experiences to meet the developmental stages of the individual child. It is important to give children challenges that they are developmentally ready to meet.

It is never too late to learn, but sometimes it is too early.

For example, a child who cannot recognize the numbers between 1 and 100 is not ready to do multiplication. A child who has developed strong oral-language skills in her native language is better prepared to begin reading than a child who has not. A young learner who can comprehend a sequence of events is better prepared to understand a story than a child who cannot.

Developmentally appropriate practices

In addition to educators, doctors specializing in child development also encourage caregivers to adjust to a child's individual stages and rates of development. Children require and deserve professionals who interact with them in appropriate ways based on the child's **social/emotional, physical, cognitive,** and **moral development** (Brazelton and Greenspan, 2000). Children develop emotionally, morally, physically, and cognitively at different rates. One child may not be bothered when he is accidentally pushed by another child, while a different child may burst into tears when children look at him in a mildly negative manner. Some children will understand the necessity to share food and toys, while others will believe that if it is theirs, they should keep it. One child may be able to hop at a very early age, while another may struggle for years with the skill. There are children who will quickly grasp sound-symbol relationships, whereas it will take others a longer period of time to comprehend this concept.

By being aware of what children can and can't do developmentally, teachers are better able to provide appropriate learning experiences for their young learners. As a teacher, I try to look beyond a child's age and observe her development to determine what she can and can't do. This makes it possible for me to give my young learners tasks which are within their reach, tasks where they will succeed and experience success. This success gives them the confidence to attempt tasks which are progressively more difficult.

Attributes of development

Figures 1, 2, and 3 on pages 4 and 5 highlight attributes of development in three areas: social/emotional, cognitive, and physical development. The attributes are observable and can help you become more aware of different aspects of individual children's development. Figures 1-3 are guides to help you develop a greater sense of your young learners' individual development. If you are aware of your students' strengths as well as areas where they may need a little extra help or assistance, it will be easier for you to plan appropriate instruction.

Attributes of Emotional/Social Development

Is usually in a positive mood

Is not excessively dependent on adults

Usually copes with rebuffs adequately

Has positive relationships with one or two peers; shows the capacity to really care about them and miss them if they are absent

Displays the capacity for humor

Does not seem to be acutely lonely

Approaches others positively

Expresses wishes and preferences clearly; gives reasons for actions and positions

Asserts own rights and needs appropriately

Is not easily intimidated by bullies

Expresses frustrations and anger effectively and without escalating disagreements or harming others

Gains access to ongoing groups at play and work

Enters ongoing discussion; makes relevant contributions to ongoing activities

Takes turns fairly easily

Shows interest in others; exchanges information with and requests information from others appropriately

Negotiates and compromises with others appropriately

Does not draw inappropriate attention to self

Accepts and enjoys peers and adults of ethnic groups other than his or her own

Figure 1 Attributes of Emotional/Social Development

Attributes of Cognitive Development

Can follow one-step instructions

Can follow two-step instructions

Can follow three-step instructions

Understands the concept of symbols such as numbers and letters

Is interested in academic content

Likes reading or being read to

Likes playing with words, numbers, or abstract symbols

Figure 2

Grasps concrete and/or abstract concepts easily

Can make connections between different concrete concepts

Can make connections between abstract and concrete concepts

Can make connections between different abstract concepts

Comprehends concrete and/or abstract cause and effect relationships

Can recognize patterns

Can follow a sequence of events

Can classify concrete pictures, objects, and/or abstract concepts

Figure 2 Adapted from Attributes of Cognitive Development

**Attributes of Physical Development –
Fine Motor and Gross Motor Skills**

Demonstrates muscle control when using scissors

Demonstrates muscle control when using fat crayons, pencils, or markers

Demonstrates muscle control when holding chop-sticks, spoons, forks, or
   knives

Demonstrates muscle control when using skinny pencils, markers, or crayons

Demonstrates muscle control when using paintbrushes

Demonstrates the muscle coordination necessary to throw or kick a ball

Demonstrates the muscle and hand-eye coordination necessary to catch a ball

Demonstrates muscle control and foot-eye coordination necessary to kick a
   ball when rolled

Demonstrates hand-eye coordination necessary to hit a ball when thrown
   as in tennis, baseball, or volleyball

Is able to skip, hop, run, jump, and dance or move to music

Figure 3 Attributes of Physical Development
(Figures 1–3 adapted from McClellan and Katz, 2001)

Inconsistent development

A specific child does not develop in all areas at the same rate. Children
who are considered to be intellectually gifted are also often considered to be
emotionally young. A child may learn to read at a very early age and have
developed advanced cognitive skills but behave in ways that are viewed as
emotionally and socially immature.

Think of a child you know. The child may be a student you have now or someone in your family. Describe one or more of the children you listed. Be sure to give examples of their physical, cognitive, and social/emotional development.

Example:

Child: Anwar is five years old.
Social/Emotional Development: He uses words and not tears or fists to tell others that he is upset.
Cognitive Development: He can follow two-step instructions such as put your crayons away and line up.
Physical Development: His printing is a little bit messy. He has trouble staying on the line or in the square when he prints.

Share your answer with a classmate or colleague.

3. Learning about children's development and interests

To tailor teaching experiences to meet the developmental needs of individual students, you need to first become familiar with your students. Not only is it important to be aware of your students' development, it is also necessary to know what they find interesting. Although interest as a component of motivation has not been a source of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research, it is what comes to mind when teachers think of motivation (Cook, 2001). This is especially true of teachers of young learners who are acutely aware that children who are interested and engaged in the specific lesson are less likely to be disruptive. Many experienced teachers are aware that some children who have been diagnosed with attention deficit disorders can attend to an activity for an extended period of time if they find the activity or task to be interesting. By knowing what interests your students, you will be able to create engaging and motivating English lessons.

1. Watch a children's cartoon in English or your native language.
2. Try to determine what age child it is created for as well as whether it is intended more for boys or girls.

Explain to a colleague or classmate how you decided on your answers.

Ways to learn about children's development

There are many ways to learn about children's development and interests. Observing children both in and out of the classroom is a good way to start. You can watch children as they interact with their peers, other teachers, and their parents. By watching their interactions, you are able to look at their development from an emotional and social perspective. The types of conversations that children have can also shed light into their cognitive development. As you watch children play games or engage in sports activities, try to observe their physical development. Are they clumsy or well coordinated? Do they enjoy physical activities or avoid them?

Looking at children and the ways that they interact with their peers both in and out of the classroom can be very informative. It is useful to observe whether children are part of the in-group or whether they are shunned when members of teams are chosen or when children are asked to work with others in pairs or groups. To observe a child's social development, watch how he interacts with his peers and with adults. For example, is he truly interacting with his peers? Is there give and take, or is he being dominated by them? For some children who are shunned, this will be a source of concern, a source of emotional pain, whereas for other children, there will be little concern. Being aware of this aspect of social/emotional development will be helpful when asking children to work with one another.

Children's treasures

Paying attention to children's belongings, the treasures they carry around, is another good way to learn about their interests and development. What children put in their book bags can be a real eye opener. A boy who carries miniature basketballs in his pencil case will most likely have a special interest in basketball. A child who always carries notebooks and pencils with pictures of horses may do so because horses are her favorite animal. A six-year-old who carries and reads books without any pictures has probably developed advanced cognitive skills.

A simple survey

Another way to learn about children's development and interests is by asking them to take simple surveys. Jayne Moon (2002) advocates using surveys as a way to gather information about the learning process from children themselves. Depending on their age, English level, and literacy level, children can answer simple written questions with words and/or pictures.

The reproducible survey on pages 19 and 20 is designed to help you, as a teacher, discover children's perceptions of what they can do both in and out of the classroom. Children are asked to complete sentences about different activities they do at home and school. They are asked specifically to describe

what they like to do, what is easy and hard for them to do, as well as who helps them do things which they find to be difficult.

Children who are able to read and write in English can write their responses on the survey. For children who possess literacy skills in their native language, but not in English, you may wish to translate the form into the children's native language. Children who are not able to read and write in English or their native language can dictate their responses to a teacher and draw pictures on the survey.

Obtaining the best results from the survey

Often, when a teacher models a task such as completing an item from the survey, the students merely copy the teacher's example. For instance, if I modeled Number 1 from the survey (At home, I like to _____.) by saying that at home I like to read, all of the students in my class might give the same response. When asking children to give personal or personalized information, it is useful to give an example that they cannot copy so that they will not simply replicate what you have said (Yedlin, 2003). If I provide a model which is impossible for children to replicate, then they are more likely to provide their own content. However, I need to make sure that children are able to understand the language that I use. Therefore, when I give an example, I am careful to use the vocabulary that children have been taught. For example, I might say, "At home, I like to cook dinner for my friends" or "At school, it is hard for me to open the classroom door with my key."

I chose an example from my own life because children enjoy learning about their teachers' real grown-up interests. In the second example, I chose something that my students have observed so that they are more likely to comprehend the example. When I give the second example, I would also show children the classroom door key to help them understand what I am talking about.

> ### Example 1
>
>
>
> 5. It used to be hard for me to tie my shoes, but now it is easy.

In Example 1, the response indicates that the child has developed the hand-eye and fine motor skills necessary to tie her own shoes.

Talking to children about their surveys

Not only can you look at children's surveys, you can also talk to them about their responses. It is best to do this on a one-to-one basis when the other children are writing, drawing, or doing other independent work. From both psychological and cultural standpoints, it may not be a good idea to discuss children's responses to the survey in a large group setting. Instead, you can very easily walk around and quietly speak to children about their responses.

Look at Luis's response to Number 10. Seven-year-old Luis has drawn a picture of himself and another boy working together.

Example 2
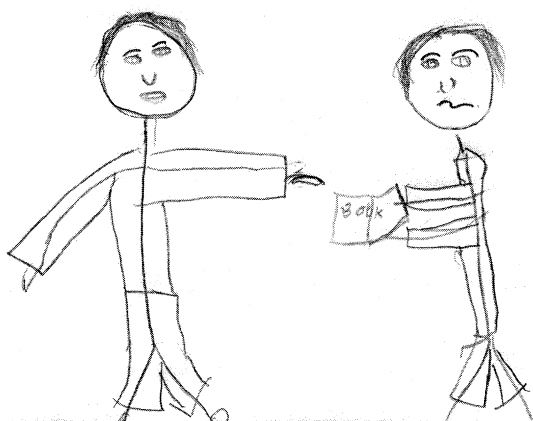
10. I like to have <u>Marco</u> help me when it is hard for me to do something.

In Extract 1, the teacher is able to determine how and why Marco can help. This simple exchange illustrates how Luis understands that he needs extra support and who, among his classmates, can provide that support. As with all extracts in this book, T stands for *teacher* and S stands for *student*.

Extract 1

T: Luis, who can help you at school?

S: Marco.

T: Why do you think Marco can help you at school?

S: Because he is really, really good at spelling, and I'm bad at spelling.

T: Well, spelling may be hard for you, but you are good at drawing. (Teacher looks and smiles at one of Luis's pictures on the wall.)

S: *Yeah.* (Luis smiles.)

T: *No one can do everything perfectly.* (Luis continues to smile and to look at his picture on the wall.)

Notice the teacher begins the conversation by asking Luis who helps him at school. When Luis states that he is *bad* at spelling, the teacher is careful to mention—in a matter-of-fact way—something that he does well with a concrete example. Children often need to be reminded that what is easy for one person may be very difficult for someone else.

Children's work

Examining children's work, including the drawings and writings that they do on a daily basis, is a good strategy for learning about their growth, development, and interests. Educators and art therapists examine children's drawings in an effort to determine their social/emotional and cognitive development (Levick, 1998). You can look at the facial expressions that children put on the people in their drawings as an indication of their social and emotional development. For instance, I would be concerned when all of the people that a child draws are frowning. Also, children who are younger and less developed cognitively, generally include less detail in their drawings. For example, they may not draw eyebrows or fingers.

Elicit or gather pictures of people drawn by children ages 5 to 12. Examine the emotional expressions on the faces of the people in the pictures. Look at the level of detail of the people. For example, you may want to look at this picture done by a five-year-old girl.
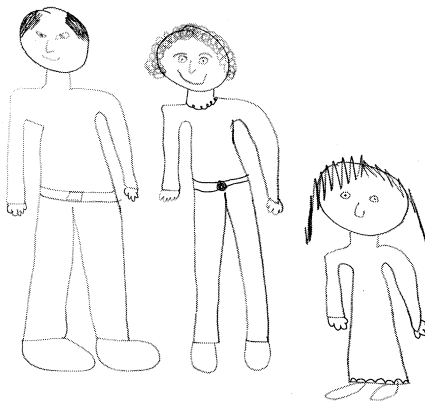
What can you deduce about the child's social, emotional, and cognitive development? Share your deductions with a colleague or classmate.

Talking and Writing Box

Another way to learn about children's interests is by having them create a Talking and Writing Box. The Talking and Writing Box is a small box that children cover with pictures that interest them. They use the box to carry items related to their English-language class. Children create a Talking and Writing Box at the beginning of the year and then use it throughout the year as a basis for speaking and writing activities. In Chapter 3, we will discuss speaking activities that use the Talking and Writing Box. In Chapter 5, you will be given suggestions for writing activities using the Talking and Writing Box.

Materials: A shoe box (or a box the size of a shoebox) for each student, magazines, newspapers and other pictures, scissors, and glue sticks.

Creation of the boxes

1. Have students gather 30–40 pictures that are meaningful to them. Students should be certain to include pictures of food, objects, toys, animals, plants, and people.

2. Have students cut out their pictures and paste them on the outside of their boxes. They first cover the outside of their boxes and then the inside of their boxes.

Figure 4 How to make a Talking and Writing Box

1. Think about your current or potential teaching situation. Consider the students' ages, the number of students in the class, whether the students can read and write in either their native language, English, or both. What are three of the most practical ways to learn about these students' development and interests?

2. What are advantages and disadvantages of each way?

Share your answers with a classmate or colleague.

4. Children's language learning and acquisition

Even though they are related, children's language skills development is separate from their overall development (Freeman and Freeman, 2004). In fact, one of the indicators of cognitive development is language development. Family members, caregivers, and teachers of young learners are acutely aware of the importance of language development.

Krashen (1987) has examined language development and has differentiated the process of **language acquisition** from the process of **language learning**. Language acquisition is the natural process used to develop language skills in a child's native language. The home environment for acquiring a native language is often different from the classroom environment used to teach a second or foreign language. When a child is acquiring their native language at home, the focus is on the message being conveyed rather than the form or correctness of the language. For example, when a native English-speaking child says the word, "Muma" instead of "Mama," her mother would applaud the effort and not worry that the pronunciation was not perfect. When a five-year-old is telling a story about something exciting that took place at camp, his grandmother would focus on what he was talking about rather than how he was saying it.

