Graduate School of Education

Fall 2025

Materials Use & Lesson Planning

HANKUK UNIVERSITY OF FOREIGN STUDIES

Section 1

Syllabus & Schedule

Section 1: Syllabus

Graduate School of Education
Young Learners' Materials Use & Lesson Planning

Instructor: James Brawn email: jbrawn67@gmail.com

The general purpose of this course is to provide teachers with insight into the task-sequencing and material design and development for young learners. Some of the topics we will discus this semester are:

- The features of good materials
- Characteristics of young learners
- Task sequencing and materials especially in terms of productive and receptive skill lesson planning frameworks
- Appropriateness of grammar instruction with young learners
- Active learning cycle
- Student learning objectives

We will be using a course packet available at 참글

Grading and assessments:

30% Attendance (10%) and active participation in class activities (20%)
20% Homework on readings
25% Lesson Plan & Materials I
25% Lesson Plan & Materials 2

HUFS grading scale:

A+ = 95-100%
AO = 90-94%
B+=85-89%
BO = 30-84%
C+ = 75=79%
CO = 70-74%
F = 69% or less

Week	Readings	In class activities/Assignments
Week 1		Introduction of course and Life Map icebreaking activity
Week 2	Learner Differences - Harmer	**Discussion/Lecture** -processing Life Map activity - key terms
Week 3	Fadil's Defining learning objectives for ELT	**Discussion/Lecture** - key terms continued - learner differences
Week 4	EIF	**Sample Lesson #1** w/ processing & **Lecture:** Intro to SLOs
Week 5		**Workshop:** Creating SLOs & **Discussion/Lecture** on lesson planning for productive skills
Week 6	Good Materials	**Sample Lesson #2** w/ processing & Introduce Mid-Semester Project
Week 7	Adapting Coursebook - SARS	**Workshop:** Applying SARS & creating materials for productive skill lessons
Week 8		**Review** of EIF & continuation of SARS and material creation
Week 9		**Team Meeting & Conferencing:** Check participant lesson plans and materials and give feedback
Week 10	Grellet's *Developing Reading Skills (in class reading)*	**Lesson Plan & Materials 1 Due** Read-on-Read Lesson, discussion/lecture on reading
Week 11	PDP framework material	**Discussion/lecture** of PDP framework **Workshop:** Lesson planning and material development for receptive skill lessons
Week 12		**Sample Lesson #3** w/ processing
Week 13		**Sample Lesson #4** w/ processing
Week 14		**Discussion/lecture** of reading **Workshop:** Evaluating Materials
Week 15		**Team Meeting & Conferencing:** Check participant lesson plans and materials and give feedback
Week 16		**Review:** Key concepts **Lesson Plan & Materials 2 Due Course Evaluation/Survey**

Section 2

Assessment & Assignments

Attendance [10%] & Participation [20%] (30%)

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. **More important than attendance is participation**. I expect participants to be active in class discussions and to complete all oral and written assignments **BY THE DUE DATE**. If assignments are handed in late without prior permission from the instructor, **10% for each late day will be deducted from the grade**. Finally, participants in this course will have several opportunities to apply the skills learned in lectures, discussions and workshops by engaging in various "in-class" activities and projects.

Homework on readings (20%)

It is essential to be prepared for each class by completing the required readings. This will provide you with the background knowledge on the topic and allow you to participate actively in the class discussion. In order to ensure that you have read the required readings for class, you will be expected to do a short homework assignment for the reading. This homework assignment involves answering the guiding reading questions presented at the beginning of each reading. These homework assignments are to be submitted at the beginning of class. **Late submissions will NOT be accepted.**

Lesson Plan & Material 1 & 2 (25% each)

These two assignments are critical to success in this course. Participants will be expected to write a student learning objective (SLO), design a lesson plan to achieve the SLO, and select, adapt, **and/or** supplement the materials that the Ss will need to complete the lesson successfully.

Lesson Plan & Material 1

1. Create a student learning objective (SLO) for a **Speaking** lesson.
2. Create a lesson plan following the E-I-F framework using the given template
3. Label the stages in the lesson E-I-F
4. Include interaction for each step in the lesson (T-S, S, Ss-Ss, etc.)
5. Provide a purpose or a rationale for each step in the lesson
6. Select, adapt and/or supplement the necessary materials to be used in the lesson
7. Label your materials so that they match the steps in your lesson plan

Lesson Plan & Material 2

1. Create a student learning objective (SLO) for a **receptive skill** lesson.
2. Create a lesson plan following the P-D-P framework using the given template
3. Label the stages in the lesson P-D-P
4. Include interaction for each step in the lesson (T-S, S, Ss-Ss, etc.)
5. Provide a purpose or a rationale for each step in the lesson
6. Select, adapt and/or supplement the necessary materials to be used in the lesson
7. Label your materials so that they match the steps in your lesson plan

NB: Please place your lesson plan and materials in a folder or envelope with your name and class clearly labeled.

Section 3
Sample Lessons

Name	Title or explanation	Time
_____	Life Map: What's made a difference in your life?	50 minutes

Level/Age
Low intermediate to intermediate/ Young adult to adult

Language focus

Target language: Lexis used to describe important/influential/memorable evens such as graduation, get married, be born, etc… needed to answer Qs in a gapped dialog:

A: What was your most interesting experience? / What was your most influential experience? / What was you scariest experience?

B: My most _____ experience was _____.

A: What happened?

B: _____

Specific language skill focus: Speaking
Culture: N/A

Student learning objective and assessment activity

By the end of the lesson, SWBAT demonstrate the ability to use key vocabulary in the dialog (A: What was the most _____ experience? B: My most ____ experience was _____. A: What happened? B: _____) by doing a life map interview activity.

Ongoing assessment

elicit key vocabulary after learner have a group discussion, provide key expression in context and clarify meaning, let learners brainstorm events in their own lives and share with partner before doing the final interview activity

Students' background knowledge and abilities in relation to the topic of the lesson

Learners will know some of the vocabulary needed for the lesson such as get married, girlfriend/boyfriend and will have a lot of motivation to find out unknown words to help them describe their lives

Challenges and solutions

Challenges: Unusual events in individual learners lives cannot be anticipated by the teacher so some necessary vocabulary will be missing

Solutions: Allow learners to share ideas with each other, allow learners access to electronic dictionaries or smart phones, monitor and supply necessary lexis and terms

Steps	Stages	Time	Procedure	Interaction	Activity purpose
1		2	1. Greet Ss and write the following Qs on the WB: ***What's made a difference in your life? What's the most important event in your life?*** Let Ss discuss in small groups. T can model/share an important experience such has: ***Coming to Korea has made me more independent.*** 2. Elicit experiences and wrote them on the WB –Use two columns on for key words and another for non-key words **<u>Slide 1:</u>** No slide is necessary; unless T decides to have a title page showing on screen	T-Ss	1. Establish rapport, friendly atmosphere. 2. Get Ss used to English and my voice / pronunciation. 3. Activate Schema and intro topic
2		10-12	BRAINSTORM/ACTIVATE SCHEMA/BUILD VOCABULARY 1. Put the following words on the PPT: ***graduation, to move, be born, attend, learned to, date/go out with, contest/competition, break up*** 2. Give one handout with the words used in context to each group. Have Ss discuss the meaning of the words in their L1 3. Ask some CCQs such as: ***What high school did you graduate from? Have you ever moved? Where do you move from and to? In what month were you born? What school are you attending now?*** 4. Ss will do a vocabulary matching activity. Model task for Ss by doing the first one. 5. Have Ss check answers with partner 6. Check answers altogether. Hand out several WB markers and ask Ss to match the vocabulary on the WB. **<u>Slides 2≈10</u>:**	T-Ss T-Ss S S-S	1. Brainstorm vocabulary related to important life events 2. Assess Ss background knowledge, find out what Ss know, get an idea of Ss level. 3. Validate Ss participation and build confidence in the topic by writing all solicited words on the WB 4. Model task 5. Create a safe and comfortable learning environment thru peer learning and collaboration Check understanding by using a kinesthetic activity
3		5	**Life Map – Task 1** 1. Tell Ss that they are going to make a list of important life events: Good, bad, interesting, funny, etc… 2. T models by writing some important events on the WB: ***Born August 15, new bike, lost parents at state fair, changed schools, broke leg…*** Ask Ss to write as many events as they can remember in 5 minutes. Tell Ss that if they need help with English to ask their partners. Put help language on the WB: ***How do I say____ in English?*** Check Ss understanding by asking CCQs: ***Are you speaking or writing? Do you write many things or one thing? What are you making?*** 3. Monitor Ss and help Ss find appropriate English words and phrases Have Ss share their lists with their partner or in small groups. Tell Ss if they remember something important to add it to their list.	T-Ss S	1. Model task 2. Provide Ss with support by leaving elicited vocab on WB, and help language so Ss can ask e/o in English 3. Peer sharing to make the task safe and to promote peer learning

				S-S	
4		5	**Life Map – Task 2** 1. Ask Ss to count the number of events on their list. Ask random Ss: ***How many events do you have?*** 2. Ask Ss to put the events in their list in order: ***first, second, next, and then…*** Model task by putting your sample list on the WB in order. (see PPT) 3. Monitor as Ss do tasks	T-Ss S	1. T models tasks for Ss and visual represents what the Ss need to do so Ss can do task successfully 2. Silent period is provided with opportunity of repetitive writing tasks of key events to build comfort and safety of language elements before speaking
5		10	**Life Map – Task 3** 1. Show Ss a picture or sample of a Life Map (Ps. 20 &21) to let them know what they will make 2. Model next task on the WB. Draw a winding line from one side of the WB to the other. Explain to Ss that this line represents the road of their life. 3. Then draw dots along the line. One dot for each event on their list. Remind Ss to try to space the dots out evenly. 4. Next ask Ss to label each dot on their Life Map based on the events they have put in order on their list. Model task on the WB with the line and dots you have drawn. 5. Pass out colored pencils and/or crayons and ask Ss to add simple illustrations of the events they have labeled on their Life Map. Model task for Ss and show sample Life Map on PPT. Monitor Ss to make sure they are on task.	T-Ss S	1. T models tasks for Ss and visual represents what the Ss need to do so Ss can do task successfully 2. Ss are allowed to personalize Life Map thru the drawing of pictures
6		15	**Sharing Life Map** 1. After Ss have finished making their life map have Ss get into groups of three. 2. Put the following Qs on the PPT: ***A: What was your most interesting experience? / What was your most influential experience? / What was you scariest experience?*** ***B: My most _____ experience was _____.*** ***A: What happened?*** ***B:_____*** 3. Ss take terms showing their life maps and explaining the events to their partners	S-S	1. T models tasks for Ss and visual represents what the Ss need to do so Ss can do task successfully 2. Ss are allowed to personalize Life Map thru the drawing of pictures

Mini-Lesson

Discuss in Groups

- ***What are some important events in your life?***
- ***What experiences have made a difference in your life?***

Discuss these words. What do they mean?

- graduate
- graduation
- to move
- be born
- attend
- learn to
- date
- go out with
- contest
- competition
- break up
- break up with

Use sentences on page 76 to help you.
Can you think of other words that would be helpful when describing past experiences?

- move
- learn to
- date
- attend
- graduate
- contest
- break up
- be born

♦ I won the ___ . I got a prize.

♦ I will _____ middle school next year.

♦ I _____ from high school. Now I'm going to university.

♦ I _____ ride a bike from my father.

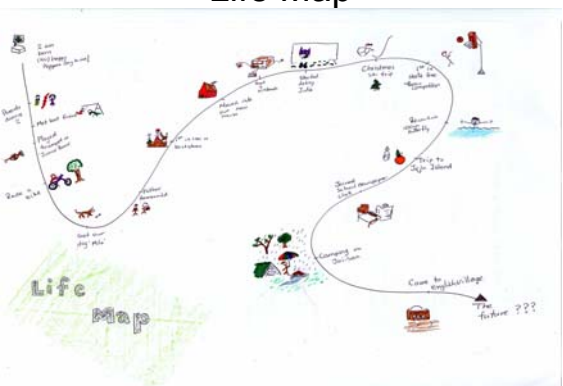
♦ I was _____ in August in the year of the monkey.

♦ I _____ with my boyfriend last week.

♦ There's a girl I want to _____ , but she keeps saying no.

♦ My family and I _____ to a new apartment last month.

Life Map



Step 1: Brainstorming

Think about some of the different experiences in your life. Put them in one of the five columns.

Important/ influential	Interesting/ exciting	sad/ disappointing	scary/ stressful	embarrassing/ funny
being born night climb of Soraksan coming to Korea	going to Egypt summer in NYC	father died Miguel shot	falling into hornets nest arrested in Egypt	teaching with my zipper down naked guy in subway singing Bonkja

Share list with partner.
Add ideas.

A: What was one of your …. experiences?
B: My …. experience was ….
What was one of your … experiences?
A: My …. experience was ….
<continue taking turns>

Kinds of experiences:

- **fun**
- **exciting**
- **interesting**
- **embarrassing**
- **scary**
- **funny**
- **sad**
- **interesting**

Step 2

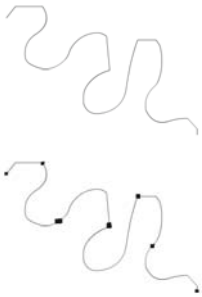
- Count the number of your events (at least 6 no more than 12)
- Make a column of numbers
- Put events in order: ***First, second, next, and then…***

•being born…
•traveling to Egypt…
•father died…
•falling into a hornet nest…
•night climb of Soraksan…
•teaching with zipper down..

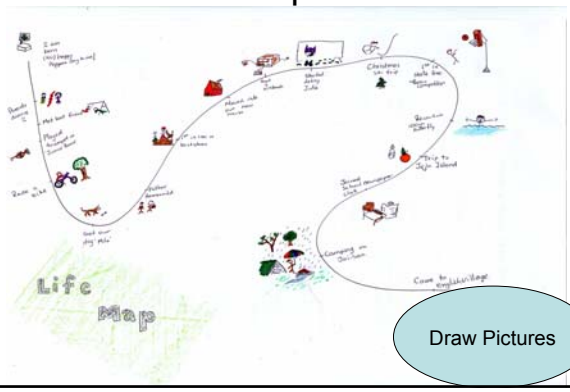
1. being born
2. move & change schools
3. falling into hornet nest
4. traveling to Egypt
5. getting arrested for climbing pyramid
6. summer in NYC
7. father died
8. teaching with zipper down
9. night climb of Soraksan

Step 3

- On page 65 draw a single, wavy line
- Make dots on the wavy line for each event in your life.
- Then write the name of the event next to each dot (1-4 words)



Step 4



Draw Pictures

Get to know your classmates:

A: What was one of your _____ experiences?
B: An important _____ experience was ____.
A: What happened?
B: _____.
What was one of your _____ experiences?
A: A _____ experience was ____.
B: What happened?
A: _____.