The term *language learning* is often used to describe the more formal approach to language instruction. Language learning usually refers to the language instruction that takes place in a classroom. Focus is usually on the form of the language rather than on the message being conveyed. For example, in a language-learning classroom, you might see children learning phonics rules—hopefully using a game-format.

It is important to note that even native speakers spend time learning about their language. When it comes to language acquisition and language learning, it doesn't need to be an either-or situation. The focus can be on the message conveyed *and* the form of the language being used.

1. When you were a child between the ages of 5 and 12, what things did you talk about with your family? Did you talk about your favorite doll, toy, or pet? Who did you talk to? Were the conversations mostly focused on form such as correct grammar or meaning?

2. At school, what types of things did you learn about your native language? For example, did you learn about uncommon grammatical constructions?

Share your answers with a classmate or colleague.

5. Making input meaningful to learners

As a teacher, it is important that your students are presented with language that they can understand. **Comprehensible input** is input which is a little bit above the learner's language level but understandable (Krashen, 1986). Although the language is slightly above the learner's level, it is nevertheless meaningful and understandable because of the **context** and other support provided with the input. It is important for you, as a teacher, to provide young learners with different types of input. For example, if you are telling a story about a family, you could use puppets and change your voice as you become each character. You could use a deep voice as you become the father, a higher voice for the mother, and a softer voice for the baby.

As a teacher, there are many different ways that you can make input comprehensible. Here are some suggestions:

- Set the stage. Provide context. For example, if you are going to talk about farm animals, you may want to put up a bulletin board of a scene with pictures of cows, chickens, horses, and other animals.
- Build schema by relating a new topic to the students' prior knowledge and experiences.
- Provide a variety of input. Be sure to provide visual, auditory, and tactile input. Use props, realia, and pictures. Feely boxes (boxes with tactile items inside that children can feel and touch, such as items that are hard, soft, fury, smooth, metal, etc.) and headphones at listening centers are often neglected but good sources of input.
- Make the classroom language rich with environmental print such as labels on the wall, posters with words, and children's books.
- Model each instruction as it is given. Be sure to give only one instruction at a time so that children can directly link the instruction with the actual directions.

- Use language while you are performing different actions. For example, if you are opening a child's thermos, you could say, "I am opening your thermos for you. It is really hard."

1. Think about teaching a lesson on farm animals (cows, donkeys, horses, and chickens) to five-year-old students. Brainstorm ways to make the content comprehensible.
2. How could you introduce the topic?
3. What kinds of visuals could you use? What kinds of sound effects could you use? What kinds of hands-on materials such as toy animals could you use?
4. What type of bulletin board display could you and/or your students make?

6. Supporting children's language acquisition and learning

In addition to making sure that the input is comprehensible, there are many different ways that children's language acquisition and learning can be supported. According to Vygotsky (1978), children's language learning is advanced through social interaction and experiences based on the context or situation. Vygotsky (1962) explains that adults provide children with the language (permanent meanings of words), not with the thinking itself. Nevertheless, adults can support children as learners by modifying interactions to foster both intellectual and language development.

Support can be given to a child within the child's **Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)** (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky has defined the ZPD as the area of support provided so that a child can accomplish a task she couldn't do on her own. In other words, without that ZPD, a child would be unable to complete a given task independently. Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1978) have used the term **"scaffolding"** to describe the type of support that can be given through interaction within a child's ZPD. The type of scaffolding that is effective is not the same for all cultures and is only effective when it takes into account the child's culture (Berk & Winsler, 1995). In some cultures, a parent or other adult will provide the support necessary for a child to complete a task. In other cultures, it is more likely that a brother or sister, or someone who is closer in age to the child, will provide the support needed to complete the task. Learning this type of information will help you in different ways. For example, it will make it easier for you to advise children who they can go to when they need assistance with homework.
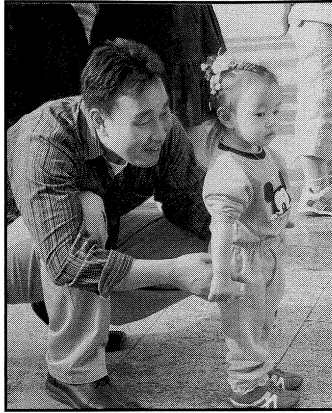
The father provides scaffolding for his daughter learning how to walk.

Look at Extract 2 below. Note that the teacher uses the social interaction between herself and her student as a way to provide scaffolding.

This extract is an example of a teacher using her knowledge of her student's interest to provide the scaffolding necessary for the child to answer a question. The teacher is aware that Mi Li may be able to recognize the names of animals even though she may not be able to come up with the words on her own. The teacher also models the language—a complete sentence using Mi Li's information.

Extract 2

T: *Mi Li, what do you like to do on weekends?*

S: *Play.*

T: *Who do you like to play with?* (Waits a full 10 seconds. Remembers the picture that Mi Li drew playing with her kitten.) *Do you like to play with your dog or your cat?*

S: *My cat.*

T: *Good. You like to play with your cat.*

Wait Time

Many teachers make the assumption that when you ask a question you shouldn't wait too long for students to respond or they will get frustrated. Actually the opposite is true. Incorporating **wait time** into your teaching is very important. One way to provide children with support is to increase the amount of time that you wait for them to respond to a question. Sometimes it takes children up to five to ten seconds to access the information being asked for by the teacher.

It is not always necessary for the teacher to provide the scaffold or support for their students. Look back at Extract 1 on page 9. Luis, who is having trouble with phonics, was aware that one of his classmates would be able to help him with spelling. Luis may or may not be aware that the teacher has a lot of other children to help, but in this case he does know who, in addition to the teacher, can provide him with the support.

1. Teachers are not the only people who help children to learn. When you were a child, who, besides your teachers, helped you learn? What did they help you to learn? Think of four people who taught you something when you were a child. For example, my grandmother taught me how to make an omelet.

2. Was the relationship between yourself and the person who helped you important? Why or why not? For instance, was the person a family member? Was he a favorite teacher? What was the relationship like? Was it supportive?

Share your answers with a classmate or colleague.

7. Conclusion

In this chapter, I addressed the issues of younger learners' development and then turned to their language development within the context of overall development. The ways that children develop emotionally, cognitively, and physically were discussed as well as ways to observe children's development and to learn about their interests. I then presented basic concepts related to the development of language skills. Finally, I showed how teachers can use knowledge of the child to make language learning developmentally appropriate.

Further readings

Berk, L.E. and A. Winsler. 1995. *Scaffolding Children's Learning: Vygotsky and Early Childhood Education.* Washington D.C.: NAEYC.

This book helps teachers and caregivers provide young learners with the support (scaffolding) that they need to achieve a wide variety of educational outcomes both large and small.

Tomilinson, C.A. 1999. *The Differentiated Classroom: Responding to the Needs of All Learners.* Alexandria, VA: ASCD (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development).

This very helpful book provides teachers with practical suggestions for setting up a classroom to meet the developmental needs of all learners.

Walter, T. 1996. *Amazing English: How-To Handbook.* Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.

This book is aimed at teachers of young learners and provides succinct information about second language acquisition. There are numerous charts which help to illustrate some of the most appropriate, child-centered, second language acquisition research.

Helpful Web sites

The Child Development Institute (www.childdevelopmentinfo.com/index.htm)

A helpful web site for teachers and parents interested in learning more about children's development in different areas.

National Association for the Education of Young Children (www.naeyc.org)

This is the web site of the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC). NAEYC, with 100,000 members, is a professional organization for educators working with young children. NAEYC advocates the use of developmentally appropriate practices and strives to advance the profession of education for young learners.

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Name: _____   Date: _____

Complete each sentence. Draw a picture to go with each sentence.
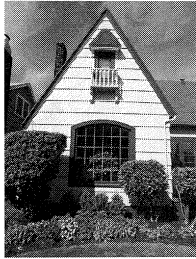
At Home	At School
1. I like to _____.	**2.** I like to _____.
3. It is easy for me to _____.	**4.** It is easy for me to _____.
5. It is hard for me to _____.	**6.** It is hard for me to _____.

Name: _____ Date: _____

Complete each sentence. Draw a picture to go with each sentence.
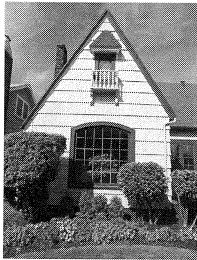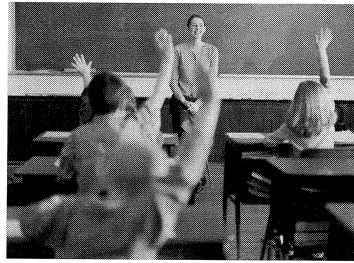
At Home	At School
7. It used to be hard for me to_____, but now it easy.	**8.** It used to be hard for me to_____, but now it is easy.
9. I like to have _____ help me when it is hard for me to do something.	**10.** I like to have _____ help me when it is hard for me to do something.

Working with Young Learners – Halliwell (1992)
(Please answer **in full sentences** and **use your own words**)

1. Summarize the six instincts, skills, or characteristics that children have when they enter the classroom and these instincts, skills and characteristics help them to learn language.

1

Working with young language learners

Young children do not come to the language classroom empty-handed. They bring with them an already well-established set of instincts, skills and characteristics which will help them to learn another language. We need to identify those and make the most of them. For example, children:

– are already very good at interpreting meaning without necessarily understanding the individual words;
– already have great skill in using limited language creatively;
– frequently learn indirectly rather than directly;
– take great pleasure in finding and creating fun in what they do;
– have a ready imagination;
– above all take great delight in talking!

How does each of these qualities help a child in the foreign language classroom and how can the teacher build on them?

**1.1
Children's ability
to grasp meaning**

We know from experience that very young children are able to understand what is being said to them even before they understand the individual words. Intonation, gesture, facial expressions, actions and circumstances all help to tell them what the unknown words and phrases probably mean. By understanding the message in this way they start to understand the language. In later life we all maintain this first source of understanding alongside our knowledge of the language itself. It remains a fundamental part of human communication.

Children come to primary school with this ability already highly developed. They continue to use it in all their school work. For example, even though their mother tongue skills are already well established, they may well find it difficult to follow purely verbal instructions and information. When this happens, or sometimes simply out of laziness or inattention, children will tend to rely on their ability to 'read' the general message. In fact we can see this

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happening most clearly when they get it wrong! More importantly, particularly in terms of language development, their message-interpreting skill is part of the way they learn new words, concepts and expressions in their mother tongue as their language expands to meet the new challenges of school.

So when children encounter a new language at school, they can call on the same skill to help them interpret the new sounds, new words and new structures. We want to support and develop this skill. We can do this by making sure we make full use of gesture, intonation, demonstration, actions and facial expressions to convey meaning parallel to what we are saying. The account in *Practical Activities 2* of the science lesson taught in English shows in detail how you can do this. At the same time, we must also try not to undermine the children's willingness to use the skill. As we shall see in Chapter 2, this can happen when we try to 'pin down' understanding too precisely.

Alongside this ability to perceive meaning, children also show great skill in producing meaningful language from very limited resources. This too will help them when they encounter a new language and is therefore something else we want to build on.

1.2 Children's creative use of limited language resources

In the early stages of their mother tongue development children excel at making a little language go a long way. They are creative with grammatical forms. They are also creative with concepts. The four-year-old British child who said 'don't unring' when she wanted to tell a telephone caller to wait, was using her existing knowledge of the way the negative prefix works in order to create a meaning she needed. Similarly another four year old was showing the same kind of creativity, this time with concepts, when he wanted the light put on. What he actually said was 'Switch off the dark. I don't like the dark shining.' Children also create words by analogy, or they even invent completely new words which then come into the family vocabulary.

This phenomenon is fundamental to language development. We see it in all children acquiring their mother tongue. We also know it in ourselves as adults when we are using another language. Sometimes, for example, we don't know the word or the grammatical structure for what we want to say. So we find other ways of conveying the meaning. Sometimes we just make up words or even just say words from our mother tongue in a foreign accent. We stretch our resources to the limit. In the process, we may well produce temporarily inexact and sometimes inept language, but we usually manage to communicate. In doing so we are actually building up our grasp of the language because we are *actively recombining* and *constructing* it for ourselves.

This process would appear to be a very deep-rooted human instinct. It actually occurs in the language classroom even without our help. For example, it occurs naturally when the need to communicate has been temporarily intensified by some activity which generates real interaction or calls on the imagination. In order to make the most of the creative language skill the children bring with them, we therefore have to provide them with occasions when:

– the urge to communicate makes them find *some* way of expressing themselves;
– the language demanded by the activity is unpredictable and isn't just asking the children to repeat set phrases, but is encouraging them to construct language actively for themselves.

That is why games are so useful and so important. It is not just because they are fun. It is partly because the fun element creates a desire to communicate and partly because games can create unpredictability.

If we acknowledge the need for unpredictability, it follows that in addition to occasions when the children practise learnt dialogues or other specific language items under close teacher guidance, there will also need to be occasions when we set up an activity and then leave the children to get on with it. This obviously raises questions about mistakes and correction but, as the next chapter shows, there are good reasons why we must allow the children opportunities to make mistakes. In fact, if children are impatient to communicate they probably will make *more* not *fewer* mistakes.

The desire to communicate also ties in with the next capacity that children bring with them to the classroom, namely their aptitude for indirect learning.

1.3 Children's capacity for indirect learning

Even when teachers are controlling an activity fairly closely, children sometimes seem to notice something out of the corner of their eye and to remember it better than what they were actually supposed to be learning. At times this can be a frustrating experience for the teacher but this capacity too can be turned to our advantage in the language classroom. It is part of the rather complex phenomenon of indirect learning.

Language activities which involve children in guessing what phrase or word someone has thought of are very good examples of this phenomenon in action. As far as the children are concerned, they are not trying to learn phrases: they are concentrating on trying to guess right. However, by the time they have finished the repeated guessing, they will have confirmed words and structures they only half knew at the beginning. They will have got the phrases firmly into their minds. They will probably even have adjusted their pronunciation. Guessing is actually a very powerful way of learning phrases and structures, but it is *indirect* because the mind is engaged with the task and is not focusing on the language. The process relates very closely to the way we develop our mother tongue. We do not consciously set out to learn it. We *acquire* it through continuous exposure and use.