A: ….important….

B: …..camping at the beach.

B: I met my current boy/girl friend….scary…

A: …… getting stuck on top of a rollercoaster.

A: ……

You try!
Share with a partner

A: What was one of your _____ experiences?
B: An/A _____ experience was ____.
A: What happened?
B: _____.
<continue taking turns>

- important
- interesting/exciting
- embarrassing/funny
- scary
- fun
- sad

Vocabulary in context

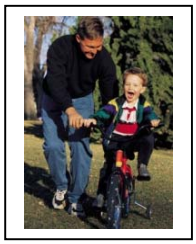
Directions: Look at the sentences below and use them to help your understanding of the key words and expressions. Discuss what you think the words mean in groups. You may use Korean.

He **graduated** from Harvard University in 2009.

Her **graduation** was really special. President Obama gave the commencement address.

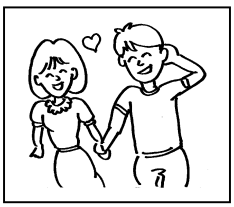
We are going **to move** next week.

Her baby **was born** last month. He's so cute!



Do you remember **learning to** ride a bike?

My daughter **attends** Washington Elementary School. She's in third grade.



Did you hear the news? Gina and Tim are **going out with** each other!

Really! I though Gina was **dating** Tim's brother, Tom.

She was. But she **broke up with** Tom to date Tim.

Did he win a prize at the speech **contest**?

He entered the **competition**, but he didn't get a prize.

- move
- learn to
- date
- attend
- graduate
- contest
- break up
- be born

♦ I won the ___ . I got a prize.

♦ I will _____ middle school next year.

♦ I _____ from high school. Now I'm going to university.

♦ I _____ ride a bike from my father.

♦ I was _____ in August in the year of the monkey.

♦ I _____ with my boyfriend last week.

♦ There's a girl I want to _____ , but she keeps saying no.

♦ My family and I _____ to a new apartment last month.

Brainstorming

Directions: Think about some of the different experiences in your life. Put them in one of the five columns.

Important / Influential	Interesting / Exciting	Sad / Disappointing	Scary / Stressful	Embarrassing / Funny

Draw Your Life Map

Name	Title or explanation	Time
_____	Comparative Adjectives with "Yes/No" Questions	45 minutes

Level/Age
Low Intermediate/Upper elementary through high school

Language focus

Target language: Comparative statements and questions ("X is ____er than Y" / "Is X ____er than Y?")

Specific language skill focus: speaking & grammar (some reading)
Culture: N/A (unless words like fat and ugly comes up, then T may want to discuss the appropriateness of those terms)

Student learning objective and assessment activity

By the end of the lesson, SWBAT make statements about and ask basic questions using comparatives (i.e. "x is taller than y" and "is x taller than y?") by conducting a class survey about famous people.

Ongoing assessment

Ss understanding of meaning will be assessed through the puzzle activity, form will be introduced as a pattern that Ss will first manipulate in a controlled manner, as Ss gain confidence more authentic tasks such as personalized substitution drill will allow Ss to internalize and use the TL.

Students' background knowledge and abilities in relation to the topic of the lesson

Most students will be familiar with adjectives used to describe people, such as big, small, tall short, etc...

Challenges and solutions

Challenges: Using adjectives to compare two things may be completely new language for some Ss.

Solutions: I will provide lower level Ss with opportunities for peer learning; for example new learners will have a chance to model their language use after the more experienced students.

Glossary for Common Abbreviations Used in the Lesson Plans

T = teacher
S = student
Ss = students
TL = target language
N/A = not applicable
i.e. = that is
w/ = with
w/o = without

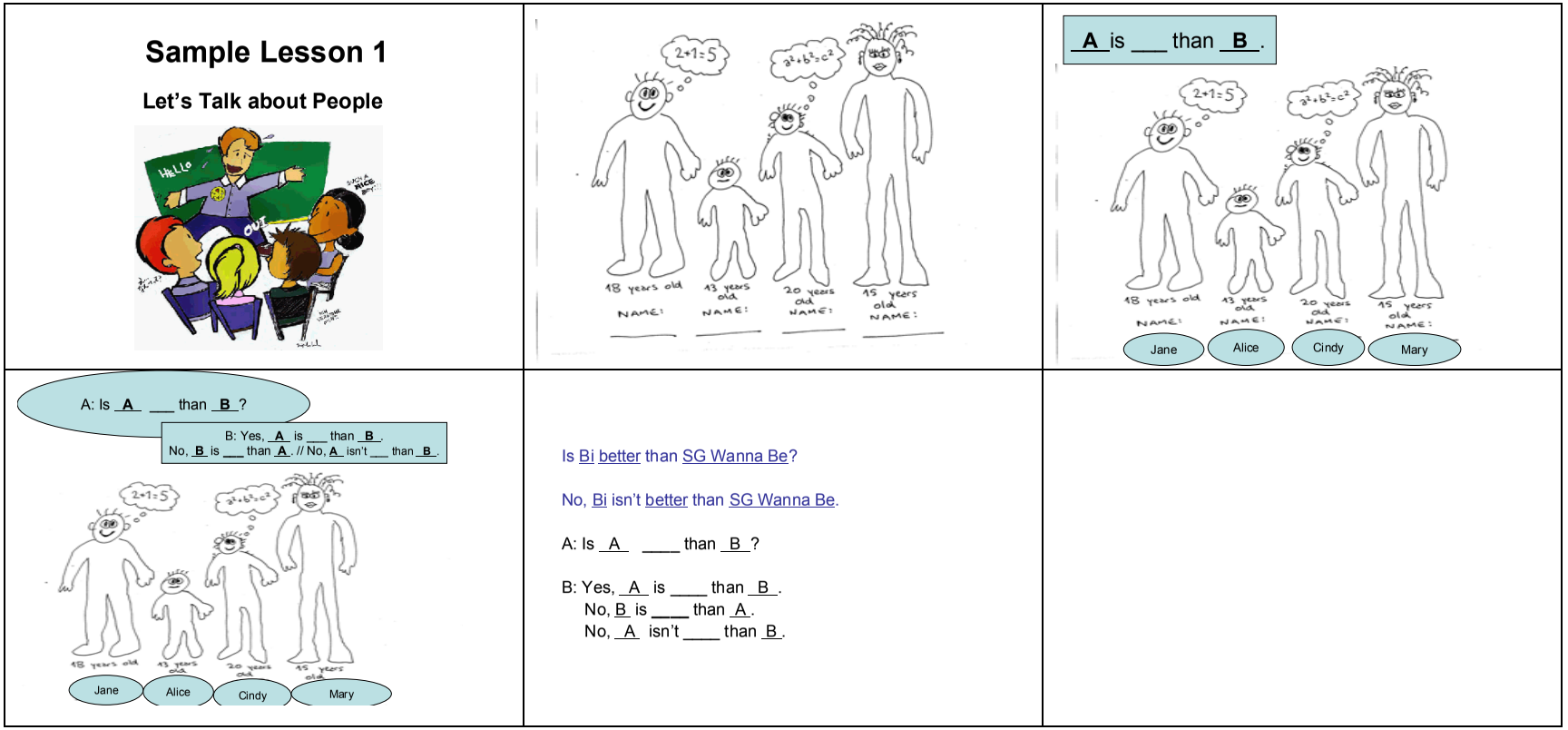
Q&A = question and answer
PPT = PowerPoint
WB = white board
SL = sample lesson
NB = take special note of
e/o = each other
b/c = because

SWBAT = students will be able to
VAKT = visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile
CCQ = comprehension/concept check questions
FMU = form, meaning, use
SLO = student learning objective
e.g. = for example
FOWTAK = find out what they already know

Steps	Stages	Time	Procedure	Interaction	Activity purpose
1		1	1. Hang pictures of famous Korean music, film, TV and sports stars on walls around classroom 2. Greet Ss, introduce my name, smile, make eye contact, ask a few questions: Who is that? Do you like him/her? What is she/he famous for? Who's your favorite singer? 3. Introduce topic: Today we are going to talk about people? Do you like to talk about people? Do like? Do you like Ivy?	T-Ss	(1) Activate schema (2) Establish rapport, friendly atmosphere (3) Get Ss used to English and my voice / pronunciation (4) Intro of topic
2		6	REVIEW / BRAINSTORM 1. pics of tall, old pretty – elicit vocab from Ss, write list on whiteboard (If Ss give non-adj. write on WB in different column); 2. Ss in pairs create longer list 3. if not on their list, add good, beautiful, intelligent, bad…	T-Ss S-S (T-Ss)	(1) Model task (2) Check Ss background knowledge, find out what Ss know, get an idea of Ss level (3) Validate Ss participation and build confidence in the topic
3		10	PUZZLE GAME 1. Logic puzzle on PPT and handouts. Small groups / pairs to discover names of the people in the picture based on clues: a) Cindy is taller than Alice. b) Jane is taller than Cindy. c) Mary is older than Alice. d) Jane is happier than Alice. e) Cindy is more intelligent than Jane. f) Mary is prettier than Cindy. g) Cindy is older than Jane.; 2. feedback: elicit names (include a kinesthetic component such as placing names on WB) 3. elicit/give Ss structure: A is ____ than B 4. model use of the support language 5. erase / take away clues – drill: Ss make 3 sentences 6. Ss pass monkey and share their sentences	T-S S-S T-Ss	(1) Ss first exposure to target language (2) Discovery method – Ss see the meaning of target language in a context, work out the rules from the examples (3) Student motivation / interest – Ss are initially focused on a meaningful task, NOT the language (4) VAKT is used to help Ss with various learning modalities (5) Silent period provided to give Ss time to get comfortable with new form
4		6	Next Chunk – Q Form 1. Introduce/Elicit the questions form (assuming that some Ss are already familiar with this form): Is A _____ than B? 2. Use picture to drill: Have Ss make three Qs and ask them to each other – Ss then ask Qs to T 3. Picture as prompt and WB as support when pairs practice Q and A	T-Ss S-S S-T	(1) Listening before speaking (2) T values Ss as experts (3) Encourage Ss to participate in meaning making by providing learn-centered task (4) Provides another chance to practice TL (5) Silent period provided to give Ss time to get comfortable with new form
5		5	CHECKING FORM 1. T models chart on WB…check rules by asking Ss CCQs 2. Ss complete chart on handout 3. T monitors, checks answers Optional: 4. Have Ss write answers on WB	Ss T-Ss	(1) Ss are given a chance to clarify the written form (2) VTK - that is - Visual/Tactile/Kinesthetic learners accommodated.
6		7	LESS CONTROLLED PRACTICE 1. Show pictures/elicit names of famous Korean pop singers/movie/sports stars and write on WB	T-Ss, S-S	(1) Ss are given a chance to practice in a less controlled exercise (2) Increase Ss interest by using relevant material.

			2. model activity: T / T-Ss / Ss-T / Ss-Ss A: Is A _____ than B? B: Yes, A is ___ than B // No, A isn't ____ than B. 3. Ss practice asking and answering using pictures prompt or WB to scaffold task. TL support is provide as a gapped dialog. T can remove TL support to check if Ss have internalized		
7		10	SURVEY 1. Remove TL support 2. Handout survey sheet 3. Ss write 3 to 5 Qs about famous Koreans 4. T models task with Ss 5. Ss mingle with classmates and ask Qs and record As (T can have Ss form two lines, if it seems Ss aren't mingling. Have the two lines face each other and have lines move in opposite directions to change partners) 6. If time T models how Ss can report findings: Gina thinks BoA is more beautiful than Ivy.	T-Ss S-S S-S T-Ss	(1) Students are able to be active in their own learning (2) The activity provides an authentic purpose in using the TL: to find out about the opinions of other classmates.

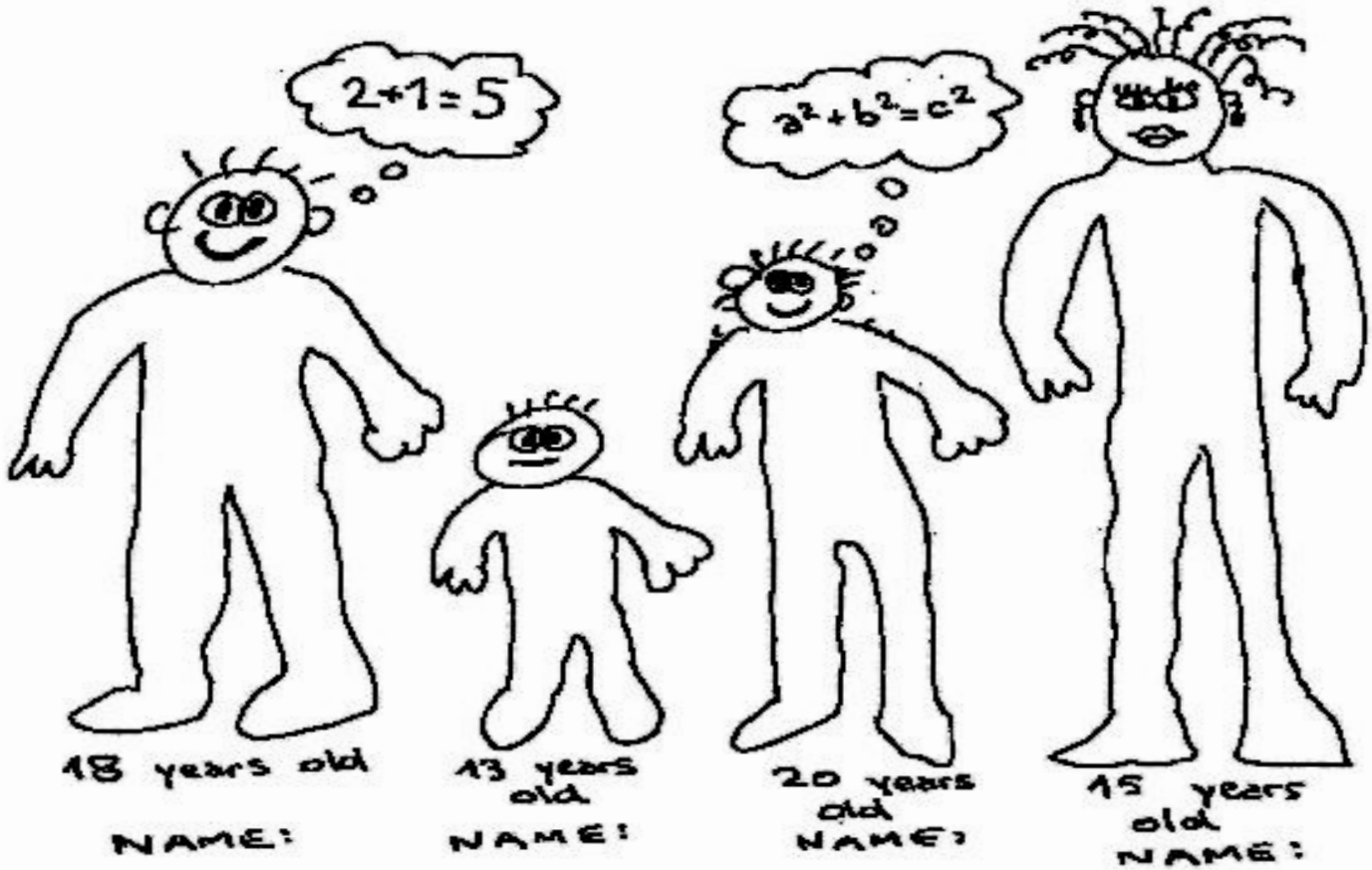
PPT and Materials



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


2+1=5
$a^2+b^2=c^2$
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

Name	Title or explanation	Time
Scott Smith	"Who are they talking about?"	60 minutes

Level/Age
Intermediate/Young adults (high school and university students, 18-24 years old)

Language focus

Target language: Lexis for describing people – appearance and personality (e.g. *young*, *mid-20s*, *good-looking*, *well-built*, *funny*, *Hispanic*, *black hair*, *wears glasses*, etc.)