Both conscious direct learning and subconscious indirect learning, or 'acquisition', are going to help someone internalise a new language. Experience tells us that we all seem to have something of both systems in us. It will depend on a mixture of intellectual development, temperament and circumstance whether we are more inclined to use one system rather than the other. In practical terms each system has its contribution to make. Conscious direct learning seems to encourage worked-out accuracy. Unconscious indirect learning, or acquisition, encourages spontaneous and therefore more fluent use. Ideally we want both accuracy and fluency to develop. So in the classroom we need to provide scope for both systems to operate. Within our lessons there will therefore need to be times for conscious focus on language forms *and* times for indirect learning with its focus on making meaning. There will be times for both precision *and* for rough and ready work. You may also notice that in your class you have children who are temperamentally more inclined to operate in one way than the other. In all aspects of life there are people who like to get everything sorted out and others who like to 'muddle through'. The children who like to get on with something no matter how it comes out will need

encouragement to work at conscious accuracy, and others who are keen to be precise will need encouragement to risk getting things wrong sometimes in order to communicate. We must be clear in our own minds which we are trying to encourage at any given moment and must also make it clear to the children in the way we set up activities what it is we are asking them to do. This is because each of the processes can easily get in the way of the other.

In general terms, however, it is probably true to say that at primary school level the children's capacity for conscious learning of forms and grammatical patterns is still relatively undeveloped. In contrast, all children, whether they prefer to 'sort things out' or 'muddle through', bring with them an enormous instinct for indirect learning. If we are to make the most of that asset we need to build on it quite deliberately and very fully.

For this reason, we can see why it is a good idea to set up real tasks in the language classroom if we can. Real tasks, that is to say worthwhile and interesting things to do which are not just language *exercises*, provide the children with an occasion for real language use, and let their subconscious mind work on the processing of language while their conscious mind is focused on the task. We can also see again why games are more than a fun extra. They too provide an opportunity for the real using and processing of language while the mind is focused on the 'task' of playing the game. In this way, games are a very effective opportunity for indirect learning. They should therefore not be dismissed as a waste of time. Nor should we regard them just as something we can introduce as a filler for the end of the lesson or as a reward for 'real work'. They *are* real work. They are a central part of the process of getting hold of the language. This is perhaps just as well because children have a very strong sense of play and fun.

1.4 Children's instinct for play and fun

Children have an enormous capacity for finding and making fun. Sometimes, it has to be said, they choose the most inconvenient moments to indulge it! They bring a spark of individuality and of drama to much that they do. When engaged in guessing activities, for example, children nearly always inject their own element of drama into their hiding of the promptcards and their reactions to the guesses of their classmates. They shuffle their cards ostentatiously under the table so that the others can't see. They may utter an increasingly triumphant or smug 'No!' as the others fail to guess. Or when they are doing the 'telepathy' exercise suggested on page 61 they enter into the spirit of the event. They know perfectly well it isn't 'real' but it doesn't stop them putting effort and drama into it. They stare hard at the rest of the class, they frown or they glower. Here, as in the guessing activities, their personalities emerge, woven into the language use. In this way, they make the language their own. That is why it is such a very powerful contribution to learning.

Similarly, no matter how well we explain an activity, there is often someone in the class who produces a version of their own! Sometimes it is better than the teacher's original idea. Some of the activities in *Practical Activities 1* have already been changed in this way from their original form by the children who have used them. One example of how children can produce something better than the teacher's own idea comes from a class of nine to ten year olds. They were doing an activity which asked them to follow directions round a map in order to check true/false statements about the location of

shops. The cards and maps they were using had been clipped together with a paper clip. One pair proceeded to 'drive' the paper clip round the map each time they traced the route. They made appropriate cornering noises as they turned left or right, and reversed with much vocal squealing of brakes when they went wrong! The teacher's first reaction was to tell them not to be silly. Second thoughts suggested that by translating understanding into physical reaction they had thought up a much more powerful way of giving meaning to the phrases 'turn left/turn right, take the second turning on the left/right' etc. than the teacher could have created. It was also powerful because they had thought of it for themselves.

In this way, through their sense of fun and play, the children are living the language for real. Yet again we can see why games have such a central role to play. But games are not the only way in which individual personalities surface in the language classroom. There is also the whole area of imaginative thinking.

1.5
The role of imagination

Children delight in imagination and fantasy. It is more than simply a matter of enjoyment, however. In the primary school, children are very busing making sense of the world about them. They are identifying pattern and also deviation from that pattern. They test out their versions of the world through fantasy and confirm how the world actually is by imagining how it might be different. In the language classroom this capacity for fantasy and imagination has a very constructive part to play.

Language teaching should be concerned with real life. But it would be a great pity if we were so concerned to promote reality in the classroom that we forgot that reality for children includes imagination and fantasy. The act of fantasising, of imagining, is very much an authentic part of being a child. So, for example, describing an imaginary monster with five legs, ten pink eyes and a very long tongue may not involve actual combinations of words that they would use about things in real life, but recombining familiar words and ideas to create a monster is a very normal part of a child's life. Similarly, claiming a dinosaur in a list of pets is hardly real in purist terms but perfectly normal for a nine year old with a sense of the absurd. Children's books reflect this kind of fantasising with titles such as *The Tiger Who Came To Tea* or *The Giant Jam Sandwich*.

If we accept the role of the imagination in children's lives we can see that it provides another very powerful stimulus for real language use. We need to find ways of building on this factor in the language classroom too. We want to stimulate the children's creative imagination so that they want to use the language to share their ideas. For example, they can draw and describe the monster that lives down the hole on the next page. What does it eat? What does it look like? How old is it? (A chance at last to use numbers above eleven!) They will no doubt want to tell their friends about the monster they have drawn. Children like talking.
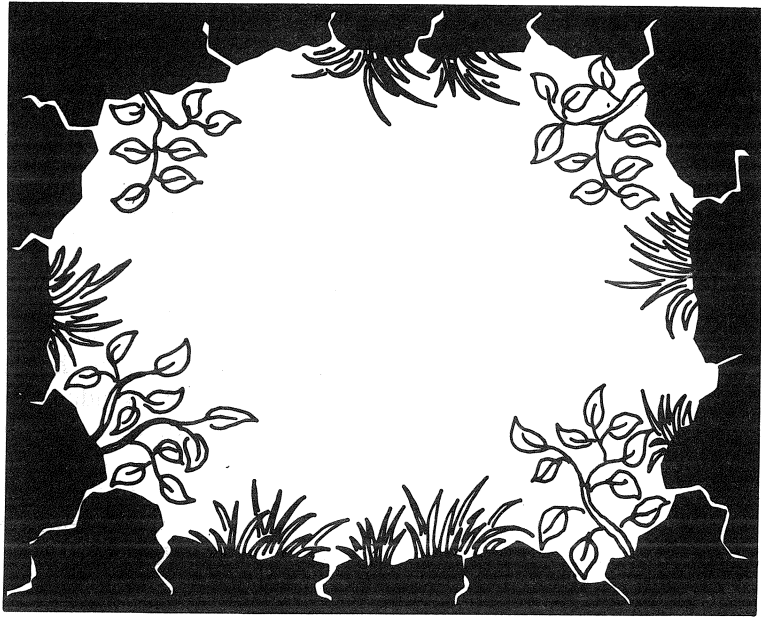
**1.6
The instinct for
interaction and
talk**

Of all the instincts and attributes that children bring to the classroom this is probably the most important for the language teacher. It is also the most obvious, so there is no need to labour the point. Let us just say that this particular capacity can surface unbidden and sometimes unwanted in all classrooms. Its persistence and strength is very much to our advantage in the primary language classroom. It is one of the most powerful motivators for using the language. We are fortunate as language teachers that we can build on it. Even so, you will sometimes hear teachers object – 'But I can't do pairwork with this class. They will keep talking to each other!' Far from being a good reason for not doing pairwork with them, this is a very good reason why we should. Children need to talk. Without talking they cannot become good at talking. They can learn *about* the language, but the only way to learn to *use* it *is* to use it. So our job is to make sure that the desire to talk is working *for* learning not *against* learning. *Practical Activities 1* gives detailed activities which do just this.

> This chapter has identified some of the skills and instincts a young child brings to learning a foreign language at school. By saying we wish to build on these we are already beginning to describe the language classroom we want to see and the kind of things we want to do. In other words, our goals and priorities are beginning to emerge. The next chapter looks at those goals and priorities in more detail and explores their practical implications.

Identifying Priorities & Implications – Halliwell (1992)
(Please answer **in full sentences** and **use your own words**)

1. Why and how do we check learner understanding? How should we handle mistakes and errors? Why?

2. How can we create language learning opportunities that use authentic language and real exchanges of information? What are some possible example activities?

3. Why is it important to teach lesson in the target language (TL)? How can we stay in the TL and avoid using the native language? Give examples.

2

Identifying priorities and their implications

One of the great moments in the foreign language classroom is when a child makes a joke. The child who insisted with a grin that he had 'one and half' (*sic*) brothers and when questioned about the half by the puzzled teacher, said, 'Very small' (showing baby size with his hands), had broken through a crucial barrier. He had made the language *his*, a tool for what he wanted to say. He was using half-known bits of the language to give shape to the thoughts going through his mind. We have heard a great deal about authenticity. *This* is the greatest authenticity of them all. This small and apparently trivial incident encapsulates what we are trying to achieve. We want our learners to want to and dare to use the language for their own purposes. We want them to use it accurately if possible, inaccurately if necessary, but above all we want them to *make it theirs*.

We can't sit around in our classrooms waiting for jokes to happen, but there are other ways in which teachers can help the children to make the language theirs. You can give priority to:

– basing your teaching approaches on the natural capacities and instincts children bring to the classroom;
– developing a positive response to languages and to language learning (attitude goals) as well as to what they learn (content goals);
– making sure that you set up various forms of *real language use* as part of the *process* of learning, and not just as the intended *product*.

Chapter 1 looked at the practical significance of the first of these priorities. This chapter will look in detail at attitude goals and at real language use. Your own priorities may well be different. There are few, if any, absolute rights and wrongs in the classroom. However, by identifying one coherent set of priorities in this way, the intention is to allow you to identify and clarify your own priorities and to provide you with some basis for comparison. If each of us is

clear about our priorities and their practical implications, we can avoid the situation where we actually teach in a way that undermines what it is we are trying to do.

2.1
Giving high priority to attitude goals

Most syllabuses or language programmes identify two sorts of goals. These can very roughly be described as the 'content goals' and the 'attitude goals'. The main difference between primary school and secondary school language work is the balance between these two kinds of goals. It is therefore worth looking more closely at them.

Content goals are concerned with the elements of language and ways in which they are used. The parts of syllabuses which describe content goals are usually arranged in one of the following ways.

- **Structures**: programmes are set out in terms of grammatical structures like *the present continuous* or *negatives*. Sometimes they just list the structures themselves, e.g. *I like swimming/dancing/reading* or *I don't/can't/won't*.
- **Topics and situations**: in these programmes the work is arranged according to topics or situations like *the family*, *at the supermarket*. Sometimes the items to be covered are grouped according to whether they demand speaking, listening, reading or writing.
- **Functions**: here the focus is on what the learner can use the language for, so the things to be covered are listed under headings like *expressing likes/ dislikes/preferences*, *asking and giving directions*, *expressing the future*.

Your own syllabus may reflect any one of these approaches. In fact, many syllabuses adopt a pragmatic combination of all three. However, whatever form your syllabus takes, whatever particular language-teaching ideology it reflects, these kinds of goals are concerned with the elements of the language and how the learners put them together to use them. That is to say, they are in essence *content* goals. There is, however, another very significant aspect to the syllabus, namely the *attitude* goals.

Good syllabuses are not just concerned with content. They are also concerned with attitude and response. Sometimes these goals are assumed. Sometimes they are written. If they are written into the syllabus you will find phrases like:

- pleasure and confidence in exploring language;
- willingness to 'have a go';
- the children should want to and dare to communicate.

In other words, in addition to having goals which are concerned with the actual language elements the children learn, we also have goals which relate to the kind of learning experiences we set up and the relationships and atmosphere of the language classroom.

The balance between the attitude goals and content goals shifts as a child moves through the education system. In the later stages of a child's education the content goals begin to dominate. Secondary teaching does not, or should not, lose sight of the attitude goals, but as the formal examination system approaches, priorities lie very much with the content, i.e. the language items to be mastered.

Primary language work, in contrast, can give emphasis to the attitude goals. It should not lose sight of the content goals but should at the same time give clear priority to promoting the attitudes and responses mentioned above, i.e. confidence, willingness to 'have a go', risk taking. At primary school we have more freedom to do this because most of us are not yet too tightly constrained by the content focus of the public examinations system. It can also be argued that we have a *responsibility* to give high priority to the attitude goals at primary level. After all, if we do not establish risk taking, confidence and general goodwill towards language learning at this early stage, our colleagues at secondary level will have a very difficult task ahead of them. In all subjects, of course, not just in foreign languages, the learners' response to the work is central to their later progress. In languages, however, this aspect is particularly crucial. This is because of the special nature of language.

2.2 The special nature of language

A language isn't just a 'subject' in the sense of a package of knowledge. It is not just a set of information and insights. It is a fundamental part of being human. In fact some people see it as *the* fundamental part of being human. It is, of course, perfectly possible to treat a language as if it were a free-standing package of information, i.e. to observe it, to analyse it and to fit together examples of how others use it. It is even possible to use this analysis and working out as the way to learn to use the language ourselves. Many of us who are now teachers first learnt a foreign language that way. For some it leads to success. But it is a very abstract process and experience has shown that it does not appeal to everyone. To learn to use a language at all well for ourselves rather than for textbook purposes, most of us have to become involved in it as an experience. We have to make it a human event not just a set of information. We do this by using it for real communication, for genuinely giving and receiving real messages.

As we have already seen, giving and receiving real messages in the early stages of learning a language, whether it is our mother tongue or a second language, involves using limited resources creatively. So we can see why attitudes such as confidence and risk taking have a central role in language learning. The important point to remember is that the attitude goals are not just there in order to motivate the children to accept the content. They are far more crucial than that. We need them in our language teaching because they are a key part of the *process* by which language develops.

This all sounds very important but the big question is, of course, how it affects what we actually do in the classroom. Is it difficult to make attitude goals a high priority? If we do, how does it show? The answer to the first question is 'No'. If you know that that is what you want to do, it is not difficult. The answer to the second question is that giving a high priority to attitude goals will show in the kind of interaction set up between teachers and learners and between learners themselves. Two examples will demonstrate this:

– the checking of understanding;
– the correction of mistakes.