Specific language skills: Speaking

Culture: N/A unless there are issues of appropriateness especially in terms of what is and isn't offensive when describing a person's race

Student learning objective and assessment activity(ies)

By the end of the lesson, all students will be able to accurately use lexis for describing people such as (blond, Asian, glasses, shoulder length, African American, bald, hard-working, generous, strict, etc...) by doing the following assessment activities: describing best friend to their partner, and by doing the celebrity matchmaking activity.

Ongoing assessment

Students will generate their own describing words, use lexis to describe some pictures, use the lexis to describe the bank robbers and use the lexis to describe their family

Students' background knowledge and abilities

Some lexis for describing people, contractions (e.g. *who is* > *who's*, *what is* > *what's*, *that is* > *that's*, *he is* > *he's*, etc.), simple present – questions (e.g. *Who's that*?, *What's your friend like*?) and statements (*That's my friend* ___., *He's really* ___.)

Challenges and solutions

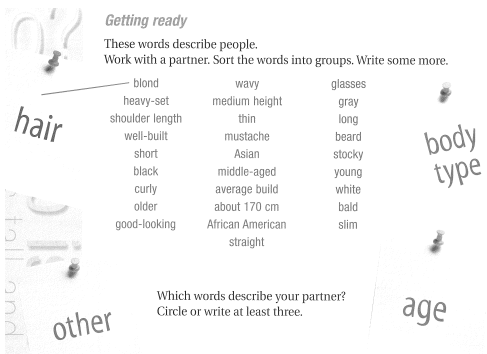
Challenges: Some lexis for describing people (e.g. *sideburns*, *goatee*, *soul/cool patch*, *five o'clock shadow*, *dreadlocks*, *frizzy*, *receding hairline*, *streaking*, *bust*, *girth*, *physique*, etc.)

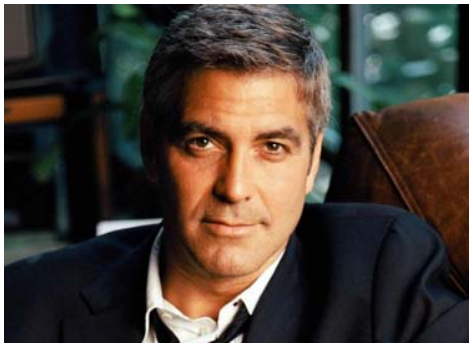
Solutions: By giving students many opportunities to work cooperatively together and share their knowledge, by providing contexts and hints to help students make educated guesses, and by using pictures and drawings as necessary

Steps	Stages	Time	Procedure	Interaction	Activity purpose
1	E	10	Words for describing people: Greet students and start focusing on the target language – lexis to describe people (e.g. *young*, *mid-20s*, *good-looking*, *well-built*, *funny*, *Hispanic*, *black hair*, *wears glasses*, etc.). Students work in pairs and sort a list of words into four groups – *hair*, *body type*, *age*, and *other*. After that, they add more words to each group. Finally, they use some words from the four groups to describe their partner.	S-S (pairs)	(1) Generate interest (2) Make students feel at ease (3) Build rapport (4) Introduce target lexis (5) Activate schema (6) Establish context of use (7) Check usage of target forms (initial assessment)
2	E/I	5	Pictures of celebrities and non-celebrities: Show students some pictures of celebrities. In pairs, they try to describe each person (appearance and personality) in as much detail as possible. The teacher helps students with lexis as necessary.	S-S (pairs) T-Ss (whole/all)	(1) Provide an additional opportunity for assessment (2) Build up target language on the whiteboard (3) Have students practically apply lexical knowledge (4) Appeal to visual learners – create impact and boost student interest by doing so
3	I	5	Do you want to see some pictures?: Students will practice a conversation about an imaginary trip the teacher took with his or her close friends. To do this, the teacher will show the students some pictures of his or her close friends and use the following model dialogue: T: *Do you want to see some pictures of my trip?* Ss: *I'd love to. Who's that?* T: *Which one?* Ss: *The one with the ___hair.* T: *The man/woman wearing the ___? That's my ___.* Ss: *What's your ___ like?* T: *He's/She's really ___.* Ss: *Yeah . . .* (*plus any additional questions Ss may have about the picture)	T-Ss (whole/all)	(1) Learn and repeat question and answer forms to facilitate use of target language in spoken discourse (2) Provide scaffolding via a model dialog (3) Sustain interest and motivation with personal pictures (4) Appeal to visual learners – create impact and sustain interest by doing so
4	I	5	Bank robbers! Information Gap: Students learn/review some basic questions and answers for describing people (e.g. *How old is he? > He's 35 years old, How tall is he? > He's 180 centimeters, What color is his hair? > It's brown,* etc.). Then they will use these questions and answers to do an information gap activity, all in an effort to identify two people who robbed a bank.	T-Ss (whole/all) S-S (pairs)	(1) Do a controlled practice activity (2) Recycle and repeat target lexis (3) Introduce question and answer forms (4) Help develop confidence

Steps	Stages	Time	Procedure	Interaction	Activity purpose
5	I	5	Language check: Students will do a grammar check for asking about and describing people. They have to write the correct word or phrase in the blank (e.g. A: ___ *old is he?*/B: *He's 20*, A: *What is he like?*/B: ___ *very friendly and outgoing*, A: *What* ___ *look like?*/B: *He* ___ *short brown hair*, etc.). Following this, students will do a vocabulary check. They will fill in the blanks with the correct words from a list – *talkative*, *mustache*, *hard-working*, *heavy-set*, *bald*, *funny*, *outgoing*, *young*, *short* (e.g. *She never stops talking. She's* __ __ __ __ __ __ __ __ __.).	S-S (pairs) T-Ss (whole/all)	(1) Review key grammar and lexis (2) Clarify understanding of the target language (3) Appeal to linguistic intelligence and left-brain/analytic thinking
6	I	10	Tell us about your family: Students will make a simple chart and/or draw a picture of their whole family (i.e. make a family tree). Afterward, in groups, students will show their pictures to each other and describe each of their family members in as much detail as possible. Group members are encouraged to ask questions to get details about each person being described. Teacher monitors and ***removes all target language support***. When finished, students look at each other's pictures again and see what they remember by saying one thing about each person.	Ss-Ss (groups)	(1) Get learners to actively use and personalize the target language (2) Provide an opportunity for outcome feedback (3) Assess if students are ready to use the TL fluently
7	F	5	Best friend or partner: In groups, students will describe their best friend or partner in as much detail as possible. ***No TL support.*** Encouraged Ss to show picture sif they have one on their cell phone.	Ss-Ss (groups)	(1) Reinforce usage of the target language (2) Give students further autonomy to use lexis in a personalized way (3) Allow students to demonstrate that they are active in their own learning (4) Assess learning objective
8	F	15	Celebrity matchmaking: ***No TL support.*** As a class, students will brainstorm a list of famous celebrities on the board – an equal number of both men and women. Then, in groups, they have to pair the men and the women together, and clearly state why each of the two celebrities would be a good match by describing their appearance, personality, and life (personal and career) experiences. In the end, all celebrities on the board must be paired up with someone else. Later, as a whole class, students can share their pairings and reasons why.	Ss-Ss (whole/all) Ss-Ss (groups)	(1) Give students a fun task that allows them to demonstrate their mastery of the target language (2) Sustain interest and motivation until the completion of the lesson (3) Provide an opportunity for collaborative learning

PowerPoint & Visual Materials





1
- curly
- short

2
- blue shirt
- green pants

3
- best friend
- girlfriend/boyfriend

4
- outgoing
- smart

★ Do you want to see some pictures of my trip?

● I'd love to. Who's that?

★ Which one?

● The one with the ____1____ hair.

★ The [man / woman] wearing the ____2____?
That's my ____3____.

● What's your ____3____ like?

★ [He's / She's] really ____4____.

● Yeah?

Language Map

How old is he?	He's _____ (29. / 35 years old.)
How tall is he?	He's _____ (174 centimeters tall. / 180 centimeters.)
What color is his hair?	It's _____ (brown. / black.)
What's his hair style like?	It's _____ (short and curly. / long and wavy.)

1 ***Plan ahead.*** Two people robbed a bank. Find the the bank robbers. Read the information about the bank robbers. Think about what they look like.

Excuse me?

Think ahead.

2 Fill in the charts. Ask **B** for the information you need. Start by saying, "Tell me about T. W. Park. How much does he weigh?"

suspect: man	height	weight	hair style	hair color	age
Luis Garcia	174 cm	75 kg	short	brown	29
T.W. Park	182 cm				
Jeff Elliot	185 cm	80 kg	long	black	32
Carl Lake					
Larry Briggs	168 cm	77 kg	short	blond	34

suspect: woman	height	weight	hair style	hair color	age
Sara Sawyer					
Paula Burns	167 cm	65 kg	shoulder length	dark brown	19
Jan Chung					
Lisa Frank	155 cm	67 kg	short, wavy	black	39
Rita Nelson					

Description
Suspect: Man
He is tall.
He has short, brown hair.
He's in his early or mid-30s.

Description
Suspect: Woman
She is in her late 30s or early 40s.
She has short, black hair.
She is rather short and heavy-set.

3 Compare with your partner.
Who are the bank robbers? _____ & _____








Language Check

Grammar check: *Asking about and describing people*

How tall is she? She's 165cm tall.
Does she have long hair? Yes, she does.
Is she in her 20s? No, she's 19.

Write the correct word or phrase in the blank. (7 points)

1. A: ____How____ old is he?
   B: He's 20.
2. A: What is he like?
   B: _____ very friendly and outgoing.
3. A: What _____ look like?
   B: He's tall and good-looking.
4. A: What's his hair like?
   B: He _____ short brown hair.
5. A: Does he wear glasses?
   B: No, he _____.
6. A: What _____ he do?
   B: He's a student.
7. A: What does he like doing in his free time?
   B: _____ playing soccer.
8. A: _____ he weigh?
   B: About 80 kg.

Vocabulary check: *Words to describe people*

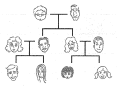
Fill in the blanks with the correct words. (8 points)

~~attractive~~ mustache hard-working heavy-set bald funny outgoing young short

1. She never stops talking. She's T a l k a t i v e.
2. She always works late. She's h _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _.
3. He doesn't have any hair on the top of his head. He's b _ _ _.
4. She's very friendly and enjoys meeting people. She's o _ _ _ _ _ _ _.
5. He's 155 cm tall. He's s _ _ _ _.
6. She's 22 years old. She's y _ _ _ _.
7. He is always telling jokes and making people laugh. He's f _ _ _ _ _.
8. He's 160 cm tall and he weighs 90 kilos. He's h _ _ _ _ _ - s _ _ _.
9. He has hair between his nose and upper lip. He has a m _ _ _ _ _ _.

Your score: _____/15

Try the Language Check online at elt.oup.com



1 ***Plan ahead.*** Make a simple chart or picture of your whole family. You will talk about your family. What will you say? Think of at least 3 sentences about each person.

IDEAS

- name
- what they look like
- interests / free-time activities
- special skills
- interesting experiences
- why they are interesting
- personality

Draw quickly. Five-minute limit.

WORD BOX: personality

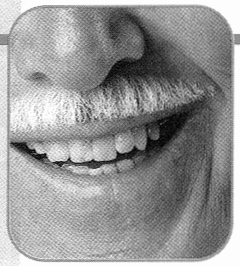
intelligent	*smart*
hard-working	*friendly*
kind	*funny*
outgoing	*quiet*
serious	*crazy*

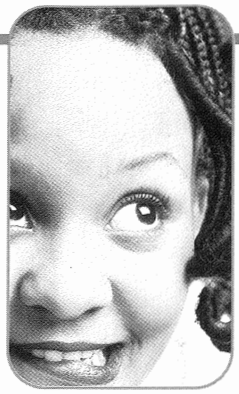
2 Work in groups of 3 or 4. Show your picture. Talk about your family. Partners, ask questions. Take turns.

3 When you finish, look at each picture again. Partners, what do you remember? Say one thing about each person.

Textbook Materials from which the lesson has been adapted.
Helgesen, M., Brown, S. & Wiltshire, J. (2007). English Firsthand 1. New York: Pearson Longman.

unit 2 Who are they talking about?