2.3
The significance of the way we check understanding

Unless we are true bilinguals, most of us operate in a foreign language by taking the risk of operating on partial information. We may well not understand completely what has been said to us, but we are usually willing to guess the bits we don't understand or to operate as if we do understand everything. In classrooms however, we often hear teachers checking the meaning of almost every word of English as they go along. They perhaps say one sentence in English and then translate it back into the mother tongue. Or perhaps they get the children to translate it. They keep asking 'Do you understand?'

This happens from the best of motives. Ironically, the teacher wants to make sure that the children are secure and confident! What ultimately happens is the reverse. By constant checking in this way the teachers are implying that they expect the children to understand every little bit they hear. From that it follows that the children begin to think that they will not be able to understand at all unless they *do* understand every little bit. They will also come to believe that they have not understood unless they can give an exact mother tongue equivalent. In fact, they are unlikely to be able to understand everything. Nor do they need to. Nor will they always be able to give a mother tongue equivalent for something they have understood. Even in our mother tongue we do not understand every little bit. We deal with whole messages. As you are reading this you are not stopping over every word. If you did slow right down like that, the meaning would begin to disintegrate. As primary teachers you will see this happening when children at an early stage of reading are reading aloud. As they concentrate on each single word in turn, the meaning disappears both for them and for the listener. Constant explicit checking in the foreign language has the same effect.

Of course, we still need to check their understanding somehow, but we do not have to draw their attention to the fact that we are doing so. We can check by watching what they do, watching their faces. Teachers do this all the time anyway. If we can see that they do not understand, perhaps by the look on their faces, perhaps by the way they are sitting, or more obviously by the fact that they do not do what we are expecting, then we can rephrase the words or show them again what we mean before the temporary lack of understanding becomes critical.

2.4
The significance of the way we treat mistakes

Giving priority to attitude goals in principle also affects our practice in another way, namely the way we treat mistakes. Real conversation does not wait for us to work out everything exactly. Even if we get our first sentence out reasonably well, there is no guarantee that the other speaker will 'play by the rules' and answer as we expect or in words and phrases we know. So real communication demands risk taking. Trying out knowledge when it is still only half formed, as in the joke at the beginning of this chapter, is part of the process of shaping it up fully. Without risks and mistakes we could not learn anything.

Most children arrive at school with their confidence still intact. They do not expect to be able to do everything immediately, but they assume they can do anything eventually. In other words, for children mistakes and failures are frustrating rather than humiliating. They are a normal part of learning to do something. After all, nearly everything they do takes many attempts and takes a long time and even then is frequently still not quite right. Unfortunately, one

of the things children soon begin to pick up at school is the idea that mistakes are in some way 'bad'. They begin to be embarrassed and upset when they have difficulty. They sometimes hide this embarrassment by laughing when others get something wrong. Then they start to protect themselves from disappointment and the scorn of others in turn by avoiding situations where they themselves might get things wrong. This shows in various ways. For example, a child does not attempt answers or gives up very easily. Or sometimes we have children in our classes who want to check every single stage of their work with the teacher. This is, of course, an oversimplified description of a complex process, but it is one which teachers of young children often see and one which we must do our best to counteract.

There is a very practical implication for language teachers here. It means that the way we correct mistakes is going to be very important. Teachers can inadvertently contribute to the undermining and inhibiting process. For example, in language classes you will often see teachers correcting every single mistake of pronunciation and grammar. By demanding correction or repetition of a word that has just been said, they break into the child's attempt to construct a whole meaning. (To remind yourself how disruptive this is, get a friend to correct your pronunciation of every third word as you try to tell them what you have been doing during the day.) Something similar often happens with written work too. If it always comes back completely covered in corrections of the smallest detail, it can destroy the urge to commit anything to paper at all and certainly to risk something of your own.

Again this constant, overcareful, overdetailed correction happens with the best of intentions. Teachers want children to get things right. But if we have to get everything perfect we will never try anything. Luckily, communication does not demand one hundred per cent accuracy. For example, we can understand someone else speaking our language even if they have a fairly strong accent. Sometimes even in our own language we don't get our words or structures quite right. If we listen carefully to native speakers, we find that they say some very odd and very ungrammatical things. But that doesn't seem to stop us understanding and communicating.

This is not to deny the value of correction. It is, however, arguing that constant correction is undermining. There will, of course, be times in lessons when the teacher is concentrating on accuracy. However, there will also be other times in lessons when you will be trying to encourage fluency. Correction is vital in the first and potentially destructive in the second. If one of our priorities is to get children to have confidence, we have to know this and to distinguish these occasions accordingly. This will also help us to deal with a practical problem. If we are expected to correct everything the children say, then pairwork with forty children in the room becomes laughingly impossible. If, on the other hand, we know that there are certain activities in which we actually wish to allow for mistakes, then suddenly pairwork becomes much more manageable. We will still want to move round the class to check that most of the children are getting it reasonably right. We will also want to help individual children, or to offer occasional correction. Correction is not forbidden! However, we do not have to run round the room frantically trying to hear everything everybody says.

So we can see in these two examples that giving high priority to attitude

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goals is not just an abstract matter of principle. It has very clear practical implications for the classroom. We will now look at some of the practical implications of the other main focus of this chapter. How does it show if we give priority to real language use?

The truest form of real language use is to use the language being learnt as a tool for other tasks and other learning. This is what happens in bilingual education where children are educated entirely in a language other than their mother tongue. Another, but more modest form of real language use, is provided by teaching other subject topics and lessons in the target language. Chapter 6 suggests in detail how this can be done. Meanwhile, however, it is also possible to create real language use in more typical language lessons, using a typical textbook.

– You can look for ways of making language exercises into real exchanges.
– You can teach language lessons through the medium of the target language itself.

2.5 Making language exercises into real exchanges

Wanting to communicate means having a good reason for doing so. We are not very interested in telling someone something they already know. Similarly, we do not particularly want to be told something we can already see for ourselves. There is only a limited point in saying 'She is wearing a green dress,' if both the child and the teacher can see the same picture. In this situation the only reason for the child to make the statement is to check it or to please the teacher. Pleasing the teacher has its limitations as a motivating factor! We have a much stronger reason for communicating if we are offering or seeking information that is not already shared.

There are plenty of classroom activities which provide an extremely useful combination of real communication and quite deliberate rehearsal of a clearly identified set of fairly restricted material. They can involve any of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, but their biggest contribution at primary level is probably in the field of spoken interaction between children. Because the range of language items can be limited without destroying the element of real communication, the teacher can leave the children talking to each other without fear that the need to communicate will lead them to lapse totally into the mother tongue. That is why so-called 'information gap' activities continue to be so popular in the language classroom. Look at the following example. It is a 'describe and arrange' activity.

The pair of children sit opposite each other and erect a visual barrier so that neither can see what the other is doing. The barrier can be a textbook or two flat folders propped against each other and held with a paper clip. Each child has the same base picture sheet and a set of small pictures of items relating to it. In this case, it is an outline of a room and various furniture items to arrange in it.
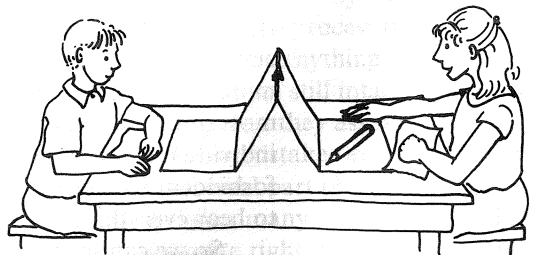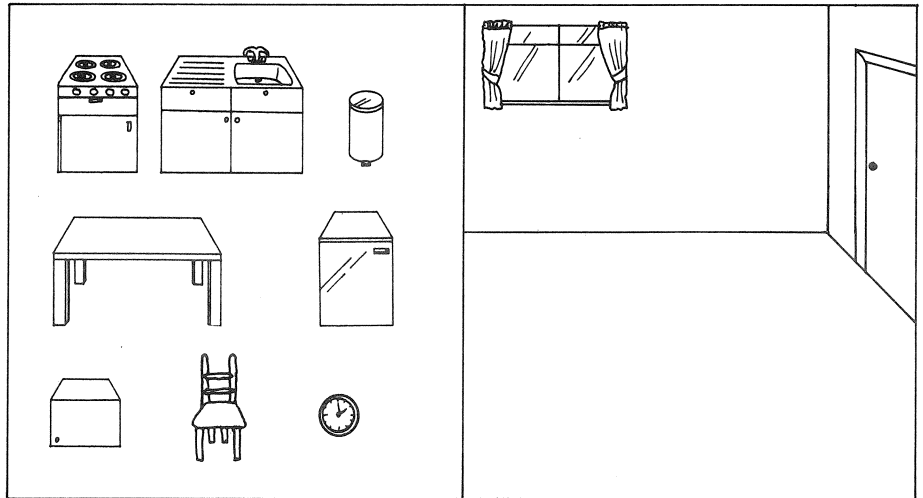
Child A starts to arrange the furniture in the room. By cooperative question/ answer exchanges the pair have to get child B's furniture arranged identically but they may not look at each other's pictures. So B can ask 'Where is the chair?' or, better, 'Is the chair next to the door?' which introduces an element of guessing. You will find that this kind of 'describe and arrange' activity is one where children take imaginative liberties. They arrange fridges on roofs and bicycles in the bathroom in order to confuse matters by being unpredictable.

There is real communication here in the sense that one of the participants has information that is needed by the other. At the same time, however, the linguistic demands are realistically contained. The elements may be recombined by the children to suit their own purposes, but the language being used is limited to a few objects and a set of prepositions which will have been practised thoroughly beforehand. There is thus some room for unpredictability and choice within the security of a limiting framework.

2.6 Teaching language lessons in the target language

The advantage of this second form of real language use in the classroom is that it contributes to the learning process by:

- encouraging the children to trust their instinct to predict meaning in spite of limited linguistic understanding;
- providing an element of indirect learning in that the children are not concentrating on learning what they are listening to but the brain is processing it nonetheless;
- confirming that language is something you actually use 'for real' and not just something you do exercises and games in;
- increasing the amount of exposure the children get to the language, while still remaining within the fairly predictable and narrowly focused limits of classroom talk.

It is because classroom talk is relatively limited in this way that it is possible to teach a whole lesson almost entirely in the target language on the basis of a surprisingly small number of phrases and structures. Even so, most of us worry initially that our own grasp of the foreign language is not good enough to do

this. We also worry that the children will not understand and will behave badly. There are two things worth saying here. First of all, you do not have to find the foreign language equivalent for 'What on earth do you think you are doing punching Thomas like that?' It works just as effectively to say in the target language 'Don't do that!' or even just 'No!' Secondly, children, as we have already seen, respond very well to context and facial expression. This was shown very clearly by the two small English children whose teacher finally lost patience with their misbehaviour and said very angrily in Spanish that if they misbehaved again she'd murder them. At this point, one child turned to the other and said, 'I don't know what she said, but if we do it again she'll kill us!'

Even on less dramatic occasions, you can actually get a very long way with 'Yes', 'No', 'Like this', 'Do this' and 'Don't do that!' With a little more than that you can use simple target language to set up really quite complicated activities. Here is an example. On page 87 there is a 'paired reading' activity. Each pair or group of children has two sets of cards. One set has words or phrases. The other set has pictures or diagrams. The idea is that the children have to read the phrases and match them up with the pictures. If the teacher was using the mother tongue, the explanation would sound something like this.

> 'Spread the word cards out face down on the table and put the picture cards in a pile face down. The first player takes a picture card from the top of the pile and chooses a word card from the cards spread out face down on the table. If they match, the player keeps the pair. If they don't match, the picture card is replaced at the bottom of the pile and the word card is put face down again where it came from. The winner is the person who collects the most pairs.'

However, trying out this activity on in-service courses for teachers has shown that after such a mother-tongue explanation, there are often still a considerable number of people who are not sure what to do. So there are two things to note.

– The words on their own are not enough to carry the meaning. Even when we understand each word the total sense seems to slip past.
– Teaching in the target language must very decidedly *not* take the form of simply giving the target language equivalent of the mother-tongue explanation above. Not only does that ask a great deal of the teacher's own language. It would also only compound the incomprehension.

The thing to remember yet again is that we have systems other than words for carrying meaning. This does not mean that the teacher has to become a non-stop and elaborate mime artist! It simply means that we deliberately increase the ways in which we normally back up what we say by showing what we mean. This is helpful in any classroom subject. We rarely rely on words alone to carry the message. So teachers, even when they are teaching in the mother tongue, *do* often say 'Do it like this' and show what is to happen rather than describing it. Or, as they tell children 'You need a sharp pencil, a ruler and a sheet of graph paper', they pick up each item in turn to emphasise and confirm the message. Teaching language lessons in the target language is very much a matter of enhancing this technique. So our 'paired reading' game can be introduced in the target language as follows by a teacher using only a limited range of vocabulary and structure.

TEACHER'S WORDS	TEACHER'S ACTIONS
(Interspersed throughout with 'Right', 'Now', 'Watch carefully, it's important'.)	*(All actions should be slightly larger than life.)*
1 Watch.	*Hold up the envelope containing the cards.*
2 Here are some cards.	*Take out the cards.*
3 Here are some picture cards . . .	*Hold up the pile of picture cards so that the children can see that there are pictures on them.*
4 and here are some sentence cards.	*Show the sentence cards in the same way.*
5 Watch carefully.	*(This tells them that it is the big moment of the demonstration!)*
6 Put the pictures like this . . .	*Show the picture cards again and put them in a pile face down. (It is worth repeating the action to stress that they are face down.)*
7 and the sentences like this.	*Deal out the sentence cards into four rows of three, face down.*
8 One . . . two . . . three . . . four . . . etc.	*(Counting as you do it usefully fills in the silence while you complete the action.)*
9 I take a card . . . Ah! It's a girl. She is wearing blue trousers and a green sweater.	*Take the top card from the picture pile, show the group and comment on it.*
10 Now I take a sentence card.	*Choose (with a touch of drama) a card from the spread of sentence cards.*
11 She is wearing red trousers.	*Hold up the sentence card (word side to the class first) then read it.*
12 Is that right? Is she wearing red trousers?	*Hold the two cards up side by side, repeating the phrase and looking from one card to the other.*

13 Trousers? . . . Yes. Red? . . .
No. It's not right.

14 So I put the picture like this . . .   *Place the picture card under the rest*
under the others . . .   *of the pile making sure that 'under'*
                                                is clear.

15 and I put the sentence like this   *Replace the sentence card in its*
. . . in the same place . . .   *original position.*

and so on.

In this way, through 'demonstrating by doing' and by using sources of
understanding *other than language* the teacher can explain even apparently
complicated activities in very simple language. This process of teaching in
English allows us to offer the children language in use not just language for
exercises.

This chapter has identified three priorities:

– teaching which is based on the skills and
   instincts children bring with them to the
   classroom;
– the development of attitudes and responses
   which contribute to the process of developing
   competence in another language;
– ways of working with the language for real.

If we take these priorities seriously then we are
obviously no longer talking about classrooms
where the children spend all their time sitting
still in rows or talking only to the teacher. We
are also talking about teaching which will
sometimes involve teachers in adapting the
textbook or in devising activities of their own.
In both respects we need to be realistic. This is
the focus of the next chapter.

Using games in teaching English to YL – Khan (1984)
(Please answer **in full sentences** and **use your own words**)

1. Why use games and how do they help children learner and internalize language?

2. Which games should we use? Why? Examples.

3. What are some common criticisms of using games in the classroom? Why should we ignore these critics?

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11 Using games in teaching English to young learners

Julia Khan takes up the theme that Shelagh Rixon has already addressed from a practical perspective. She draws on research in psychology and game theory and leads us towards the more formal analysis of principle found in Section Two of this book, while at the same time continuing to provide practical examples and illustrations.

CHILDREN PLAY and children want to play. Children learn through playing. In playing together, children interact and in interacting they develop language skills. Games provide contexts for play, reasons for playing and routines for playing.

This article explores the basis of these assertions in order to argue the importance of giving games a place amongst activities used in teaching English to young learners. It then considers how games might be categorised and how teachers might use and maybe develop them with confidence as part of their methodology. The different roles of language practice games and communicative language teaching games are considered in the context of current thinking on syllabus and methodology for ELT. Finally, some common misgivings about using games in the classroom are discussed and defused.

Why use games?

Characteristics of games

What is a game? Everyone feels intuitively that they know but definition is elusive. Perhaps we can say that, 'A game is played when one or more players compete or co-operate for pay-offs according to a set of rules' (Jones 1986). Alternatively, 'Gaming is competitive . . . rule-governed . . . goal-defined . . . Gaming has closure . . . gaming is engaging' (Rodgers 1981). The games of young children have their own special qualities: 'A true game is one that frees the spirit. It allows of no cares but those fictitious ones engendered by the game itself . . . Play is unrestricted, games have rules. Play may merely be the enactment of a dream but in each game there is a contest . . .' (Opie, I. and J. 1969).

The key characteristics for our purposes are these: games are activities

governed by *rules*, which set up clearly defined *goals*. The achievement of these goals signals the end of the game. Games involve a *contest* either between players or between the players and the goal, and games should lead to having *fun*. Games are for playing, and this element of *play* is crucial.

Ground rules must be set for how games are played. The authority behind the rules and the contest lies in the game itself rather than with the player or teacher and the authority must be acknowledged if the game is to be played fairly. Children are usually very concerned with fairness and with preventing others from breaking the rules.

Children's games

Games are activities that children naturally and universally engage in. There is a certain timelessness in the pleasure children find in games and in how the nature of the games they play changes as they develop, ranging through fantasy, ritual, competition and luck.

Generations of children rediscover the same games and delight in playing them. Games may be seen as a route by which children come to terms with their social environment, presenting as they do a social situation which is firmly governed by rules but whose outcome is unknown. Piaget (1967) saw children's games as, 'the most admirable social institutions. The game of marbles for instance . . . contains an extremely complex system of rules . . . a code of laws, a jurisprudence of its own . . . If we wish to gain any understanding of child morality it is obviously with the analysis of such facts as these that we must begin. All morality consists in a system of rules . . .' It is of course not our present concern to explore morality but to remember that children play games, and to take account of these natural tendencies when developing teaching strategies for young learners.

Children want to play

It is clear then that games – since children naturally want to play them – can be motivating. In pedagogical discussion of motivation for foreign and second language learning in general, emphasis is often put on the sometimes conflicting forces of 'instrumental' motivation and 'integrative' motivation (McDonough 1981). A learner of a foreign language who is instrumentally motivated is concerned to develop competence in the language for reasons such as passing an examination, improving job prospects, gaining prestige or needing to study in the medium of the target language. A learner who is integratively motivated is committed in some way to establishing closer links with the language community within which the language is used. Sometimes a learner's strong desire to pass an exam or to get a new job will create enough motivation to lead to success in language learning even if the teaching leaves much to be desired. The same may also be true of integrative motivation for the mature learner. But for the young learner, motivation deriving from factors outside the classroom, such as parental and social attitudes, is likely to be weaker than that created by events in the classroom

itself. Children need to be involved and even excited in order to learn effectively.

Some of the recent major advances in educational psychology focus on the need that children have to be actively involved in whatever they do in order to succeed in learning. Bruner (1983) speaks of the need for teachers to engage in a 'battle against passivity'. Donaldson (1978) argues strongly that all children have the right and the capacity to succeed and that schools must offer all children opportunities to succeed if they are to educate them effectively. She quotes Bruner – 'We get interested in what we are good at' – as a central truth. Burstall (1974) reported that the major finding of a project in Britain on the teaching of French to young learners was that 'Nothing succeeds like success.'

The discriminating use of games in the young learners' classroom can help in creating, on a small scale, opportunities for involvement and excitement, for achievement and success. And children who are eager to take part in playing a well chosen game will want to master the language necessary for doing so.

Developing language through interaction

Games usually lead to social as well as intellectual involvement since players need to communicate in order to compete or co-operate, to organise or argue.

Wells (1981), in working on first language acquisition, found clear evidence that a child who has a lot of opportunities for negotiating meaning – for making sure that he/she has properly understood what is being said – develops language skills more rapidly than a child who does not. Games can create these opportunities in the foreign or second language classroom by setting out situations where children urgently need and want to communicate in order to have a turn at playing, to point out the rules, to challenge another player and so on.

Games and the communicative approach to English Language Teaching (ELT)

Many of the points made about games hitherto echo the fundamental principles of communicative approaches to language teaching. A brief exploration of how the two correspond will clarify some of the reasons for using games.

It is a principle of communicative approaches to ELT that task-based activities enhance learning. In language learning, task-based activities are those which stimulate effective use of language but involve no conscious analysis of language. An exercise which instructs learners to change the tense of verbs is not task-based because it is language-focused. Getting learners to listen carefully to instructions in order to draw a picture, make a model or play a game are examples of a task-based approach. The purpose perceived by the learners is non-linguistic. The understanding and use of

language is necessary but the analysis of language is not. Some of the most powerful ideas developed recently on syllabus and methodology for language teaching derive from this central notion of the importance of task-based work (Breen 1987, Nunan 1989, Prabhu 1987). It is argued that if tasks are identified as the main elements of the syllabus, then syllabus and methodology will control each other. Getting learners involved in tasks will thus be a catalyst for language learning.

It is a *sine qua non* of a game that it has clearly defined goals – that these are motivating and provide the 'purpose' of the game. To play a game is to enjoy competing alone or in groups against other players, against time or against the challenge of the game, and not to think consciously about the language involved in doing so. In other words, games may be seen as tasks. If they successfully engage the learners' attention as a proper children's game should, then learning will be supported. Young (1983) describes the use of specially devised communication games and out-of-classroom games to supplement a traditional syllabus in primary schools in Hong Kong; using games in this way as a supplementary activity in order to give children the opportunity to use language purposefully and playfully may be a comfortable and sensible route to follow.

The interactive principle is also central to communicative approaches to ELT. Work on second language development echoes findings about the way in which negotiation and interaction help first language development (Ellis 1985). Opportunities for using a language in order to interact effectively – even if inaccurately – with someone else, help learning to take place. It was assumed for a long time that such opportunities would occur naturally only outside the classroom and, for the foreign language learner, only during visits overseas. But the creation of social contexts inside the classroom where interaction needs to take place in the target language is an important part of any communicative methodology. If a learner can be put into a situation where sheer need to use the language makes him/her strive to do so as effectively as possible, that experience contributes to language learning. Using the language is the best way of learning to use it. Involving children in games which they are very eager to play may be a good way of creating a powerful need to use the language.

A third important principle of communicative methodology is that the teaching situation must be learner-centred. Learners' needs both as future language users and active language learners should be the chief criterion for assessing how appropriate syllabus and methods are. We can relate this principle to what we have already said about motivation, involvement and the need for success. Krashen (1982) applied several of these principles to the field of second language teaching and one of the concepts he developed was that of the 'affective filter'. He sees the affective filter as being the emotional disposition of an individual which acts upon learning processes. A high affective filter causes the learner to be a relatively inefficient learner and is likely to result from anxieties, disturbances or inhibitions. A low affective filter which may result from feelings of relaxation, well-being or success maximises learning efficiency. If it is a condition of games that they

contain an element of fun and that they absorb the interest of the learner, it seems clear that using them in the classroom will produce a low affective filter in participants. Accordingly, the capacity of learners to learn should be acknowledged and brought out. Teachers of young learners may find acknowledging the natural tendencies and desire of children to play and incorporating games into classroom activities in a well-ordered and purposeful way to be an effective strategy.

The arguments for using games run parallel with and indeed are simply a part of the broader arguments and theoretical justifications of adopting a communicative approach to ELT.

Which games?

Children may wish to play games for fun. Teachers, however, need more convincing reasons! We have explored the general pedagogical justification for using games. We now come to the classroom specifics. Teachers need to consider which games to use, when to use them, how to link them up with the syllabus, textbook or programme and how, more specifically, different games will benefit children in different ways.

This section builds up a system for identifying the procedures and characteristics of different games, which should indicate whether a game is useful and what demands it makes.

Most textbooks published for young learners in recent years incorporate some games. A useful selection of resource books and teachers' books is also available, providing ideas for a range of games for young learners (a brief list is provided at the end of this chapter). There are also a number of games referred to in other chapters of this book. Our purpose here is not to duplicate any of those but to create an analytical framework suggesting ways of selecting games to suit particular contexts and learners. Games referred to are explained in the appendix to this paper.

The pedagogical focus of games

Games to be used for ELT must in some way be language dependent. The specific language focus of a game could be items of vocabulary or particular structures or functions. The language skill focus could be any one of the major skills of listening, speaking, reading or writing, with a narrower focus on, for example, spelling or pronunciation. 'Simon says', for example, uses a range of language including the function of giving instructions, imperatives and vocabulary for parts of the body. The leader of the game has to produce all these items orally and the players have to listen and respond with understanding. The teacher could therefore justify the game as consolidation of the language items or as listening practice.

Another example is 'Spelling bee' which focuses on whatever vocabulary items the teacher selects. The skills involved are very restricted – listening

and speaking – with all the emphasis on accuracy of spelling. The teacher could justify the game as vocabulary development, or listening or spelling practice.

At the pedagogical level then, the focus of the game should match what the teacher wants to teach. This formula may not be as simple as it sounds, however. Focusing on specific language items may be one dimension of language learning, but learners also benefit from being put into situations where they are very eager to communicate but have to manage with what language they have. In the previous section we noted that task-based activities are not normally language-focused. We shall consider these points again below in discussing features of language practice games and communication games.

Young learners often find it is worth learning language in order to play a good game! The involvement and enthusiasm generated by the game itself may give an important boost to children's motivation. And playing the game is for the children an authentic opportunity for language use.

Patterns of organisation

The way in which games are organised varies a great deal. Some games are played in pairs, some in groups, some in teams, some with the whole class playing against the teacher or one leader. This factor may help the teacher decide whether a game is suitable. Is it going to lead to 'dangerous' situations where learners are outside the immediate control of the teacher? Is it going to involve moving a lot of furniture? Are frequent changes of place going to disrupt the class? Is it going to lead to noisy, excited competition between teams?

The pattern of organisation has clear implications for the sort of language activity that a game will engender and is itself controlled by the rules and closure or outcome of the game. A game played in pairs may involve more children in oral interaction for longer than a teacher-led game. 'Find the difference', for example, played by negotiating pairs, involves extensive oral interchange. 'Vocabulary snap', on the other hand, is played in groups and involves reading practice of a limited number of words, repeated oral production of 'Snap' and perhaps some oral negotiation relating to dealing cards, taking turns and who said 'Snap' first! Each game has its own characteristic range of language activity.

Materials and equipment

Teachers may also be strongly influenced in their choice of game by the nature of the materials needed. Computer games, board games, card games, box games, paper and pencil games, blackboard games, question and answer games . . . the level of materials and equipment involved varies considerably. Availability and expense will be major factors in selection as will the effort of organising children's groups, and conservation and storage of materials.

'Ludic' principles

We have already discussed the nature of games. Here we can usefully identify characteristic differences between games in terms of game-related or 'ludic' principles, providing the teacher with another way of defining what is being undertaken and whether it is appropriate. It will also be a way of approaching the invention of games to suit particular purposes, a way perhaps of turning other activities into games.

The ludic principles or playing spirit of a game may derive from a number of elements which give a game its particular tone. For example, different games involve different combinations of the conflicting forces of chance and skill. On the whole young learners like games which have an element of luck because it can add to the excitement and reduces the socially divisive nature of 'clever' games. For teachers with a wide range of ability in the class, an element of luck is very important in a game. Games entirely dependent on skill have the tiresome habit of producing the same few winners repeatedly and thereby rapidly reducing the level of involvement of the majority of the players. Games with a powerful element of chance include guessing games, games with a dice or randomly dealt cards.

Other ludic principles are those of competition and co-operation. One game may be driven by competition between players; another game may require co-operation in order for play to proceed. Some games of course involve both. Whilst every game has within it an element of competition, it may be that players need to co-operate with each other in order to compete against the challenge that the game sets up. 'Describe and draw', for example, involves players in co-operative negotiation in order to beat the challenge of transferring information orally from one given graphic to another. If either one of the pair did not co-operate, the game could not proceed. 'Find the difference' similarly requires co-operation.

Co-operation in a game therefore encourages verbal negotiation. Many games are purely competitive of course and winning may be the perceived objective of an individual, a group or a team. With young learners it is important for winning to come everyone's way at some point in order to maintain involvement and enthusiasm. Using teams and groups also helps to reduce the individual pressures of competition.

Uncertainty, caused by demands made on memory, is another ludic principle, important in some types of game. 'Grandmother went to market', for example, is a game because players' memories will fail at some stage; the excitement comes from the challenge of uncertainty!