Listening *Describing people*

Classroom CD1 **tracks 11-15**

Getting ready

These words describe people.
Work with a partner. Sort the words into groups. Write some more.

blond	wavy	glasses
heavy-set	medium height	gray
shoulder length	thin	long
well-built	mustache	beard
short	Asian	stocky
black	middle-aged	young
curly	average build	white
older	about 170 cm	bald
good-looking	African American	slim
	straight	

hair

body type

other

age

Which words describe your partner?
Circle or write at least three.

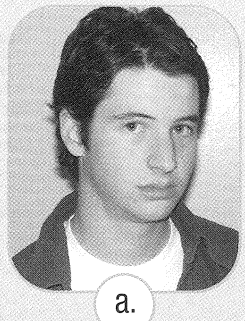
Listening Tasks

First Listening
Listen. Who are they describing?
Circle the pictures.

1.

_____

_____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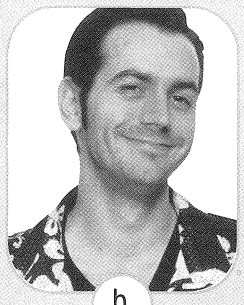
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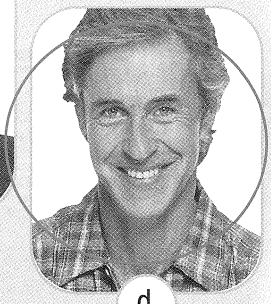
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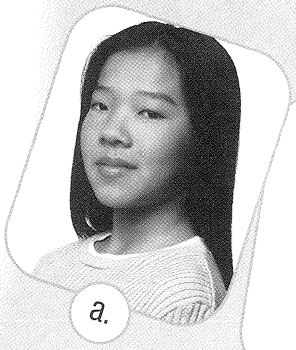
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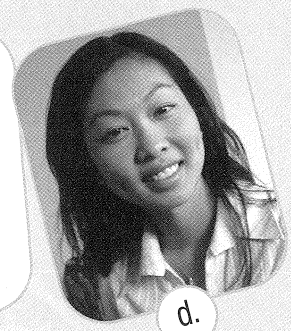
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2.

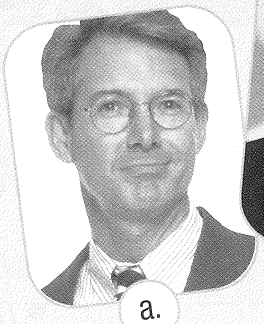
_____

_____

3.

_____

_____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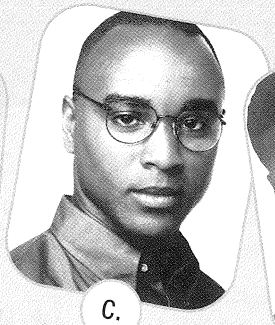

c.


d.

Second Listening
Listen again. How did you know?
Write one or two words.

About You Listen.
Answer the questions about yourself.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Now compare with a partner.
Can you remember the questions?

Conversation *Do you want to see some pictures?*

Listen. Then practice the conversation.

A friend is showing you some pictures.

1
- curly
- short

2
- blue shirt
- green pants

3
- best friend
- girlfriend/boyfriend

4
- outgoing
- smart

★ *Do you want to see some pictures of my trip?*

● *I'd love to. Who's that?*

★ *Which one?*

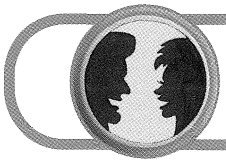
● *The one with the* ___1___ *hair.*

★ *The* [man / woman] *wearing the* ___2___*?*
That's my ___3___.

● *What's your* ___3___ *like?*

★ [He's / She's] *really* ___4___.

● *Yeah?*



Duet A *Bank robbers!*

unit 2

Language Map

How old is he?	*He's _____ (29. / 35 years old.)*
How tall is he?	*He's _____ (174 centimeters tall. / 180 centimeters.)*
What color is his hair?	*It's _____ (brown. / black.)*
What's his hair style like?	*It's _____ (short and curly. / long and wavy.)*

1 ***Plan ahead.*** Two people robbed a bank. Find the the bank robbers. Read the information about the bank robbers. Think about what they look like.

Think ahead.

Excuse me?

2 Fill in the charts. Ask B for the information you need.
Start by saying, "Tell me about T. W. Park. How much does he weigh?"

suspect: man	height	weight	hair style	hair color	age
Luis Garcia	174 cm	75 kg	short	brown	29
T.W. Park	182 cm				
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Carl Lake					
Larry Briggs	168 cm	77 kg	short	blond	34

suspect: woman	height	weight	hair style	hair color	age
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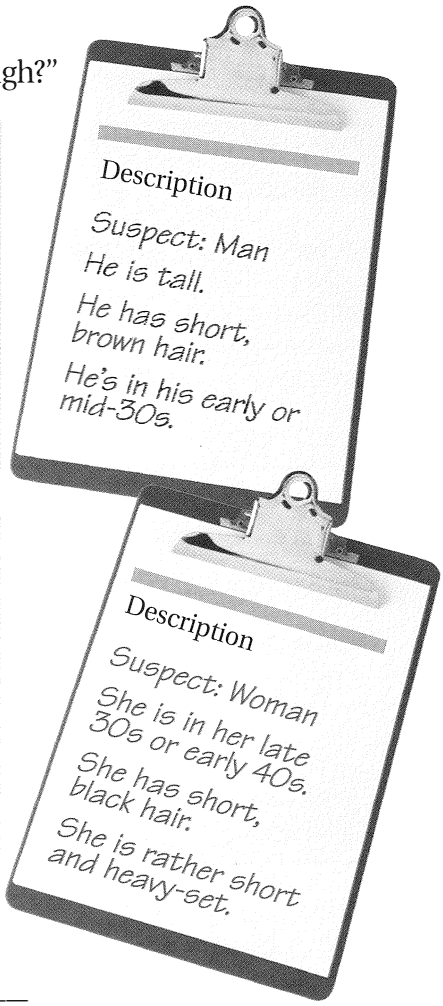
Paula Burns	167 cm	65 kg	shoulder length	dark brown	19
Jan Chung					
Lisa Frank	155 cm	67 kg	short, wavy	black	39
Rita Nelson					



3 Compare with your partner.
Who are the bank robbers? _____&_____

Duet B *Bank robbers!*

Language Map

How old is he?	*He's _____ (29. / 35 years old.)*
How tall is he?	*He's _____ (174 centimeters tall. / 180 centimeters.)*
What color is his hair?	*It's _____ (brown. / black.)*
What's his hair style like?	*It's _____ (short and curly. / long and wavy.)*

1 ***Plan ahead.*** Two people robbed a bank. Find the the bank robbers. Read the information about the bank robbers. Think about what they look like.

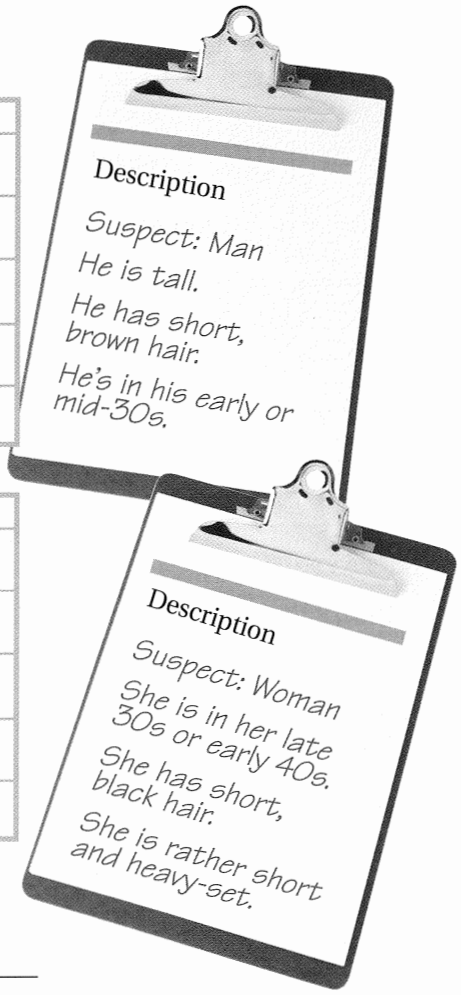
Think ahead.

Excuse me?

2 Fill in the charts.
Ask A for the information you need. A will ask first.

suspect: man	height	weight			age
Luis Garcia	174 cm				
T.W. Park	182 cm	78 kg			36
Jeff Elliot					
Carl Lake	185 cm	73 kg	curly	brown	33
Larry Briggs					

suspect: woman	height	weight	hair style	hair color	age
Sara Sawyer	165 cm	58 kg	short, straight	black	29
Paula Burns					
Jan Chung	170 cm.	63 kg	long, wavy	black	34
Lisa Frank					
Rita Nelson	162 cm	61 kg	short, curly	blond	23



3 Compare with your partner.
Who are the bank robbers? _____&_____

Language Check

Grammar check: *Asking about and describing people*

How tall is she?
She's 165cm tall.

Does she have long hair?
Yes, she does.

Is she in her 20s?
No, she's 19.

Write the correct word or phrase in the blank. (7 points)

1. A: How old is he?
   B: He's 20.
2. A: What is he like?
   B: _____ very friendly and outgoing.
3. A: What _____ look like?
   B: He's tall and good-looking.
4. A: What's his hair like?
   B: He _____ short brown hair.
5. A: Does he wear glasses?
   B: No, he _____.
6. A: What _____ he do?
   B: He's a student.
7. A: What does he like doing in his free time?
   B: _____ playing soccer.
8. A: _____ he weigh?
   B: About 80 kg.

Vocabulary check: *Words to describe people*

Fill in the blanks with the correct words. (8 points)

~~talkative~~ mustache hard-working heavy-set bald funny outgoing young short

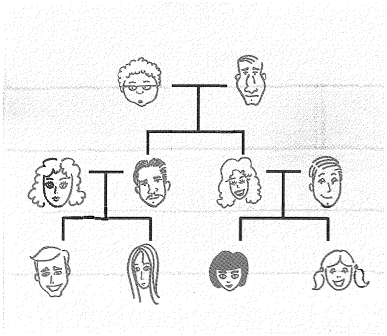
1. She never stops talking. She's t a l k a t i v e.
2. She always works late. She's h _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _.
3. He doesn't have any hair on the top of his head. He's b _ _ _.
4. She's very friendly and enjoys meeting people. She's o _ _ _ _ _ _ _.
5. He's 155 cm tall. He's s _ _ _ _
6. She's 22 years old. She's y _ _ _
7. He is always telling jokes and making people laugh. He's f _ _ _ _.
8. He's 160 cm tall and he weighs 90 kilos. He's h _ _ _ _ s _ _.
9. He has hair between his nose and upper lip. He has a m _ _ _ _ _ _ _.

Your score: _____/15

Ensemble *Tell us about your family.*

Pronunciation Listen. Repeat silently. Then repeat out loud.

*Who's **this**?*	*It's*	*my older **sis**ter.*	
***What** does she **like** to **do**?*	*She **likes***	*riding her **mo**torcycle.*	
***What's** she **like**?*	*She **talks***	*a lot.*	*She's very out**go**ing.*



1 ***Plan ahead.*** Make a simple chart or picture of your whole family. You will talk about your family. What will you say? Think of at least 3 sentences about each person.

IDEAS

- name
- what they look like
- interests / free-time activities
- special skills
- interesting experiences
- why they are interesting
- personality

Draw quickly. Five-minute limit.

WORD BOX: personality

intelligent	*smart*
hard-working	*friendly*
kind	*funny*
outgoing	*quiet*
serious	*crazy*

2 Work in groups of 3 or 4. Show your picture. Talk about your family. Partners, ask questions. Take turns.

3 When you finish, look at each picture again. Partners, what do you remember? Say one thing about each person.

GRAMMAR LESSON — PRESENT PERFECT

Time: 60 minutes Level: intermediate Age: High School and Adult

1. What are you teaching? *(You don't need to teach all in one lesson)*
Linguistic items-past tense vs. present perfect
Language skills- **speaking** & **grammar (**some listening, writing, reading**)**

2. What do you want the Ss to be able to do with the new material that they couldn't do before the lesson? (Learning objective) By the end of the lesson, SWBAT:
Use present perfect and simple past to ask questions and make statements about their past experiences e.g. (***A: Have you ever _____ ? B: Yes, I have. // No, I haven't A: What/When/Who did you _____? B: I _____)*** by doing "*The Travel Reporter*" interview activity.

FORM: subject + have + past participle, commonly contracted
MEANING: past is for specific time and present perfect is for unspecified time
USE: Pres perf is frequently used with ever in Qs and never in answers and past is used with specific times

3. How will I know when and if the Ss have learned the material (have achieved the learning objective)? Ss will write the rules for the differences between the present perfect and past and then use the correct form in a game of "Talkopoly" and then in the survey

Preliminary considerations:
a. What do your students already know in relation to today's lesson?
The vocabulary used in the activities and the forms of both verb tenses

b. What aspects of the lesson do you anticipate your students might find challenging/difficult?
Coming up with the rule instead of being given the rule & when to use the two different verb tenses in the different situations

c. How will you avoid and/or address these problem areas in your lesson?
giving lots of opportunities to discover the rules through inductive-based activities/examples, working in pairs so Ss can learn from each other and writing the rule on the board once they create it and encouraging Ss to rephrase/write

Steps	Stages	Time	Procedure	Interaction	Activity purpose
1.		3	*Greets Ss and establish context of use by showing some pictures, such as a beach, Paris, Harry Potter and a poster from a recent movie. *Ask Ss: Have you ever….? If Ss answer yes, as Qs like: What did you do there? Who did you go with?		1. Activate Schema, 2. Establish context of use, 3. Check meaning of target forms, 4. Build rapport, 5. Generate interest 6. Listening before speaking
2.		5	*Warm-up competition: Card Attack; each team gets a pile of verbs in base form and they need to write the simple past and past participle on the chart.		1. Initial assessment 2. Checking to see if Ss are ready to acquire the TL being taught 3. Competition for motivation 4. Learning styles T&K 5. Form check .6 Group work puts Ss at ease 7. Opportunities for peer learning and teaching
3.		3	*Human sentences: Pass out cards to individuals and have them make a line at the front of class. *Ask their classmates to help them get into the correct order		1. Learning styles VKT 2. Models upcoming task 3. Form check 4. Safe and comfortable environment to put Ss at ease 5. permits silent period
4.		8	*Scrambled sentences (each group gets a bag of scrambled sentences): *Ss figure out and write rule for statements "subject + have/has + (never) + past participle" *Ss figure out and write rule for question (stations) "have/has + subject + (ever)+ past participle"		1. Guided discover activity 2. Materials facilitate learner investment and discovery 3. Opportunities for peer learning 4. Learners' attn is drawn to significant features of TL 5. Permits silent period
5		8	* Ss do the Find Someone Who activity forming Qs and As following rule to show ability to use Present Perfect. *S create their own statement and question and answer—demonstrate understanding of rules		1. Less controlled practice 2. Personalization of the TL 3. Learning styles: K 4. Practice will help Ss develop confidence 5. Communicative purpose
6.		5	*Ss do handout where they compare past and present perfect—Ss are asked what words go along with past (time markers). *Ss make and write a rule about the difference in meaning & use between the two tenses *Ss share with a partner on why they chose that tense		1. Guided discover activity 2. Materials facilitate learner investment and discovery 3. Opportunities for peer learning 4. Learners' attn is drawn to significant features of TL 5. Permits silent period
7.		8	Ss play "Talkopoly" in which they use both rules with some support language/and rule posted on WB		1. Controlled practice activity 2. Ss affective attitudes are accounted for with a variety of materials and activities 3. Learning styles accommodated: VKT
8.		12-15	*Remove TL support (have Ss turn over worksheets, etc.) *Put Ss into two groups (A and B) *Ss write on a slip of paper a country they have been to. *T mixes together group A countries in one hat and group B countries in another hat *Group B draws slips of papers of group A *T tells Group B they are travel reporters trying to research a country. They are to find the person who has been to this country and ask him/her some questions to find out what their "source" did in that country. ** **This must be done in two groups**: B reporters & A country experts // A: reporters & B: Country experts ****T should explain that they should say "yes" only if they wrote that country/place name on the slip of paper.**		1. Communicative purpose 2. Opportunity for outcome feedback 3. Success = confidence
		52-55	**minutes**		

	Card Attack  • Get into three groups • Each group will get a set of cards • You will only have 5 minutes • Write as many words as you can – EX: hop – hopped – hopped • You'll get 1 point for correct word, and bonuses for level each level. • Be careful – Mistakes will cost you a ship	

Additional Materials

- Laminated Human Sentence Cards- one statement and one question

Card Attack

Directions: Take turns flipping over a card and filling out the chart. The more boxes on the chart you complete, the more points you will earn. The team with the most points wins.

+5

+10

+15

+20

COME	WALK	GO
BE	HAVE	DO
DRINK	EAT	READ
WRITE	TEACH	PLAY
SING	RIDE	DRIVE
MAKE	DANCE	LEARN
JUMP	STUDY	SEE

WATCH	LIVE	RUN
TAKE	BUILD	PUT
HIT	SPEAK	KNOW
WIN	PAY	CATCH
STEAL	THROW	FLY

<u>have</u> you ever <u>visited</u> Australia ?

has he ever played ice hockey ?

have they ever gone fishing ?

have you ever eaten kimchi ?

has she ever been to Canada ?

I have been to Thailand .

She has eaten kimchi many

times .

They <u>have</u> <u>lived</u> in Australia .

He <u>has</u> <u>studied</u> English for five years .

I <u>have</u> <u>been</u> in Korea for three months .

Guiding Questions

1) In each sentence, which words are underlined?

2) What patterns do you see with the underlined words?

_____ + _____

3) Write a sentence using **they** + **have** + **eat lunch** using this pattern:

4) Can you make a rule for how to form a statement in this verb tense? What is it?

5) Look at the questions. How are they formed?

6) Can you make a rule for how to form a question using this verb tense? What is it?

7) Do you know the name of this verb tense?

Find Someone Who… Interview Game!

Instructions:

1.) Please write out ***SIX*** sentences about six different experiences you have had in the past in the chart below using the ***present perfect tense***.
2.) Interview your friends to find out if they have had the same experience by asking them questions using the ***present perfect tense***.
3.) You can only ask each person you speak with ***ONE*** question.
4.) If your friend has had that experience, you can write their name in the chart.

Your past experience:	Your friend:

PRESENT PERFECT OR SIMPLE PAST

Present Perfect	Simple Past
Have you ever eaten sushi?	Did you eat sushi **last week**?
Carol and Jo have seen "Lord of the Rings."	Carol and Jo saw "Lord of the Rings" **last year**.
Has Larry ever been to Canada?	Did Larry go to Canada **in 1984**?
David has been to the Double Decker Pub.	David went to the Double Decker Pub **last night**.
Kelly and I have lived in Australia.	Kelly and I lived in Australia **in 1997**.
I have studied Spanish.	I studied Spanish **nine years ago**.

Guiding Questions:

1) When do the present perfect sentences happen? (past, present, future)

2) When do the past tense sentences happen? (past, present, future)

3) In the simple past tense sentences, what types of words are in **bold**?

4) Can we make a rule about when we use **present perfect tense** and when we use **simple past tense**?

TALKOPOLY!
START HERE!!
FINISH!!
Have you ever been to Europe?
Make a Sentence about Someone in Your group using present perfect or past
Tell your group Something new about Yourself using past or present perfect
Ask someone in your group any "Have you ever...?" or "Did you...?" question. Make sure they answer you!
Have you ever gone scuba diving?
Make a sentence about ___ using present perfect or past
Tell your group Something new about Yourself using present perfect or past
Have you ever slept in a hammock?
Make me Guess a place that two people in your group using present or past perfect
Ask someone in your group any "Have you ever...?" or "Did you...?" question. Make sure they answer you!
She has been...
No, I haven't.
We have gone...
I have Seen...
Yes, I have.
Have you ever...?

LISTENING SAMPLE LESSON - PARK LESSON

Name_____ Date_____

1. What are you teaching?

Key words: **pigeon, paper bag, entrance, statue, hoop**
Language point needed for Ss to demonstrate SLO: Present Continuous
Language skills: Listening
Culture: N/A

2. What are your student learning objectives for the lesson?

3. When/how in the lesson will I check students' progress toward the above student learning objective?

When Ss point to and circle the appropriate park-related items while listening to the text; when they identify where misinformation is given about the original story by raising their hands; when Ss describe the park picture to their partners using the new vocabulary and present continuous, and then when they are able to describe a different park picture and their own park picture using the key vocabulary and present continuous.

Preliminary considerations:

a. What do your students already know in relation to today's lesson?

Ss already know some park-related vocabulary, basic sentence formation, and the present continuous tense.

b. What aspects of the lesson do you anticipate your students might find challenging/difficult?

Understanding the Qs that I ask and want them to ask each other and pronunciation of some new vocabulary words such as "pigeon" and "statue".

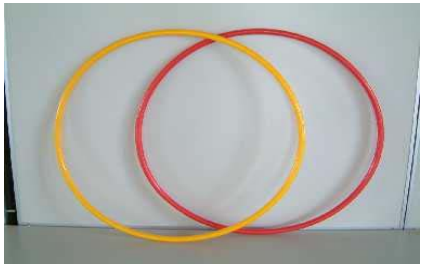
c. How will you avoid and/or address these problem areas in your lesson?

Write Qs on the board.
Have choral repetition of words.

Time	Framework P D P	Procedure/Steps	Interaction (S-T, T-S)	Activity Purpose
5		1. Introduce the topic "park". T shows Ss a picture of a park and writes the word "park" on the board. T asks Ss, "What can you do in a park?" Ss share in pairs. T. elicits from group.	 T-Ss T-Ss S-S Ss-T	1. To activate schema and students' prior knowledge in order to prepare them for the new information
5		2. Show picture of a park and elicit park objects they know using the language: T. "What's this?" Ss: "A bench." T writes the words on the board.	T-Ss Ss-T	2. To elicit Ss' prior knowledge Ss are treated as knowers Ss learn from one another
3		3. For park objects that Ss do not know, T elicits from other Ss or gives new vocabulary words: **pigeon, paper bag, entrance, statue, hoop**	T-Ss Ss-T	3. To ensure that Ss have the necessary vocabulary to succeed at the listening task.
3		4. Listening Task #1: Ss circle all the items they hear as T reads the text. Ss check with partner using the language S1: "What did you circle?" S2: "I circled statue, bag, and pigeon. How about you?"	 S S-S	4. Ss are given an easy listening activity; it's safe and manageable; uses of VAT
5		5. Listening Task #2: Ss listen to false text read by T. Ss raise their hands and say "Stop." when they hear false information. T. elicits correct information.	 Ss-T	5. Ss are given a more specific task. Ss check answers to make safe environment. Use of VAKT
3		6. Listening & Reading Task #3: Cloze sheet: T puts up a poster of words that go in the blanks. Ss work in pairs to fill in the blanks. Ss listen and check in pairs afterwards.	 S-S	6. Integrating reading and listening skills. On-going assessment of key vocab.
5		7. Ss review the form of the present continuous and then describe the park story to a partner using the new vocabulary. S: "Two women are sitting on a bench; one man is holding a paper bag, etc."	 T-S S-S	7. Ss build on language they already learned in previous lessons; SLO can be observed.
8		8. Listening & Speaking Task #4: Ss listen to original text and look at new picture. T asks Ss to check the differences. Ss compare differences. Ss ask each other: "What did you circle that was different?" "I circled ___; what about you?" T elicits.	 S-S	8.Ss use vocab. & grammar in new context. Supports post activity
13 50 min.		9. Working in pairs, students draw a picture of their favorite park and describe it to their partners.	 S-S	9. Adds a creative element and personalization; Ss use and expand on what was learned.

PowerPoint

Listening Lesson – "THE PARK" • ***Beginner Level Ss → Elementary to Middle School*** • ***What do Ss already know?*** • Ss already know some park-related vocabulary, basic sentence formation and present continuous tense.	A park 	A: What can you do in a park? B: I can <u>walk</u> in a park.
A: What can you do in a park? B: I can ____ in a park. What can you do in a park? A: I can ____ in a park. What can…?	What do you see? 	A pigeon 
Pigeons in a park 	Which one is a pigeon? 1 2  	Statue of Liberty 

1  2 	A hoop and a stick 	Hoops or Sticks? 
A hoop or a stick? 	A paper bag 	Yes or No? 
Yes or No? 	1 2  	Entrance 

An entrance?

Circle what you hear

A: What did you circle?

B: I circled _____. What about you?

A: I circled……

B:

Listen for What's Wrong

Word List

- Hoop
- Horse
- Two
- Park
- Sitting
- Pigeon
- Man
- Looking
- Nearby
- Paper
- Pigeons
- Bird
- Eating
- Playing

Answers

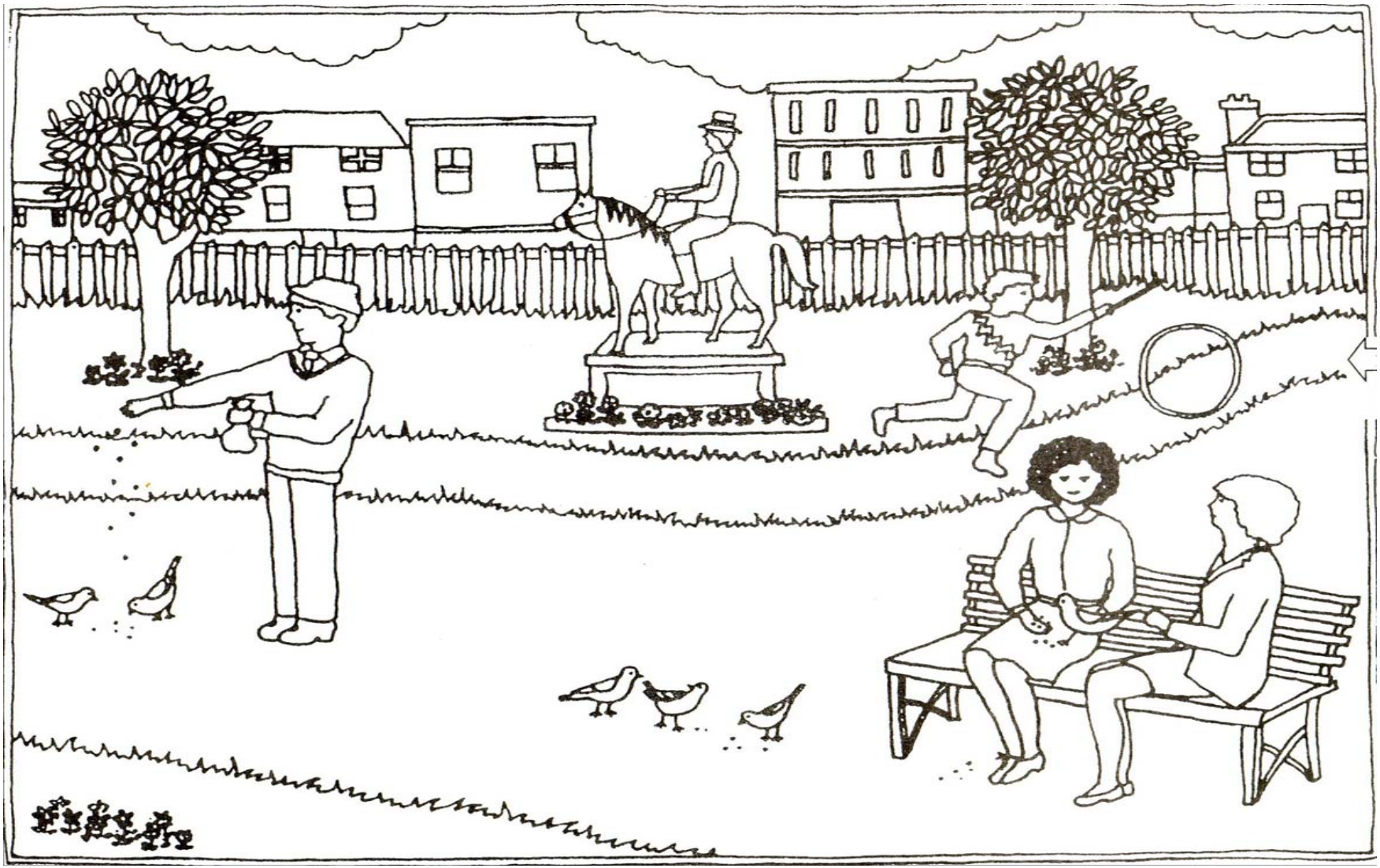
- Park
- Sitting
- Pigeon
- Looking
- Nearby
- Paper
- Pigeons
- Bird
- Eating
- Playing
- Hoop
- Man
- Horse
- Two

Review

I
You
He
She
It
We
They

Describe What You See

	A: What did you circle? B: I circled _____. What about you? A: I circled…… B:	Draw Your Favorite Park • Do you have a favorite park? • I do: 
Tell Your partner about your park		



Park Sample Lesson – False Reading

You can see the picture of a **zoo** in this town. You can see that it's in a town because there are some houses behind the park. Two women are **standing** on a bench; one of them has black hair, and she's giving some food to the **dog**-the other woman is just **yelling** at it. Three more pigeons are on the ground **far away**. Then there's a man with a **plastic** bag in one hand; I think he's got **dog** food in it because he's throwing food to the **ducks** and they're **drinking** it. On the path there's a boy **dancing** with a **girl** and running towards the entrance of the park. Behind the path you can see the statue of a **horse** sitting on **a man** with a tall hat and there are some flowers growing around. There are **three** trees in the picture, one on either side of the statue.