Bearing in mind these principles – chance and skill, competition and co-operation, uncertainty – that are at the heart of many games may help a teacher to turn a textbook-led language exercise into a game. Introducing an element of competition into a language activity is something teachers often do in order to stimulate effort ('Who can finish first?') Sole use of that ludic principle can, however, be discouraging.

Subtler approaches may be more effective. Straightforward question and answer activities between teacher and pupils ('Where is the pen? It's next to

the rubber/on the book/behind the cup') can be livened up for example by introducing the memory principle ('Look at the things on the table. Now turn round ... Where is the pen? Where is the cup? ...). Possible adaptations are many.

Finally and most importantly perhaps in identifying the characteristic features of games we must consider the ways in which the procedures of games, by setting up particular patterns of activity, offer different kinds of opportunity for language development.

Language practice games

We can define language practice games as those which involve repeated use of particular language items, where the language form is given and controlled and where accuracy of reproduction or spelling is required in order for the player to succeed. Games of this sort are in many ways like language drills; they offer opportunities for repetition of language items that are intended to be learned because it is assumed that engaging in such repetition will lead to learning of the language. Rixon (1981) refers to such games as code-control games.

Using games may certainly be an effective way of making repetition of language natural and purposeful for young learners. Many games involve routines and repetitive formulae, which may be part of their charm for young children who often relish the familiarity of favourite activities. The formulae involved in 'I spy with my little eye' or in 'Happy families' are the routine of the game itself and very much a means to the end of playing the game. Such games might be considered as the palatable side of behaviourist ideas of how language is learned by repeated imitative use and reinforcement. Language practice games might thus be seen as fulfilling a useful role amongst the 'pre-communicative' activities of a broad communicative approach to language teaching (Littlewood 1981).

Second and foreign language development probably owes no more than first language development to behaviourist patterns of learning by stimulus, response and reinforcement. Equally however it is clear that much authentic first language use amongst young children involves repetitive language routines in play. Activities in the classroom which draw upon this natural predilection are unlikely to be rejected if they are used with restraint. They will never on their own be capable of creating in learners a capacity for communicative use of language but they may be a very valuable technique for familiarising children with new language and giving them the confidence to produce that language. Such games may, arguably, still be seen as 'tasks'.

It is worth remembering that a lot of negotiating often goes on in these games as part of managing the game. While the formal focus of the game may appear to be tightly controlled and accuracy- and practice-orientated, incidental discussion goes on about whose turn it is, whether the rules have been broken, or about someone who isn't paying attention and doing what they should be. This is a valuable part of the activity in the English language classroom where the medium is also the message.

Communicative language teaching games

Within a communicative language teaching game the emphasis is on the message being transmitted by the medium of the language rather than on the language itself.

According to Palmer and Rodgers (1983), there are six features which can be seen to greater or lesser extent in communicative language teaching games: the players have to interact; they have to deal with some unpredicted information; they have a clear purpose; the context of the activity is clear; players have to be actively involved; they are given a particular role to play.

More simply, communicative language teaching games can be seen as pair or group games where the need to communicate is powerful and urgent but no fixed language formulae are available or adequate for doing so. The game is the task which sets off the search for the necessary language. The theory of language development underlying the use of such games for foreign language teaching is that language development ensues when learners are put into an interactive situation with which they can just about cope by drawing on language resources and communication strategies. The situation is the game.

'Find the difference', for example, is a communicative language teaching game insofar as the routine, rules and objective of the game make it necessary for information to be transmitted from one player to the other. Hadfield's imaginative collection (1984) offers a range of games within which players, often using cue-cards, seek their partners, plan days out, try to work out routes, transmit information to each other about bus times, shopping lists, family members, items in pictures of rooms and so on. Such games can provide excellent models on which the teacher can base other games in his/her own particular context.

In brief, then, in deciding which games to use a teacher has to bear in mind a number of points. Does the game focus on appropriate language items and skills? Can it be organised within his/her classroom? Are materials available or 'makeable'? Are the learners going to find the degree of competitiveness or co-operation stimulating? Is the balance between skill and luck right for the class? Are the children at a stage where they will benefit from familiarisation through repetitive practice? Do they need the stimulation of situations where they have to struggle a little but which are fun because of the challenge, and can they cope with them?

The questions are many but may be quickly dealt with by the teacher who has begun to use games as a teaching technique and resource. The appendix at the end of this paper presents all the games referred to and indicates how their key features may be identified in terms of the analytic framework laid out in this section.

Meeting the critics

There are numerous misapprehensions about the use of games in the language teaching classroom. An effective way of synthesising what has been said so far and of focusing on some of the uses of games for teaching English to young learners is to identify and discuss some of these misapprehensions.

'Games are not serious and cannot therefore be treated seriously as part of a methodology for teaching English.'

It is true that many games are seen by the players as fun rather than work. A serious objective can be approached by many routes, however, not only those which preclude fun. A teacher perceives classroom objectives differently from children. Statements of syllabus (the teacher's perception) are not intended as a means of explaining to children the purpose of their activities.

'Games can only ever be decorative extras – time-fillers perhaps.'

This attitude builds upon the previous one, implying that worthwhile learning takes place only when teaching activities are declared to be such to the learners. Krashen and Terrell (1982) would claim the opposite: '. . . experienced instructors who work with children know that they become more involved more quickly within an activity if it is presented in a game format.' Our earlier discussion of the nature of tasks identified the fundamental principle of communicative approaches to language teaching that using language to succeed in a task is one of the most profitable ways of developing competence. A game is, for young learners, a task.

'Games belong outside the classroom.'

It is sometimes argued that classroom games lack authenticity – children only really believe in the games they organise for themselves in the playground, the street, the home. To set up such a divide between children's lives outside school and in the classroom seems to ignore the intense importance to children of their school relationships and involvements. Breen (1985) argues that learning activities are fully authentic for eager learners (more so in the classroom than imported, simulated situations can be). The classroom is a social context with as much reality for those participating in it as any context outside the classroom. For young learners who enter into friendships, enmities, arguments, sulks, resentments, fears and excitements with such very real passion and involvement in the classroom, it is very unconvincing to argue that appropriately managed games cannot engender as much involvement inside the classroom as outside.

'If children get involved and excited in playing games, they will use their first language and gain no benefit in English.'

It may indeed happen where children are playing games in groups or pairs that breakdown in communication or eagerness to finish a game tempts

them to switch languages. Persuasion is always worth trying. Children are quite able to understand that if their lesson is intended to help them learn English, they should use English. It is also worth remembering the power of the rules of a game; if the rule is to conduct as much of the game as possible in English, that has some authority.

We should also bear in mind, however, that switching between languages is a recognised communication strategy resorted to by many efficient language learners when faced with communication breakdown. For young learners striving to become efficient learners, the strategy will be a natural resort. Occasional use of it is an indication of normal learning processes in operation. They can be encouraged to switch back to English once the immediate problem has been solved. The attentive teacher will be able to observe and remedy the cause of breakdown.

'Games are noisy and therefore disruptive.'

Games may focus on oral or written language, use a wide range of patterns of organisation and procedures, focus on a vast selection of activities. Certain activities will be potentially noisier than others; certain procedures will be more difficult to organise with a large or boisterous class than others. But the most powerful threat to good order in the classroom comes from lack of learner interest in what is going on. High levels of motivation are conducive to good order. Purposeful and involving games may be a strong support to motivation. The promise of play becomes an effective way of maintaining order.

Conclusion

We have discussed why games might be used in teaching English to young learners and tried to indicate clearly the many dimensions that need to be taken into account in selecting and organising games if they are to become an important part of a teacher's repertoire. Once teachers have discovered the enthusiasm they can engender in children, they are not likely to be deterred by the classic misapprehensions outlined above. It remains a powerful truth that play is in the essential nature of the child. The teacher who has the confidence to recognise that and to direct and exploit it for language learning purposes will soon reap the benefits in the classroom.

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Section 3

*Resources,
Sample Lessons
&
Materials*

Let's Talk about People! Using comparatives to ask and answer Qs

Name: 강재승	**Age/Level Students**
	Low Intermediate / 2nd year middle school

Student Learning Objective:
By the end of the lesson SWBAT ask and answer questions using comparatives (A: Is Jane <u>taller than</u> Alice? B: Yes, Jane is <u>taller than</u> Alice . / No, Alice is <u>taller than</u> Jane.) by doing a class survey about famous people.

Procedures	**Method/Reason**
Encounter	
1. Before class hang pictures of famous Korean celebrities on the walls (film, music, sports, and TV)	1. Desuggestopedia – classrooms should be fun and interesting to create a positive learning environment
2. Greet Ss and ask them about the pictures hanging on the walls (Do you know him/her/them? Who is he/she? Who are they? What do they do? What does he/she do? Do you like…etc..)	2. DM – activate schema and establish rapport and create friendly atmosphere
3. Introduce the topic: "Today we are going to talk about people. (point to images) Today we are going to talk about people like these. Do you often talking about famous people? But fist I want you to meet my friends…"	3. CLL – Knowing what will be studied makes a safer and more comfortable environment - allow Ss to get used to English and my voice – gives an overview of the topic in simple easy to understand language
4. Put picture on the PPT and ask focusing Qs (How many people do you see?) Then ask 2-3 guiding Qs to model the brainstorming activity. For example, point to one of the people (Alice) and with a gesture say "She is…. when Ss say short write in on the WB	4. DM/CLL – use Qs to check that you have Ss attn and to elicit prior knowledge. Use gestures and picture to help check and convey meaning directly in the TL – model activity / validate Ss participation by writing what they say on the WB
5. Ask Ss to open up their books. Tell Ss to make a list of words that describe people to the right of the picture. Ss will do this alone. (CCQ:	5. CLT/DM – treat Ss as knowledgeable participants and check their background knowledge / use Qs to check comprehension of

What are you going to do? What kind of words will you write? Are you working alone or with a partner?)	directions before Ss do activity
6. Walk around the classroom and monitor Ss brainstorming, when each S has 3-6 words ask Ss to share their list with their partner	6. CLT & CoopLL – sharing info promotes safety and comfort and provides opportunities for peer teaching and learning
7. Elicit words from the whole class and write those words on the WB. Use additional pictures (baby, Einstein, devil, angel, etc..) to elicit key words (good, bad, tall, short, young, old, smart, intelligent, pretty, beautiful, happy, handsome, cute, big)	7. CLT / DM / NA – this is part of the think-pair-share routine that is used in CLT to build in repetition which is helpful to internalization / additional T-lead Qs to elicit additional keywords need for lesson / a word bank helps to make a lesson more comprehensible
8. Ask Ss to open their books to the "who is who" sentences. Begin by asking focusing Qs: (How many friends are there? Do you know their names? How many name cards do I have? Can you guess what we are going to do?).	8. DM – using T-lead Qs creates a short lead-in for the next activity and allows T to preview materials by asking Qs to Ss
9. Then give the directions. "Look at this page [hold up page and point]. Ask focusing Q: "How many sentences do you see?" (7) Then give directions: "First I want you to READ all the sentences…Second…[show the picture of the 4 people]… I want you to THINK…[point to your head]…Third I want you to write [mime writing on the paper with the 4 people]. Then ask CCQs: "What do you to do first?" [use finger to skim over sentences] (Read) "What do you second?" [point to head] (think) "What do you do third?" [mime writing] (write). Excellent. You have three minutes. Begin.	9. DM / CLL – act out the sequence of the activity as you give the directions and then CCQ to check Ss comprehension / Give Ss a time limit so they are secure about their role
10. Monitor learner progress. If Ss are struggling	10. CLT – T facilitates learner achievement by

to figure out who is who, point to the sentence number 5 and say, " This is my favorite sentence."	monitoring and providing in-time scaffolding and hints
11. Have learners check their answers in pairs and then have volunteers put the name cards under the picture of the person on the screen or WB. Put up PPT slide and confirm.	11. CLT & CoopLL / CLL & MI / NA– sharing info promotes safety and comfort and provides opportunities for peer teaching and learning / let Ss volunteer and let Ss choose who goes next for safety and comfort & integrating VKT activities makes the leaning more inclusive for learners with various sensory learning modality preferences / input before output and silent period so Ss become comfortable with new form
Internalization	
12. Put the pattern on the PPT slide (A is __ than B). Nominate one S to read the first sentence aloud. Then ask guiding Qs about the pattern: "Is Cindy A or is Alice A? Who is B?" T should repeat this process several times until it is clear that Ss recognize the pattern	12. DM – teaching grammar inductively by asking guiding Qs with a focus on the pattern not the rules
13. Ask Ss to write 3 sentences about the 4 people on the PPT. Tell them to use the pattern on the PPT and tell them to use word from the word list. CCQ the directions: "How many sentences? Who do you write them about? What pattern do you use?	13. DM & NA – writing is an important skill to be developed from the beginning & writing provides additional silent period to help Ss feel comfortable about speaking
14. Have Ss share sentences with a partner	14. CLT & CoopLL – sharing info promotes safety and comfort and provides opportunities for peer teaching and learning
15. Ask Ss: "Do you want to play a game?" Hold up a stuffed animal and ask: "What is this?" (monkey/elephant) "Yes, we are going to play toss the _____ game. To play the game we will	15. Desuggestopedia, MI & DM – games allow for Ss to actively use the new TL in fun and interesting ways, integrating Kinesthetic/Tactile activities makes the leaning more inclusive for

toss the monkey. If you have the monkey, you need to say one of your sentences. Then you will toss the monkey to someone else. Are you ready to play? Who has the monkey?" [teacher] "What do I do?" [say a sentence] "Cindy is more beautiful than Jane. What do I do next? [toss the monkey] then toss the monkey to start the game	learners with various sensory learning modality preferences & the game promotes the use of complete sentences
16. Take the stuffed animal back and say: "Listen." Then ask: "Is Jane taller than Alice?" Point to the pattern and point to the Ss and ask the Q again: "Is Jane taller than Alice?" Have answer in complete sentence. [Yes, Jane is taller than Alice.] Then ask another Q: "Is Jane smarter than Cindy?" Point to the pattern and point to the Ss and ask the Q again: "Is Jane smarter than Cindy?" Have answer in complete sentence. [No, Jane isn't smarter then Cindy / No, Cindy is smarter than Jane.]	16. DM & NA - teaching grammar inductively by asking guiding Qs with a focus on the pattern not the rules – promote speaking in complete sentences – Ss should hear and comprehend a new pattern (Q-form) before using it themselves
17. Show the new pattern on the PPT (Q-form). Ask Ss to write 3 Qs about the 4 people on the PPT. Tell them to use the pattern on the PPT and tell them to use word from the word list. CCQ the directions: "How many Q? Who do you write them about? What pattern do you use?	17. DM & NA – teaching grammar inductively - writing is an important skill to be developed from the beginning & writing provides additional silent period to help Ss feel comfortable about speaking
18. Have Ss share ask their Qs to their partner. Model the interaction with one Ss. One S asks the other S answers. Take turns until all Qs are asked.	18. DM, CLT & CoopLL – Q&A exercise to practice new structure, sharing info promotes safety and comfort and provides opportunities for peer teaching and learning
19.Draw table with 3 columns on the WB. Ask Ss to open their books. Ask focusing Qs to preview the materials: "How many column do you see? What is at the top of the first column?	19. DM – teach grammar inductively ask Qs don't tell - demonstrate don't explain – get Ss to self correct by giving Ss choice