Park Sample Lesson – Cloze Activity

You can see the picture of a _____ in this town. You can see that it's in a town because there are some houses behind the park. Two women are _____ on a bench; one of them has black hair, and she's giving some food to the _____-the other woman is just _____ at it. Three more pigeons are on the ground _____. Then there's a man with a _____ bag in one hand; I think he's got _____food in it because he's throwing food to the _____and they're _____ it. On the path there's a boy _____with a _____and running towards the entrance of the park. Behind the path you can see the statue of a _____with a tall hat sitting on a _____and there are some flowers growing around. There are _____trees in the picture, one on either side of the statue.

Sample Park Lesson – Listening Text

You can see the picture of a **park** in this town. You can see that it's in a town because there are some houses behind the park. Two women are **sitting** on a bench; one of them has black hair, and she's giving some food to the **pigeon**-the other woman is just **looking** at it. Three more pigeons are on the ground **nearby**. Then there's a man with a **paper** bag in one hand; I think he's got **bird** food in it because he's throwing food to the **pigeons** and they're **eating** it. On the path there's a boy **playing** with a **hoop** and running towards the entrance of the park. Behind the path you can see the statue of a **man** with a tall hat sitting on a **horse** and there are some flowers growing around. There are **two** trees in the picture, one on either side of the statue.

Draw your favorite park.

Lesson Plan Template

Name	Holidays in the Fall	Time
강재승	Doosan Middle School 2 pp. 189-192 (2006)	50 minutes

Level/Age
High Beginner (reluctant readers) / Second year MS students (포천시)

Language focus

Target language: ghost, throw, trick or treat, trouble, celebrate, harvest, pray, temple, growth, traditional

Specific language skill focus: reading

Culture: **N/A** - Although this lesson is about holidays, it is not the kind of culture language Ts should be concerned with. We should be concerned with how culture affects language use; that is, the invisible aspect of culture such as beliefs, values and expectations. "Holidays," in this lesson, is the content, topic or theme; that is, culture is an interesting topic through which Ss can learn other aspects of English such as vocabulary and grammar, but the topic "Holiday" doesn't affect how English is used.

Student learning objective and assessment activity

By the end of the lesson, SWBAT...

Optional Post Activity SLO *<If time permits>* SWBAT talk about a Korean holiday by telling a classmate/explaining to the teacher important information about that holiday

Ongoing assessment

T will elicit, teach and check keywords in the pre. and Ss will do a follow-up vocab activity, General understanding will be assessed though a matching activity, more detailed understanding and their predictions will be checked by identify which countries have each holidy

Students' background knowledge and abilities in relation to the topic of the lesson

Some students might have some background knowledge about Halloween and words like ghost, pumpkin, etc.. Ss should know simple actions words like come, go, throw, get, take, wear, etc… Also Ss should be familiar with the name of countries such as Japan, Spain, etc…

Challenges and solutions

Challenges: Ss are reluctant readers, so they have probably experienced past failure when reading and are not motivated to read texts in English

Solutions: Adapt the tasks; not the text; try to give Ss easier reading activities to boost confidence; add competition to increase interest and motivation

Note on Materials

See lecture notes online for the PPT materials for this lesson and how I adapted this lesson for high intermediate and advanced learners at 대화 Middle School in 일산.

Steps	Stages	Time	Procedure	Interaction	Activity purpose
1		3	Ss look at the pictures on PPT and T elicits Halloween vocabulary from Ss. T shows additional pictures of other holidays and elicits the word “holiday” by asking Ss “What are these?”	S-T/T-S T-S/S-T	Ss schema is activated. Interest is generated. Pictures are helpful for visual and low level learners (use direct method). Ss are set up for successful reading by being introduced to the topic (holidays).
2		6	T pre-teaches vocabulary using pictures on PPT T goes over the FMU of the necessary vocabulary to understand the reading by providing the new words in context. T asks Ss simple CCQs to check their understanding of the new words (ex: Where do we usually pray? Is a ghost scary or funny? etc) **Optional Follow-up Activity:** For lower level Ss or groups of Ss who do not participate actively in the T-lead vocab presentation, T provides a handout and Ss do a matching or gap fill to clearly show they know and understand the keywords.	T-Ss/Ss-T S Ss-Ss Ss-t	Vocabulary is pre-taught to set Ss up for successful reading. Pictures are helpful for visual and low level learners (use direct method). Ss guess the meaning through context so that Ss are active in the learning process. To make sure Ss understand the meaning of the new words before reading.
3		2	T shows the pictures from the textbook and asks Ss “Which countries have these holidays?” Ss tell their predictions to each other. T elicits and writes on the WB .	T-Ss Ss-Ss Ss-T	To generate Ss interest. Prediction is used as a reading strategy.
4		4	T gives Ss handouts that have only the text of each holiday with the title and picture missing for pages 182-184. T shows Ss the three titles and three pictures from the textbook on PPT. (T gives directions about task before handing out the pictures, title, scissors and glue) Ss pick out an appropriate title and picture for each story. Ss glue title and picture next to the appropriate text. Ss check their answers with their partners and then with the whole class.	T-Ss S S-S Ss-T	Ss are given with a reason to read. Ss are given a general and easy reading task. Pictures are helpful for visual and low level learners. Ss have a chance to build on their reading techniques (skimming). Ss are provided with a safe environment to check their answers

Steps	Stages	Time	Procedure	Interaction	Activity purpose
5		5	T shows the Qs on the PPT and tells Ss that they will read the text again and to find the answers for the questions. Ss read the text and answer the Qs. Ss check their answer with their partner. T asks Ss the answers to the Qs and shows them on the PPT. Ss and T look at Ss predictions made in the pre-stage and confirm their guesses	T-Ss S Ss-Ss T-Ss/Ss-T	Ss are given a reason to read with a task that is more specific. Ss are given another chance to interact with the text. Ss are provided with an activity that requires additional reading and prepares then for more difficult assessment Qs. Ss are provided with a safe environment to check their answers. Ss are provided with a visual of the answers (helps visual and low level learners).
6		15	T gives Ss a handout with detailed comprehension Qs. T tells Ss that they will play a game (Typhoon game) and the game is based on these Qs. Ss have a chance to answer the Qs together in groups (7-8min) by reading the text again and finding the answers. Ss play the Typhoon game. (*Note: To ensure that all Ss participate in the game, T will make a rule that each S in each team can only answer ONE time, but they can help each other in their teams.)	T-Ss S Ss-Ss T-Ss/Ss-T	Ss are provided with a reason to read with a more specific and difficult task. Ss can learn from each other (collaborative learning). Ss show their comprehension of the text. Games are fun and can provide motivation for Ss. T can assess Ss achievement of the SLO.
7		10	T asks Ss what their favorite Korean holiday/festival are. T elicits important information and details about each holiday on the WB as support language Option 1: Lower level Ss could make a poster to help in their explanation of key information about the holiday. They discuss in small groups what to put in the poster and why it is important for that holiday Option 2: Higher level Ss work in small groups and create an outline that they can use to explain the important information about their holiday	T-Ss/Ss-T Ss-Ss	Ss have a chance to personalize what they learned Ss apply topic (holidays) to their own local context Other skills are integrated (speaking).

Which title and which picture?

The Tomato War Festival in Spain

Ghosts on Halloween

Shichi-go-san Day

Holidays in the Fall

Title?

If you are interested in ghost stories, you may want to hear about Halloween. On Halloween, which is October 31, American children dress up as ghosts and monsters. In the early evening, they go from house door to door to collect candy.

When you open the door, the children shout, “Trick or treat!” Then you put a treat into each child’s bag. Later, the children go to Halloween parties or get together to tell scary stories.

Some people believe that ghosts and monsters come out on Halloween. So children dress up as ghosts or monsters to deceive the real ghosts and monsters.

Picture?

Title?

What will happen if you throw tomatoes at others? Of course, you will be in trouble. In Spain, however, you can throw tomatoes at others during the Tomato War Festival, La Tomatina. Why? Well, just for the fun! It is part of a week-long festival with music, fireworks and food.

The Spanish people have celebrated this Tomato War Festival since 1944. It began when people celebrated a good harvest of tomatoes. They were so pleased that they began to throw tomatoes at one another. Today, a large number of people from all over the world come to the festival to enjoy this friendly war.

Picture?

Title?

Shichi-go-san Day, which is November 15, is a big holiday in Japan. Parents pray for the healthy growth of their young children. Shichi-go-san means seven, five, and three. Boys go to Jinja with their parents when they are three and five. Girls visit Jinja when they become three and seven. Children used to wear traditional Japanese clothes on this day, but these days, some of them wear western dresses and suits.

Picture?

Directions: Read the story **"Holidays in the Fall"** and answer the following questions with your group members.

- **When** is Halloween?

- **What** do children say to get candy on Halloween?

- **What** do children dress up as on Halloween?

- **When** did the Tomato War Festival start?

- **Who** celebrates the Tomato War Festival?

- **What** do people do on the Tomato War Festival?

- **When** is Shichi-go-san Day?

- **Where** do children go on Shichi-go-san Day?

- **When (age)** do girls go to Jinja for Shichi-go-san Day?

Sample Listening Lesson – "Korean Food"

Teaching time: 50 minutes **Target students:**_____

1.) What is being taught?

- **Language points – squid, octopus, beef, pork, blood sausage, blood soup, silk worm larvae, miso soup, grilled meat, marinated, buckwheat noodles, spicy, chewy, tasty, texture, vampire, bugs**

key words Ss already know	key words Ss don't know	other difficult words

- **Language skills –** listening, reading, writing and speaking
- **Skill focus** - listening
- **Cultural Aspects** – Korean food and the idea that in English we often borrow words from foreign languages to describe food: For example kimchi is kimchi in English, dim sum is dim sum in English.

2.) Student Learning Objectives (SLO):
By the end of the lesson, SWBAT comprehend the listening text by explaining the different foods that Jenny likes and dislikes in their own words and making a dinner menu for her visit.

3.) When/How in the lesson will I check students' progress toward the above SLOs? What behaviors/activities will show me whether they have mastered the material? When Ss are able to explain the different foods that Jenny likes and dislikes in their own words.

4.) Preliminary considerations:
What do your students already know in relation so today's lesson?
Students already know tastes, textures and comparatives. They also know the names of the Korean foods in Korean.
What aspects of the lesson do you anticipate your students might find challenging/difficult?
Students may not know the names of the different Korean foods in English.
Some lower level Ss may have difficulty understanding the whole text.

How will these obstacles be addressed in the lesson?

T will show pictures of the food with the name in English and check Ss understanding by asking CCQs and showing the pictures again and asking Ss for the English word.

T will provide Ss with many chances to listen to the text and stage the activity tasks from easy and general to difficult and specific so that Ss can build on their understanding of the text.

Step	Framework (PDP)	Procedure/Steps	Interaction	Activity Purpose/Reason
1	**PRE**	T hangs pictures of different kinds of Korean food on walls around classroom T asks Ss "*What kinds of Korean food do you like?*" Ss share in pairs T elicits from the group and writes answers on the board	T-S/S-T	Ss schema is activated. Interest is generated. Pictures are helpful for visual and low level learners. Ss are set up for successful litening by being introduced to the topic
2	**PRE**	Pass out a laminated menu to each group: "***New York' World Famous Korean Restaurant" since 1997 by Jae Seung Kang*** On the menu are pictures of Korean food and the English names of the food. Ss work in groups to provide the Korean names for each of the food. (If Ss struggle provide a list of the Korean names of the items on the menu, but Ss usually don't need support for this task)	T-S S-S	To elicit Ss' prior knowledge. Ss are treated as knowers. Ss learn from one another.
3	**PRE**	T asks Ss the names of the different foods in English. For words Ss don't know, T gives the new vocabulary: **squid, octopus, beef, pork, blood sausage, blood soup, silk worm larvae, miso soup, grilled meat, marinated, buckwheat noodles** T elicits the different tastes and textures of food from Ss. For tastes that Ss don't know, T elicits from other Ss or gives new vocabulary or gives new vocabulary words: **spicy, chewy, tasty** T goes over other keywords with pictures on PPT: e.g. **texture**	T-S/S-T T-S/S-T T-S/S-T	Vocabulary is pre-taught to set Ss up for successful listening. Pictures are helpful for visual and low level learners.
5	**PRE**	**Optional:** for larger classes some kind of vocabulary assessment activity might be appropriate such as matching or fill in the blank	T-S/S-T	To make sure Ss understand the meaning of the new words before

				listening.
6	**DURING**	6.) **Listening task #1:** Task is given on PPT or WB Ss read Q together: **"What is it about?"** Ss listen Ss check answer with partner T elicits answers from whole class	T/S S-S T-S/S-T	Ss are given a ***reason*** to listen with a general and easy task.
7	**DURING**	7.) **Listening task #2:** T gives Ss handout with pictures of different kinds of food. Ss circle all the items they hear as T reads the text. Ss check with a partner using the language: (T provides this support language visually) S1: *What did you circle?* S2: *I circled _____.What did you circle* *S1: I circled….*	T/S T-S S-S	Ss are given an easy listening task that is safe and manageable. Use of VAK. Ss are provided with a safe environment to check their answers.
8	**DURING**	8.) **Listening task #3**: Ss listen to the false text read by T. Ss raise their hands when they hear false information. T elicits the correct information from Ss.	T-S/S-T	Ss are given a more specific listening task that allows them to show comprehension of the text. Use of VAKT.
8	**DURING**	9.) **Listening task #4:** T tells Ss that they will have Jenny over for dinner and they have to tell their mother what kind of food Jenny likes and dislikes so their mother can make a meal that Jenny will enjoy. Ss listen again and write a list of what Jenny likes and dislikes (T can give Ss a handout with a chart of "Likes" and "Dislikes") Ss compare their charts with their partner when they are finished. ***Note:** If this activity is too difficult, T can provide a handout with the foods listed and Ss have to put the foods in the correct columns.*	T-S T/S S-S	Ss are given a more specific listening task that allows them to show comprehension of the text. Ss are provided with a safe environment to check their answers.
10	**DURING**	10.) **Retelling and making dinner menus:** T tells Ss that they will listen to the text one more time and after they listen, they pretend that their partner is their mother and that they must explain ***what Jenny likes and dislikes and why*** in their own words (they can use the chart to help them) so that their mother can make the dinner.	S-S	To check Ss mastery of the SLO. Integrating other skills (speaking and writing). To add a creative element.

		Ss work with their partners to come up with two possible dinner menus for Jenny's visit.		
11	**POST**	11.) **Optional activity (if time permits):** Students draw a picture of their three favorite Korean dishes and compare their pictures with a partner. Ss tell their partners why they like they like the foods they chose.	S-S	To add a creative element and personalization. Ss expand on what they learned.

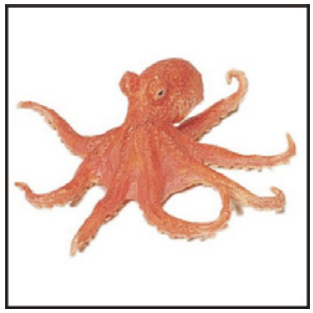
Currently there are no PowerPoint materials available for this lesson. What supplementary materials would you need to select, adapt and supplement, if you wanted to teach this lesson? Also the menu idea is new. What would it look like? What menus do you know have pictures and descriptions together? Have you every seen a menu with food descriptions in more than one language? Where have you seen it? How does this activity help to make the TL more relevant? How can it help connect the topic/theme to the Ss lives?

Jae Seung Kang's
World Famous Korean Restaurant
New York, New York since 1997

Menu

Picture	English	Korean
	Silk worm larvae	
	Blood sausage	
	Blood soup	
buckwheat noodles 	Buckwheat noodles	
	Grilled meat	
	Miso soup	

Circle the foods that you hear



Write down the foods that Jenny likes and dislikes in the table

Likes	Dislikes

miso soup
squid
buckwheat noodles
octopus
blood soup
silk worm larvae
galbi
marinated beef
blood sausage
bulgogi

Dinner Menu

Instructions: *With your partner, create two possible dinner menus for Jenny's visit. Please write the name of the Korean dishes you will serve and draw a picture for each.*

Menu 1

Menu 2

Listening Text for Sample Lesson

Paul: Jenny, what's your favorite Korean food?

Jenny: I like galbi and bulgogi.

Paul: Which one is tastier?

Jenny: They are both tasty, but I think galbi is tastier than bulgogi.

Paul: I think so, too. Are there any Korean foods you don't like?

Jenny: Yes, Paul, there are five kinds of Korean food that I don't like. For example I don't like anything with squid or octopus. I don't like the texture of the meat. I think they are chewier than beef and pork. I also don't like blood sausage and blood soup. I am not a vampire. I don't need to drink the blood of others. Finally, I don't like to eat silk worm larvae. I will leave the eating of bugs to the birds. Besides these five foods I really enjoy eating Korean food. I like Korean miso soup. It is tastier than Japanese miso soup. I also really enjoy Korean grilled meats; especially the marinated beef and pork. Marinated meat is more delicious than meat that is not marinated. Finally, in the summertime I enjoy slurping down cold buckwheat noodles. I like cold noodles better than hot noodles in the summertime.

Paul: Jenny, you've made me hungry. Let's get something to eat!

False Listening Text for Sample Lesson

Paul: Jenny, what's your favorite Korean food?

Jenny: I like galbi and **bibimbab**.

Paul: Which one is tastier?

Jenny: They are both tasty, but I think galbi is tastier than bulgogi.

Paul: I think so, too. Are there any Korean foods you don't like?

Jenny: Yes, there are five kinds of Korean food that I don't like. For example I don't like anything with squid or **fish**. I don't like the **smell** of the meat. I think they are chewier than beef and pork. I also don't like blood **noodles** and blood soup. I am not a vampire. I don't need to drink the blood of others. Finally, I don't like to eat silk worm larvae. I will leave the eating of bugs to the birds. Besides these five foods I really enjoy eating **Japanese** food. I like Korean miso soup. It is tastier than Japanese miso soup. I also really enjoy Korean grilled **fruits**; especially the marinated beef and pork. Marinated meat is more delicious than meat that is not marinated. Finally, in the **wintertime** I enjoy slurping down cold **spaghetti** noodles. I like cold noodles better than hot **tea** in the summertime.

Paul: Jenny, you've made me hungry. Let's get something to eat!

Section 4

Readings with Guiding Questions

Harmer's Describing Learners

(Please answer in **full sentences** and **in your own words**)

1) How do learners differ? (Find at least 6 important differences)

2) Which learning style(s) do you think you are? Why?

3) What are some things that teachers can do to help motivate their students?

Describing learners

A Age

The age of our students is a major factor in our decisions about how and what to teach. People of different ages have different needs, competences and cognitive skills; we might expect children of primary age to acquire much of a foreign language through play, for example, whereas for adults we can reasonably expect a greater use of abstract thought.

One of the most common beliefs about age and language learning is that young children learn faster and more effectively than any other age group. Most people can think of examples which appear to bear this out – as when children move to a new country and appear to pick up a new language with remarkable ease. However, as we shall see, this is not always true of children in that situation, and the story of child language facility may be something of a myth.

It is certainly true that children who learn a new language early have a facility with the pronunciation which is sometimes denied older learners. Lynne Cameron suggests that children 'reproduce the accent of their teachers with deadly accuracy' (2003: 111). Carol Read recounts how she hears a young student of hers saying *Listen. Quiet now. Attention, please!* in such a perfect imitation of the teacher that 'the thought of parody passes through my head' (2003: 7).

Apart from pronunciation ability, however, it appears that older children (that is children from about the age of 12) 'seem to be far better learners than younger ones in most aspects of acquisition, pronunciation excluded' (Yu, 2006: 53). Patsy Lightbown and Nina Spada, reviewing the literature on the subject, point to the various studies showing that older children and adolescents make more progress than younger learners (2006: 67–74).

The relative superiority of older children as language learners (especially in formal educational settings) may have something to do with their increased cognitive abilities, which allow them to benefit from more abstract approaches to language teaching. It may also have something to do with the way younger children are taught. Lynne Cameron, quoted above, suggests that teachers of young learners need to be especially alert and adaptive in their response to tasks and have to be able to adjust activities on the spot.

It is not being suggested that young children cannot acquire second languages successfully. As we have already said, many of them achieve significant competence, especially in bilingual situations. But in learning situations, teenagers are often more effective learners. Yet English is increasingly being taught at younger and younger ages. This may have great benefits in terms of citizenship, democracy, tolerance and multiculturalism, for example (Read 2003), but especially when there is ineffective transfer of skills and methodology from primary to secondary school, early learning does not always appear to offer the substantial success often claimed for it.

Nor is it true that older learners are necessarily ineffective language learners. Research has shown that they 'can reach high levels of proficiency in their second language' (Lightbown

and Spada 2006: 73). They may have greater difficulty in approximating native speaker pronunciation than children do, but sometimes this is a deliberate (or even subconscious) retention of their cultural and linguistic identity.

In what follows we will consider students at different ages as if all the members of each age group are the same. Yet each student is an individual with different experiences both in and outside the classroom. Comments here about young children, teenagers and adults can only be generalisations. Much also depends upon individual learner differences and upon motivation (see Section D below).

A1 Young children

Young children, especially those up to the ages of nine or ten, learn differently from older children, adolescents and adults in the following ways:

- They respond to meaning even if they do not understand individual words.
- They often learn indirectly rather than directly – that is they take in information from all sides, learning from everything around them rather than only focusing on the precise topic they are being taught.
- Their understanding comes not just from explanation, but also from what they see and hear and, crucially, have a chance to touch and interact with.
- They find abstract concepts such as grammar rules difficult to grasp.
- They generally display an enthusiasm for learning and a curiosity about the world around them.
- They have a need for individual attention and approval from the teacher.
- They are keen to talk about themselves and respond well to learning that uses themselves and their own lives as main topics in the classroom.
- They have a limited attention span; unless activities are extremely engaging, they can get easily bored, losing interest after ten minutes or so.

It is important, when discussing young learners, to take account of changes which take place within this varied and varying age span. Gül Keskil and Pasa Tevfik Cephe, for example, note that 'while pupils who are 10 and 11 years old like games, puzzles and songs most, those who are 12 and 13 years old like activities built around dialogues, question-and-answer activities and matching exercises most' (2001: 61).

Various theorists have described the way that children develop and the various ages and stages they go through. Piaget suggested that children start at the *sensori-motor stage*, and then proceed through the *intuitive stage* and the *concrete-operational stage* before finally reaching the *formal operational stage* where abstraction becomes increasingly possible. Leo Vygotsky (see page 59) emphasised the place of social interaction in development and the role of a 'knower' providing 'scaffolding' to help a child who has entered the *Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD) where they are ready to learn new things. Both Erik Erikson and Abraham Maslow saw development as being closely bound up in the child's confidence and self-esteem, while Reuven Feuerstein suggested that children's cognitive structures are infinitely modifiable with the help of a modifier – much like Vygotsky's knower.

But however we describe the way children develop (and though there are significant differences between, say, a four year old and a nine year old), we can make some recommendations about younger learners in general, that is children up to about ten and eleven.

In the first place, good teachers at this level need to provide a rich diet of learning experiences which encourage their students to get information from a variety of sources. They need to work with their students individually and in groups, developing good and affective relationships (see page 100). They need to plan a range of activities for a given time period, and be flexible enough to move on to the next exercise when they see their students getting bored.

Teachers of young learners need to spend time understanding how their students think and operate. They need to be able to pick up on their students' current interests so that they can use them to motivate the children. And they need good oral skills in English since speaking and listening are the skills which will be used most of all at this age. The teacher's pronunciation really matters here, too, precisely because, as we have said, children imitate it so well.

All of this reminds us that once a decision has been taken to teach English to younger learners, there is a need for highly skilled and dedicated teaching. This may well be the most difficult (but rewarding) age to teach, but when teachers do it well (and the conditions are right), there is no reason why students should not defy some of the research results we mentioned above and be highly successful learners – provided, of course, that this success is followed up as they move to a new school or grade.

We can also draw some conclusions about what a classroom for young children should look like and what might be going on in it. First of all, we will want the classroom to be bright and colourful, with windows the children can see out of, and with enough room for different activities to be taking place. We might expect the students to be working in groups in different parts of the classroom, changing their activity every ten minutes or so. 'We are obviously,' Susan Halliwell writes, 'not talking about classrooms where children spend all their time sitting still in rows or talking only to the teacher' (1992: 18). Because children love discovering things, and because they respond well to being asked to use their imagination, they may well be involved in puzzle-like activities, in making things, in drawing things, in games, in physical movement or in songs. A good primary classroom mixes play and learning in an atmosphere of cheerful and supportive harmony.

A2 Adolescents

It is strange that, despite their relative success as language learners, adolescents are often seen as problem students. Yet with their greater ability for abstract thought and their passionate commitment to what they are doing once they are engaged, adolescents may well be the most exciting students of all. Most of them understand the need for learning and, with the right goals, can be responsible enough to do what is asked of them.

It is perfectly true that there are times when things don't seem to go very well. Adolescence is bound up, after all, with a pronounced search for identity and a need for self-esteem; adolescents need to feel good about themselves and valued. All of this is reflected in the secondary student who convincingly argued that a good teacher 'is someone who knows our names' (Harmer 2007: 26). But it's not just teachers, of course; teenage students often have an acute need for peer approval, too (or, at the very least, are extremely vulnerable to the negative judgements of their own age group).

We will discuss how teachers can ensure successful learning (preventing indiscipline, but acting effectively if it occurs) in Chapter 9, but we should not become too preoccupied with the issue of disruptive behaviour, for while we will all remember unsatisfactory classes, we will also look back with pleasure on those groups and lessons which were successful. There is almost nothing more exciting than a class of involved young people at this age pursuing a learning goal with enthusiasm. Our job, therefore, must be to provoke student engagement with material which is relevant and involving. At the same time, we need to do what we can to bolster our students' self-esteem, and be conscious, always, of their need for identity.

Herbert Puchta and Michael Schratz see problems with teenagers as resulting, in part, from '... the teacher's failure to build bridges between what they want and have to teach and their students' worlds of thought and experience' (1993: 4). They advocate linking language teaching far more closely to the students' everyday interests through, in particular, the use of 'humanistic' teaching (see Chapter 3D). Thus, as we shall see in some of the examples in Chapters 16–20, material has to be designed at the students' level, with topics which they can react to. They must be encouraged to respond to texts and situations with their own thoughts and experiences, rather than just by answering questions and doing abstract learning activities. We must give them tasks which they are able to do, rather than risk humiliating them.

We have come some way from the teaching of young children. We can ask teenagers to address learning issues directly in a way that younger learners might not appreciate. We are able to discuss abstract issues with them. Indeed, part of our job is to provoke intellectual activity by helping them to be aware of contrasting ideas and concepts which they can resolve for themselves – though still with our guidance. There are many ways of studying language (see Chapters 12–15) and practising language skills (see Chapters 16–20), and most of these are appropriate for teenagers.

A3 Adult learners

Adult language learners are notable for a number of special characteristics:

- They can engage with abstract thought. This suggests that we do not have to rely exclusively on activities such as games and songs – though these may be appropriate for some students.
- They have a whole range of life experiences to draw on.
- They have expectations about the learning process, and they already have their own set patterns of learning.
- Adults tend, on the whole, to be more disciplined than other age groups, and, crucially, they are often prepared to struggle on despite boredom.
- They come into classrooms with a rich range of experiences which allow teachers to use a wide range of activities with them.
- Unlike young children and teenagers, they often have a clear understanding of why they are learning and what they want to get out of it. As we shall see in Section D below, motivation is a critical factor in successful learning, and knowing what you want to achieve is an important part of this. Many adults are able to sustain a level of motivation (see D2) by holding on to a distant goal in a way that teenagers find more difficult.

However, adults are never entirely problem-free learners, and they have a number of characteristics which can sometimes make learning and teaching problematic.