[write what Ss say on WB] (+ er) What is at the top of the second column? [write what Ss say on WB] (-y + ier) What is at the top of the third column? [write what Ss say on WB] (more). Tell Ss that we will put the 10 word above the table into the correct columns. Ask Ss "Where do we put tall? In column one, two or three? Ask Ss to spell it an point to +er. Do this for happy and intelliegent. Make purposeful mistakes (happyer and more intelligenter) have the Ss correct these errors. Ask Qs to clarify the rules. Have do the remaining 7 words on their own. Monitor and use phonics to help them self correct. (Ex: cutter and cuter are they the same word or different? How do you write cuter?)	
20. Have Ss compare answers and then have Ss come to the WB and fill out the chart	20. CLT & CoopLL /CLL & MI – Sharing info promotes safety and comfort and provides opportunities for peer teaching and learning / Having Ss write on the WB helps build community and ownership & integrating Kinesthetic/Tactile activities makes the leaning more inclusive for learners with various sensory learning modality preferences
21. Put slide on PPT showing a dialog of a conversation I had with my daughter about K-pop singers. Have one S come to the WB, have the other Ss say names of famous people, let the S write the names of the famous people in Korean on the WB. Put Ss in pairs and have them ask and answer Qs using the dialog. Model the activity: Is Shrek more handsome than Donkey? (tell Qs about any 2 people are OK – but the Qs should be interesting). Monitor the Ss when they seem to be asking Qs easily,	21. CLT & CLL – language and support and scaffolding is provided at first and then is taken away & Ss allowed to choose who they will talk about to make the TL more relevant.

remove support language **Fluency** 22, Ask Ss to open their books to the survey sheet. Have Ss work with their partner and have them choose 3-5 of the most interesting Qs that they asked each other. CCQ this. "Will you and your partner have the same Qs or different Qs? (same Qs)." Once each pair has 3-5 Qs, put the Ss into groups of 3 or 4. Have Ss take turns asking their group members Q and writing the answers down. Put the original pair back together and let them present their findings. 7 people thought Jeon Jihyun was more beautiful than Kim Taehee. 6 people thought Kim Taehee was move beautiful than Jeon Jihyun.	22. CLT – Ss do an activity with a clear communicative purpose – Ss demonstrate they can use the TL on their own to ask and answer their own thoughts and feelings. Ss share their finding with classmates to bring the lesson to a close.

Additional Materials:
- ➢ Laminated pictures of famous Koreans such as singers, actors and sports stars
- ➢ Pictures of angel, devil, Einstein and a baby

Mary	Jane
Cindy	Alice

18 years old

NAME:

_____

13 years old

NAME:

_____

20 years old

NAME:

_____

15 years old

NAME:

_____
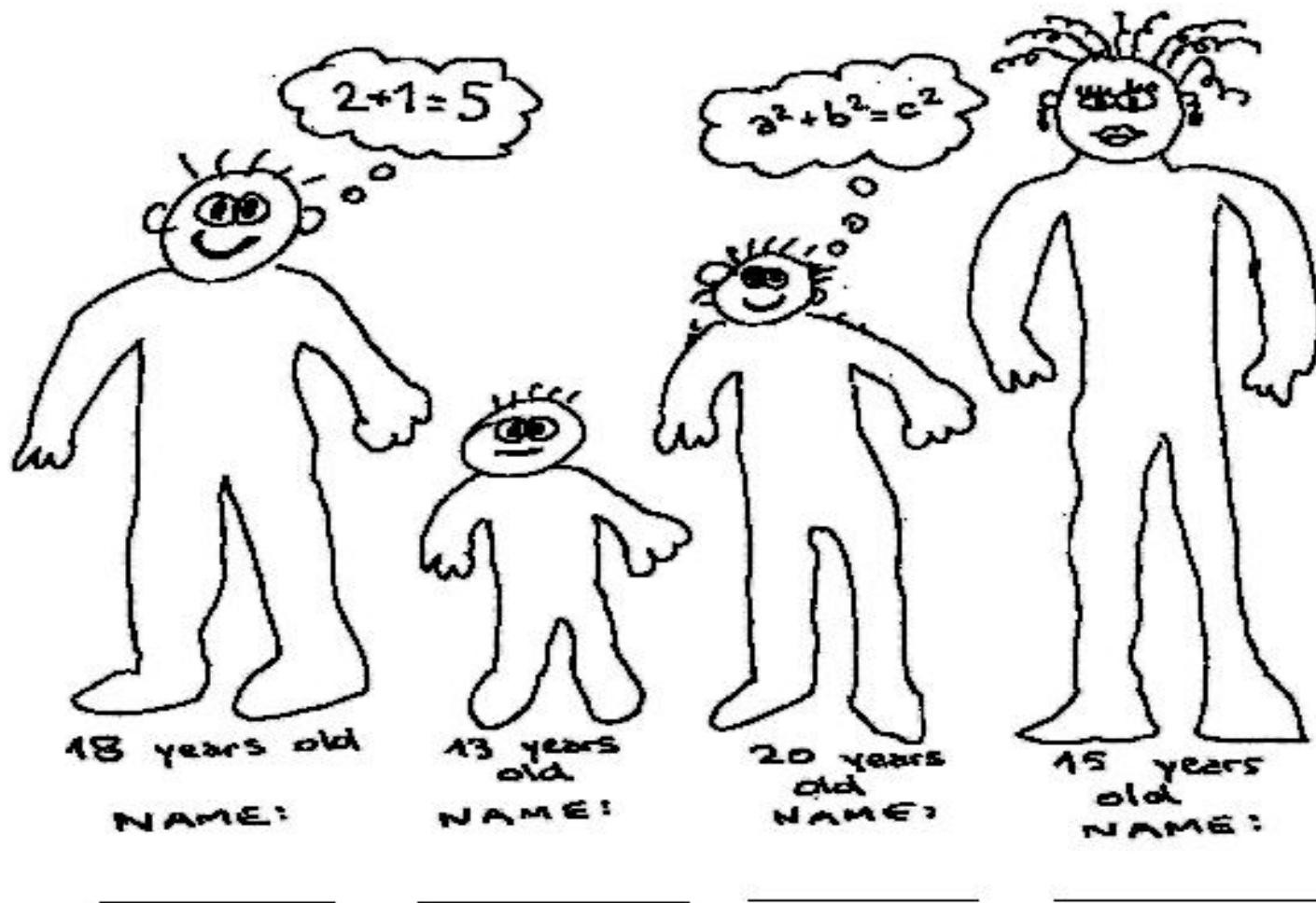
Who is who?

Cindy is taller than Alice.

Jane is taller than Cindy.

Mary is older than Alice.

Jane is happier than Alice.

Cindy is more intelligent than Jane.

Mary is prettier than Cindy.

Cindy is older than Jane.

Where do these go?

Tall, happy, intelligent, pretty, old, interesting, beautiful, cute, big, young

+er	- y + ier	more

Special: Good – better; bad – worse.

Survey

Write questions about famous people, ask your classmates and write their answers.

Question	Name & Answer	Names & Answer	Name & Answer	Names & Answer

CLT Survey

What is involved in CLT methodology in your view? (*Please check one.*)

a. CLT is student/learner-centered approach.   True ☐ Not True ☐   Don't know ☐

b. CLT emphasizes fluency over accuracy.   True ☐ Not True ☐   Don't know ☐

c. CLT emphasizes communication in a second language (L2) True ☐ Not True ☐   Don't know ☐

d. CLT relies heavily on speaking and listening skills. True ☐ Not True ☐   Don't know ☐

e. CLT requires teachers to have a high proficiency in English. True ☐ Not True ☐ Don't know ☐

f. CLT involves only group work or pair work.   True ☐ Not True ☐   Don't know ☐

g. CLT requires higher knowledge of the target language culture. True ☐ Not True ☐ Don't know ☐

h. CLT involves no grammar teaching.   True ☐ Not True ☐   Don't know ☐

i. CLT involves teaching speaking only.   True ☐ Not True ☐   Don't know ☐

j. CLT is basically an ESL methodology, not EFL.   True ☐ Not True ☐   Don't know ☐

Personal Information Gap Activity – "A"

Fill in the blanks by:
- *listening to the questions your partner asks you and writing them down.*
- *asking your partner the questions and writing their down their answers.*

QUESTIONS:	ANSWERS:
1) What's one of your favorite foods?	
2)	
3) What's your favorite fruit?	
4)	
5) Can you cook?	
6)	
7) What did you have for breakfast today?	
8)	
9) What did you have for dinner last night?	
10)	
11) How often do you buy food at a convenience store?	
12)	
13) What's the strangest thing you've ever eaten?	
14)	
15) *YOUR QUESTION*	

Logic Gap

Student A

Complete the puzzle below. Follow these instructions: There are eight rooms and eight tenants at Sunshine Apartments. You know that the eight tenants are Brian, David, Etsuko, Fran, Craig, Alberto, Hannah, and Gina. You don't know their exact apartment numbers.

You have three clues, and your partner has three different clues. Take turns telling each other your clues. Write each person's name in the correct room.

Sunshine Apartments

Room 201	Room 202	Room 203	Room 204
Room 101	Room 102	Room 103	Room 104
	Fran		

1. Fran is in Room 102.

2. Hannah is immediately below David.

3. Brian is between Alberto and Craig.

What does your first clue say?

Which is Gina's apartment? Turn to page 90 to check your answers.

Personal Information Gap Activity – "B"

Fill in the blanks by:
- *listening to the questions your partner asks you and writing them down.*
- *asking your partner the questions and writing their down their answers.*

QUESTIONS:	ANSWERS:
1)	
2) What's a food you hate?	
3)	
4) What's your favorite snack or dessert?	
5)	
6) What can you make?	
7)	
8) How often do you skip breakfast?	
9)	
10) What kind of toppings do you like on your pizza?	
11)	
12) Do you like ethnic food? What kinds?	
13)	
14) *YOUR QUESTION*	
15)	

Logic Gap

Student B

Complete the puzzle below. Follow these instructions: There are eight rooms and eight tenants at Sunshine Apartments. You know that the eight tenants are Brian, David, Etsuko, Fran, Craig, Alberto, Hannah, and Gina. You don't know their exact apartment numbers.

You have three clues, and your partner has three different clues. Take turns telling each other your clues. Write each person's name in the correct room.

Sunshine Apartments

Room 201	Room 202	Room 203	Room 204
Room 101	Room 102	Room 103	Room 104
	Fran		

1. Hannah is two rooms to the right of Fran.

My first clue says that Hannah is . . .

2. Craig is immediately to the left of David.

3. Etsuko is not below Craig.

A Sheet

Language Points

Giving Street Names
It's on Pine Street
It's on 2nd Avenue.
It's on the corner of 2nd and Pine.
Giving Nearby Landmarks
It's across from the bank.
It's next to the park.
It's opposite the library.

Giving Directions

Do you know where I can find a good Chinese food restaurant?

Yeah. Why don't you try Ming's Dynasty?

It's on 3rd Avenue across from the high school.

MING'S DYNASTY
The luckiest fortune cookies in town

high school

Ming's Dynasty   3rd Avenue

museum

13 14 library   15

1st Avenue

hospital

Oak Street

aquarium

11

police station

Pine Street

department store

Cedar Street

12

10

9 bus station

2nd Avenue

park

7

law courts

6

8

high school

post office

3rd Avenue

2

art gallery

1   3

4   5

Use this map to give your partner suggestions and directions.

Ask your partner where you can do the following:

buy some steaks.
see a movie
order some sushi
rent a bike
pick up a bathing suit
get some aspirin
purchase some software

Fill in the name of the buildings that belong in the blanks:

(1) _Ming's Dynasty_
(2) _Hungry Burger_
(3) _____
(4) _Elegant Shoes_
(5) _____
(6) _Starlight Videos_
(7) _____
(8) _Mike's Bowling Alley_
(9) _____
(10) _Monet Cafe_
(11) _____
(12) _Ace Music CDs_
(13) _____
(14) _Mark's Supermarket_
(15) _____

B Sheet

Giving Directions

Language Points

Giving Street Names
It's on Pine Street
It's on 2nd Avenue.
It's on the corner of 2nd and Pine.
Giving Nearby Landmarks
It's across from the bank.
It's next to the park.
It's opposite the library.

Do you know where I can find a good Chinese food restaurant?

Yeah. Why don't you try Ming's Dynasty?

It's on 3rd Avenue across from the high school.

MING'S DYNASTY
The luckiest fortune cookies in town

high school

Ming's Dynasty   3rd Avenue

Use this map to give your partner suggestions and directions.

Ask your partner where you can do the following:

rent a DVD
go bowling
grab a burger
buy some shoes
pick up some milk
find a music CD
go for a cup of coffee

Fill in the name of the buildings that belong in the blanks:

(1) _Ming's Dynasty_
(2) _____
(3) _Bedwell Theater_
(4) _____
(5) _Beaches Swimwear_
(6) _____
(7) _Niko Bikes_
(8) _____
(9) _Albert's Pharmacy_
(10) _____
(11) _Future Computers_
(12) _____
(13) _A and A meats_
(14) _____
(15) _Edo Sushi_

Dan's Big Date

*What did Dan buy for his big date? **Ask** your partner for the missing information. Then **confirm** the total.*

Getting Information:	
What did he buy at <u>London Rolls Bakery</u>? How much was it? How much was the total? How did he pay for it?	He bought <u>a chocolate cake and two pastries</u>. It was <u>$12.50 for the cake</u> and <u>$2.00 for the pastries</u>? With tax, the total came to <u>13.25</u>? He <u>paid $20.00 cash and got $6.75 change</u>. (He put it on his credit card/He wrote a check.)
Confirming Information:	
So that's a total of <u>$13.25 for the cake and pastries</u>.	That's right.

LONDON ROLLS BAKERY

Chocolate cake . . .$10.50
2 pastries $2.00
Sales Tax 6% $0.75
_____
Total $13.25

Cash $20.00
Change $6.75

EMILY'S COSMETICS

Men's Cologne . . .$55.00

Sales Tax 6% $3.30
_____
Total $58.30

VISA. $58.30

The Jean Shop
(1)

(2)
Subtotal $89.98
Discount 15% . . . . -$13.50
Subtotal $76.48
Sales Tax 4% $3.06
_____
Total

Penny's Flowers

2 Dozen Roses . . $40.00
Sales Tax 6% . . . $ 2.40
_____
Total $42.40

Cash $100.00
Change . . . . $ 56.60

Max Music
(1)

(2)
Subtotal $37.98
Sales Tax 6% $ 2.28
_____
Total

Grand Jeweler

Diamond Ring . .$1200.00
Luxury Tax 10% . $120.00
_____
Total $1320.00

Check $1320.00

STANLEY'S
(1)

(2)
Subtotal $16.98
Tax 6% . . . .$ 1.02

Total
Cash
Change

Hot Mart

Candles $4.99
Gift Wrap. $5.99
Card $2.99
Subtotal $13.97
Tax 6% . . . .$ 0.84

Total $14.81
Cash $20.00
Change $5.29

ABC Chocolates
(1)

Tax $1.19

Total

*What did Dan buy for his big date? **Ask** your partner for the missing information. Then **confirm** the total.*

Getting Information:	
What did he buy at <u>London Rolls Bakery</u>? How much was it? How much was the total? How did he pay for it?	He bought <u>a chocolate cake and two pastries</u>. It was <u>$12.50 for the cake</u> and <u>$2.00 for the pastries</u>? With tax, the total came to <u>13.25</u>? He <u>paid $20.00 cash and got $6.75 change</u>. (He put it on his credit card/He wrote a check.)

Confirming Information:	
So that's a total of <u>$13.25 for the cake and pastries</u>.	That's right.

LONDON ROLLS BAKERY

Chocolate cake . . .$10.50	
2 pastries $2.00	
Sales Tax 6% $0.75	
Total	$13.25
Cash $20.00	
Change $6.75	

EMILY'S COSMETICS

(1)

Sales Tax 6% $3.30

Total

The Jean Shop

Jeans $59.99	
Shirt $29.99	
Subtotal $89.98	
Discount 15% . . . -$13.50	
Subtotal $76.48	
Sales Tax 4% $3.06	
Total	$79.54
Check. $79.54	

Penny's Flowers

(1)

Sales Tax 6% . . . $ 2.40

Total

Cash

Change

Max Music

CD Love Tonight . $19.99	
CD Romance $17.99	
Subtotal	$37.98
Sales Tax 6%	$ 2.28
Total $40.26	
Credit Card $40.26	

Grand Jeweler

(1)

Luxury Tax 10% . $120.00

Total

STANLEY'S

Tie $10.99	
Socks . . . . $ 5.99	
Subtotal $16.98	
Tax 6% . . . .$ 1.02	
Total $17.00	
Cash $20.00	
Change . . . .$ 3.00	

Hot Mart

(1)
(2)
(3)

Subtotal
Tax 6%

Total

ABC Chocolates

Chocolates $19.99	
Tax $1.19	
Total $21.18	
Credit Card $21.18	

Cloze Test 1

Directions: Use the words in the word bank and fill in the blanks.

strict	*easy-going*	*look after*	*control*	*organize*	*punish*	*allow*

Some parents are _____. They raise their children in a relaxed and flexible manner. Other parents, however, are _____.

They have strong beliefs about what a child should and shouldn't do and they follow their beliefs exactly. My parents were pretty

easy-going, because they _____ me to do what I wanted. They didn't try to _____ my schedule or to _____

my life, because they would let me make my own decisions. For example, I had an opportunity to learn how to play an instrument, but

I decided not to and my parents were OK with that. I was also the youngest so I never had to _____ my brothers and sisters,

but my brothers and sisters had to look after me. Although my parents were easy-going, they did _____ me when I did

something wrong. In fact, my father was very creative in coming up with ways to punish me.

Questionnaire

Keywords: *strict, easy-going, look after, control, organize, punish, allow*

When you were a child:

a) *Do you think your parents were strict or easy-going?*

b) *Did they allow you to stay out late at night?*

c) *When did your parents make you go to bed?*

d) *Did you have to look after your brothers and sisters?*

e) *When you went out did you always have to tell them where you were going?*

f) *Did you always have to do your homework before dinner?*

g) *Did your parents make you help about the house?*

h) *What jobs did they make you do?*

i) *Did your parents give you lots of free time or did they control and organize your life?*

j) *When you did something wrong, who punished you and how did they punish you?*

Strictest Parents Follow-up
Find Someone who….

Directions: Write six sentences using the language below. Describe what your parents were like when you were young.

1. *When I wan a child my parents* **made me**… *// When I was a child I* **was made to**…
2. *They* **let** *me….*
3. **I was forced to**… *// My parents* **forced me to**….
4. **I was allowed to**… *// My parents* **allowed me to**….
5. **I was supposed to**….
6. **I had to**….

Experience	Friend
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	

Sample Lesson: Strictest Parents

Name: _____ Date: _____ Teaching time: _50-60 min _____

Age & Level of students: middle school students intermediate

1. *What are you teaching?*
- **Key Vocabulary** *strict, easy-going, look after, control, organize, punish, allow*
- **Language points** Simple past tense especially questions with Did…
  Describing past actions especially duties, obligations, permissible and impermissible actions
  Active and Passive voice
- **Language skills –** Speaking
- **Cultural Aspects** – N/A

2. What are your Student Learning Objectives for the lesson? (These should be specific and describe *observable student behaviors,* which you will be able to see in class.)

By the end of the lesson, SWBAT:
discuss the questions from the questionnaire about what their parents are/were like and then decide "Who has/had the strictest parents?" **_by_** making and presenting a poster **that ranks** their group members from the strictest to the least strict.

3. When/How in the lesson will I check students' progress toward the above Learning Objectives? What behaviors/activities will show me whether they have mastered the material? Ss will have an opportunity to read the questionnaire and prepare a summary of their experiences before they begin discussing with their classmate how strict their parent were

Preliminary considerations:
a. What do your students already know in relation to today's lesson?
Ss have learned comparative and superlative forms. Ss have also learned the simple past tense.
b. What aspects of the lesson do you anticipate your students might find challenging/difficult?
Using the language that they know to carry on an extended conversation about how strict their parents are
c. How will you avoid and/or address these problem areas in your lesson?
Ss will be given a model before they start the task. Ss will have more than one chance to describe how strict their parents were to their peers and will multiple opportunities to hear their peers describe how strict their parents were, so repetition and peer learning will be used to help the Ss become more fluent and competent.

Steps	Stages	Time	Procedure	Interaction	Activity purpose
1	PT	10	•**Optional:** Show picture of some families, and ask Ss: *"What do you see?"* Elicit the words "family, children and parents." •Write the questions: *"What are/were your parents like?"* on the board. •Model the opening discussion by answering the question: *"My parents were pretty easy-going unless I was bad. If I was bad, then they were very strict. My father was very creative with some of the ways he punished me."* •CCQ your model: *When were my parents strict? Who punished me?* •Ask Ss in groups of three/four to take turns describing their parents. •**Elicit some answers from the groups such as *perfectionist, generous, hard-working, etc…* and write them on the board. Then introduce the topic of today's lesson:** *"Whose parents were the strictest?"*	T-S T T-S	•Activate Schema and Intro the topic •Model the language I want Ss to use •Check that Ss understand the model •Validate Ss participation by writing words that describe their parents on the board
2	PT	5	•Put the following vocab on the board: ***strict, easy-going, look after, control, organize, punish, allow*** •Ask Ss to discuss what the words mean (Ss can do this in the L1 or the L2, but decide which is most appropriate for your Ss) •After Ss have had an opportunity to discuss the words ask the following CCQs: "If your parents are strict do they let you do what you want, or do you do what they say?" "Does look after mean take care of or find?" "Does easy-going mean stressed out or relaxed?" Does allow mean you can do something or that you can't?" My daughter's room is very messy. My son's room is very clean. Which room is organized son's or daughter's? Which is a better punishment, giving candy or making the student write sentences on the board? Which person is controlling the car the driver or the passenger?" •Pass out the cloze exercise and let the Ss fill in the blanks. Ss do alone first and Ss should use the words in the word bank. CCQ: Alone or with your partner? What words do you use? •Let Ss check answers with each other then read and check. Ask Ss to circle the answers they get wrong •Common problem is control and organize – Ask Ss: ***Does a schedule have moving parts?*** You control things that can move, but you organize things that don't. Give examples → Ask: ***Why we can control and organize a life?*** We control the person, but we organize the abstract thing.	T-S Ss-Ss T-S S S-S T-S	•Prepare Ss for the lesson by giving Ss keywords •Allow Ss time to discover the meaning and to teach and learn from each other •Check Ss understanding of the new words by using CCQs and give lower level Ss another opportunity to learn/guess the meaning •Use Cloze activity to assess Ss understanding and to clarify similar words (control/organize)
3	TC	20	•Pass out the questionnaire, and go over the questions. Some questions you may want to model an answer, for example: When did you parents make you go to bed? *"My parents didn't have a bedtime for me, but I couldn't stay up later than they did. My parents usually went to bed after the news at 11:30 pm."* •Ask Ss: ***Is this strict or easy-going? Why?*** •Set-up the task: In groups of four or five you are going to use the questionnaire as a guide to find out Whose parents were the strictest. •You may ask and answer Qs that are not on the questionnaire, but the questionnaire will give you examples to Qs to ask and answer if you can't think of any yourself.	T-S Ss-Ss	•Model a possible answers and have Ss decide if my parents were strict or easy-going, to give Ss a clear idea of what they should be working towards •Give Ss a task with an outcome that requires Ss to discuss and use language to complete •Task provides Ss with a reason to ask and answer Qs to and to ask follow-up Qs to gain

			•One person needs to run the discussion, another person needs to take notes and a third person will need to be the spokesperson. Please choose your roles before you begin. •With 5 minutes remaining in the discussion tell Ss that they should prepare to make their report. Whose parents were the strictest and why and whose parents were the most easy-going and why?		more information from classmates
4	TC	5	•Have Ss present their finding and see if the class can decide whose parents were the most strict and most easy going. •Close the discussion by summarizing what the Ss have said.	S-Ss	•Provided Ss with clear outcome feedback •Completion of task helps Ss with confidence •Validate what Ss have done by summarizing their finding and giving your stamp of approval
5	LF	10	**Language Focus** *NB: Make decisions based on what you observed during the task cycle. Two options are described below.* **Option 1 – Verb Tense Review** •Ask the Ss: "The Qs you asked each other today, did they happen in the future, now or the past?" Ss should answer, "Past." •Elicit and example sentence by asking: "Can you give me an example of question you asked each other today?" and write the sentence on the board; for example: *Did you have to look after your brothers and sisters?* Underline the aspect of the verb that you want Ss to focus on. •Elicit and additional example sentence by asking: How can we change this question if we want to ask a person about something they are doing now? Underline the aspect of the verb that you want Ss to focus on. For example: *Are you looking after your brothers and sisters?* •Elicit and additional example sentence by asking: How can we change this question if we want to ask a person about something they will do in the future? Underline the aspect of the verb that you want Ss to focus on. *Will you have to look after your brothers and sisters?* •Elicit and additional example sentence by asking: How can we change this question if we want to ask a person about something they do on a daily basis? Underline the aspect of the verb that you want Ss to focus on. *Do you have to look after your brothers and sisters everyday?* Leave the example sentences on the board and set up the game: Ss will flip a coin and move their marker. Each square on the board has a question topic, before Ss ask their Q they need to pick a time card: past, now, future, daily and ask one of their group members the question based on the time card. **Option 2 - Using Active or Passive Voice to describe duties and obligations** •Ss look at sample sentences and answer the Q: How are these sentences similar and how are they different? • Guide Ss to notice that passive voice is often used if the speaker want to focus on him/her self and suggest the situation is unfair whereas active voice is used to describe the from the parents point of view and suggesting the parents were treating the him/her fairly.	T-S S-S	NB: The reason for this section will depend on what is actually the language focus, see below In general To clarify the TL that the Ss had problems with To give Ss opportunities to notice salient features of the TL To allow Ss to practice these features in a controlled way that helps Ss to build accuracy

Language Focus: Option 1 Grammar (Building Fluency)

Clarification of past and present verb forms. Ss do matching game with flashcards

GO	WENT	COME	CAME	HAVE	HAD
DO	DID	IS	WAS	AM	WAS
ARE	WERE	LOOK AFTER	LOOKED AFTER	PUNISH	PUNISHED
ALLOW	ALLOWED	MAKE	MADE	TELL	TOLD
EAT	ATE	ASK	ASKED		

Go over the four kinds of Qs that you want your Ss to be able to ask and when they would ask them:
- Are you doing your homework? Is she doing her homework?
- Do you do your homework every day? Do you usually do your homework before or after dinner? Does he usually do his homework?
- Did you do your homework?
- Will you do your homework?

These Q forms could be practices in
- game board
- using time cards (Now, Daily, Past, Future)
- Poker Game with these Qs assign one time to each suit.

Language Focus - Option 2

Show this slide:	Have Ss complete these sentences:
## Helpful Expressions	## Complete these sentences
• When I was a child, I was made to take out the garbage. • When I was a child, my parents made me take out the garbage. • I was forced to look after my brothers and sisters. • My parents forced me to look after my brothers and sisters. • I was allowed to spend the night at my friend's house. • My parents allowed me to spend the night at my friend's house. How are these sentences the same? How are they different?	1. *When I was a child my parents* **made me** *…. // When I was a child I* **was made to**… 2. *They* **let me** *….* 3. *I was* **forced to** *…. // My parents* **forced me to**… 4. *I was* **allowed to** *…. // My parents* **allowed me to**… 5. *I was* **supposed to** *… // I wasn't* **supposed to**… 6. *I* **had to**…

Based on the completed sentences have Ss do a "Find Someone Who…" activity if time allows.

Description:	Your friend's name:
1. 2.	

Instructions:
1.) Please write out *SIX* sentences describes you and your parents.
2.) Interview your friends to find out if they have similar experiences
3.) If your friend has had that experience, you can write their name in the chart.
4.) You need to find 6 different people who have a similar experience.