- They can be critical of teaching methods. Their previous learning experiences may have predisposed them to one particular methodological style which makes them uncomfortable with unfamiliar teaching patterns. Conversely, they may be hostile to certain teaching and learning activities which replicate the teaching they received earlier in their educational careers.
- They may have experienced failure or criticism at school which makes them anxious and under-confident about learning a language.
- Many older adults worry that their intellectual powers may be diminishing with age. They are concerned to keep their creative powers alive, to maintain a 'sense of generativity' (Williams and Burden 1997: 32). However, as Alan Rogers points out, this generativity is directly related to how much learning has been going on in adult life before they come to a new learning experience (1996: 54).

Good teachers of adults take all of these factors into account. They are aware that their students will often be prepared to stick with an activity for longer than younger learners (though too much boredom can obviously have a disastrous effect on motivation). As well as involving their students in more indirect learning through reading, listening and communicative speaking and writing, they also allow them to use their intellects to learn consciously where this is appropriate. They encourage their students to use their own life experience in the learning process, too.

As teachers of adults we should recognise the need to minimise the bad effects of past learning experiences. We can diminish the fear of failure by offering activities which are achievable and by paying special attention to the level of challenge presented by exercises. We need to listen to students' concerns, too, and, in many cases, modify what we do to suit their learning tastes.

B Learner differences

The moment we realise that a class is composed of individuals (rather than being some kind of unified whole), we have to start thinking about how to respond to these students individually so that while we may frequently teach the group as a whole, we will also, in different ways, pay attention to the different identities we are faced with.

We will discuss differentiation in relation to mixed ability in Chapter 7C. In this section, however, we will look at the various ways researchers have tried to identify individual needs and behaviour profiles.

B1 Aptitude and intelligence

Some students are better at learning languages than others. At least that is the generally held view, and in the 1950s and 1960s it crystallised around the belief that it was possible to predict a student's future progress on the basis of linguistic aptitude tests. But it soon became clear that such tests were flawed in a number of ways. They didn't appear to measure anything other than general intellectual ability even though they ostensibly looked for linguistic talents. Furthermore, they favoured analytic-type learners over their more 'holistic' counterparts, so the tests were especially suited to people who have little trouble doing grammar-focused tasks. Those with a

more 'general' view of things – whose analytical abilities are not so highly developed, and who receive and use language in a more message-oriented way – appeared to be at a disadvantage. In fact, analytic aptitude is probably not the critical factor in success. Peter Skehan, for example, believes that what distinguishes exceptional students from the rest is that they have unusual memories, particularly for the retention of things that they hear (1998: 234).

Another damning criticism of traditional aptitude tests is that while they may discriminate between the most and the least 'intelligent' students, they are less effective at distinguishing between the majority of students who fall between these two extremes. What they do accomplish is to influence the way in which both teachers and students behave. It has been suggested that students who score badly on aptitude tests will become demotivated and that this will then contribute to precisely the failure that the test predicted. Moreover, teachers who know that particular students have achieved high scores will be tempted to treat those students differently from students whose score was low. Aptitude tests end up being self-fulfilling prophecies whereas it would be much better for both teacher and students to be optimistic about all of the people in the class.

It is possible that people have different aptitudes for different kinds of study. However, if we consider aptitude and intelligence for learning language in general, our own experience of people we know who speak two or more languages can only support the view that 'learners with a wide variety of intellectual abilities can be successful language learners. This is especially true if the emphasis is on oral communication skills rather than metalinguistic knowledge' (Lightbown and Spada 2006: 185).

B2 Good learner characteristics

Another line of enquiry has been to try to tease out what a 'good learner' is. If we can narrow down a number of characteristics that all good learners share, then we can, perhaps, cultivate these characteristics in all our students.

Neil Naiman and his colleagues included a tolerance of ambiguity as a feature of good learning, together with factors such as positive task orientation (being prepared to approach tasks in a positive fashion), ego involvement (where success is important for a student's self-image), high aspirations, goal orientation and perseverance (Naiman *et al* 1978).

Joan Rubin and Irene Thompson listed no fewer than 14 good learner characteristics, among which learning to live with uncertainty (much like the tolerance of ambiguity mentioned above) is a notable factor (Rubin and Thompson 1982). But the Rubin and Thompson version of a good learner also mentions students who can find their own way (without always having to be guided by the teacher through learning tasks), who are creative, who make intelligent guesses, who make their own opportunities for practice, who make errors work for them not against them, and who use contextual clues.

Patsy Lightbown and Nina Spada summarise the main consensus about good learner characteristics (see Figure 1). As they point out, the characteristics can be classified in several categories (motivation, intellectual abilities, learning preferences), and some, such as 'willing to make mistakes', can be 'considered a personality characteristic' (Lightbown and Spada 2006: 54). In other words, this wish list cuts across a number of learner variables.

Much of what various people have said about good learners is based on cultural assumptions which underpin much current teaching practice in western-influenced methodologies.

In these cultures we appreciate self-reliant students and promote learner autonomy as a main goal (see Chapter 23). We tend to see the tolerance of ambiguity as a goal of student development, wishing to wean our students away from a need for things to be always cut and dried. We encourage students to read texts for general understanding without stopping to look up all the words they do not understand; we ask students to speak communicatively even when they have difficulty because of words they don't know or can't pronounce, and we involve students in creative writing (see Chapter 19, B3). In all these endeavours we expect our students to aspire beyond their current language level.

Rate each of the following characteristics on a scale of 1–5. Use 1 to indicate a characteristic that you think is 'very important' and 5 to indicate a characteristic that you consider 'not at all important' in predicting success in second language learning.

A good language learner:

a is a willing and accurate guesser	1	2	3	4	5
b tries to get a message across even if specific language knowledge is lacking	1	2	3	4	5
c is willing to make mistakes	1	2	3	4	5
d constantly looks for patterns in the language	1	2	3	4	5
e practises as often as possible	1	2	3	4	5
f analyses his or her own speech and the speech of others	1	2	3	4	5
g attends to whether his or her performance meets the standards he or she has learned	1	2	3	4	5
h enjoys grammar exercises	1	2	3	4	5
i begins learning in childhood	1	2	3	4	5
j has an above-average IQ	1	2	3	4	5
k has good academic skills	1	2	3	4	5
l has a good self-image and lots of confidence	1	2	3	4	5

FIGURE 1: Good learner characteristics (Lightbown and Spada 2006: 55)

Different cultures value different learning behaviours, however. Our insistence upon one kind of 'good learner' profile may encourage us to demand that students should act in class in certain ways, whatever their learning background. When we espouse some of the techniques mentioned above, we risk imposing a methodology on our students that is inimical to their culture. Yet it is precisely because this is not perhaps in the best interests of the students that we discussed context-sensitive methodology in Chapter 4B. Furthermore, some students may not enjoy grammar exercises, but this does not mean they are doomed to learning failure.

There is nothing wrong with trying to describe good language learning behaviour. Nevertheless, we need to recognise that some of our assumptions are heavily culture-bound and that students can be successful even if they do not follow these characteristics to the letter.

B3 Learner styles and strategies

A preoccupation with learner personalities and styles has been a major factor in psycholinguistic research. Are there different kinds of learner? Are there different kinds of behaviour in a group? How can we tailor our teaching to match the personalities in front of us?

The methodologist Tony Wright described four different learner styles within a group (1987: 117–118). The 'enthusiast' looks to the teacher as a point of reference and is concerned with the goals of the learning group. The 'oracular' also focuses on the teacher but is more oriented towards the satisfaction of personal goals. The 'participator' tends to concentrate on group goals and group solidarity, whereas the 'rebel', while referring to the learning group for his or her point of reference, is mainly concerned with the satisfaction of his or her own goals.

Keith Willing, working with adult students in Australia, suggested four learner categories:

- **Convergers:** these are students who are by nature solitary, prefer to avoid groups, and who are independent and confident in their own abilities. Most importantly they are analytic and can impose their own structures on learning. They tend to be cool and pragmatic.
- **Conformists:** these are students who prefer to emphasise learning 'about language' over learning to use it. They tend to be dependent on those in authority and are perfectly happy to work in non-communicative classrooms, doing what they are told. A classroom of conformists is one which prefers to see well-organised teachers.
- **Concrete learners:** though they are like conformists, they also enjoy the social aspects of learning and like to learn from direct experience. They are interested in language use and language as communication rather than language as a system. They enjoy games and groupwork in class.
- **Communicative learners:** these are language use oriented. They are comfortable out of class and show a degree of confidence and a willingness to take risks which their colleagues may lack. They are much more interested in social interaction with other speakers of the language than they are with analysis of how the language works. They are perfectly happy to operate without the guidance of a teacher

FIGURE 2: Learning styles based on Willing (1987)

Wright and Willing's categorisations are just two of a large number of descriptions that different researchers have come up with to try to explain different learner styles and strategies. Frank Coffield, David Moseley, Elaine Hall and Kathryn Ecclestone, in an extensive study of the literature available, identify an extremely large list of opposed styles which different theorists have advocated (see Figure 3). But while this may be of considerable interest to theorists, they 'advise against pedagogical intervention based solely on any of the learning style instruments' (Coffield *et al* 2004: 140).

convergers versus **divergers**	**initiators** versus **reasoners**
verbalisers versus **imagers**	**intuitionists** versus **analysts**
holists versus **serialists**	**extroverts** versus **introverts**
deep versus **surface learning**	**sensing** versus **intuition**
activists versus **reflectors**	**thinking** versus **feeling**
pragmatists versus **theorists**	**judging** versus **perceiving**
adaptors versus **innovators**	**left brainers** versus **right brainers**
assimilators versus **explorers**	**meaning-directed** versus **undirected**
field dependent versus **field independent**	**theorists** versus **humanitarians**
globalists versus **analysts**	**activists** versus **theorists**
assimilators versus **accommodators**	**pragmatists** versus **reflectors**
imaginative versus **analytic learners**	**organisers** versus **innovators**
non-committers versus **plungers**	**lefts/analytics/inductives/successive**
common-sense versus **dynamic learners**	**processors** versus **rights/globals/**
concrete versus **abstract learners**	**deductives/simultaneous processors**
random versus **sequential learners**	**executives/hierarchics/conservatives**
	versus **legislatives/anarchics/liberals**

FIGURE 3: Different learner descriptions (from Coffield *et al* 2004: 136)

Coffield and his colleagues have two main reasons for their scepticism. The first is that there are so many different models available (as the list in Figure 3 shows) that it is almost impossible to choose between them. This is a big worry, especially since there is no kind of consensus among researchers about what they are looking at and what they have identified. Secondly, some of the more popular methods, Coffield *et al* suggest, are driven by commercial interests which have identified themselves with particular models. This is not to suggest that there is anything intrinsically wrong with commercial interests, but rather to introduce a note of caution into our evaluation of different learner style descriptions.

It may sound as if, therefore, there is no point in reading about different learner styles at all – or trying to incorporate them into our teaching. But that is not the case. We should do as much as we can to understand the individual differences within a group. We should try to find descriptions that chime with our own perceptions, and we should endeavour to teach individuals as well as groups.

B4 Individual variations

If some people are better at some things than others – better at analysing, for example – this would indicate that there are differences in the ways individual brains work. It also suggests that people respond differently to the same stimuli. How might such variation determine the ways in which individual students learn most readily? How might it affect the ways in which we teach? There are two models in particular which have tried to account for such perceived individual variation, and which teachers have attempted to use for the benefit of their learners.

- **Neuro-Linguistic Programming:** according to practitioners of Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP), we use a number of 'primary representational systems' to experience the world. These systems are described in the acronym 'VAKOG' which stands for *Visual* (we look and see), *Auditory* (we hear and listen), *Kinaesthetic* (we feel externally, internally

or through movement), *Olfactory* (we smell things) and *Gustatory* (we taste things).

Most people, while using all these systems to experience the world, nevertheless have one 'preferred primary system' (Revell and Norman 1997: 31). Some people are particularly stimulated by music when their preferred primary system is auditory, whereas others, whose primary preferred system is visual, respond most powerfully to images. An extension of this is when a visual person 'sees' music, or has a strong sense of different colours for different sounds. The VAKOG formulation, while somewhat problematic in the distinctions it attempts to make, offers a framework to analyse different student responses to stimuli and environments.

NLP gives teachers the chance to offer students activities which suit their primary preferred systems. According to Radislav Millrood, it shows how teachers can operate in the *C-Zone* – the zone of congruence, where teachers and students interact affectively – rather than in the *R-Zone* – the zone of student resistance, where students do not appreciate how the teacher tries to make them behave (Millrood 2004). NLP practitioners also use techniques such as 'three-position thinking' (Baker and Rinvolucri 2005a) to get teachers and students to see things from other people's points of view so that they can be more effective communicators and interactors.

- **MI theory:** MI stands for Multiple Intelligences, a concept introduced by the Harvard psychologist Howard Gardner. In his book *Frames of Mind*, he suggested that we do not possess a single intelligence, but a range of 'intelligences' (Gardner 1983). He listed seven of these: Musical/rhythmical, Verbal/linguistic, Visual/spatial, Bodily/kinaesthetic, Logical/mathematical, Intrapersonal and Interpersonal. All people have all of these intelligences, he said, but in each person one (or more) of them is more pronounced. This allowed him to predict that a typical occupation (or 'end state') for people with a strength in logical/mathematical intelligence is that of the scientist, whereas a typical end state for people with strengths in visual/spatial intelligence might well be that of the navigator. The athlete might be the typical end state for people who are strong in bodily/kinaesthetic intelligence, and so on. Gardner has since added an eighth intelligence which he calls Naturalistic intelligence (Gardner 1993) to account for the ability to recognise and classify patterns in nature; Daniel Goleman has added a ninth 'emotional intelligence' (Goleman 1995). This includes the ability to empathise, control impulse and self-motivate.

  If we accept that different intelligences predominate in different people, it suggests that the same learning task may not be appropriate for all of our students. While people with a strong logical/mathematical intelligence might respond well to a complex grammar explanation, a different student might need the comfort of diagrams and physical demonstration because their strength is in the visual/spatial area. Other students who have a strong interpersonal intelligence may require a more interactive climate if their learning is to be effective. Rosie Tanner (2001) has produced a chart (see Figure 4) to show what kind of activities might be suitable for people with special strengths in the different intelligences.

Armed with this information, teachers can see whether they have given their class a variety of activities to help the various types of learner described here. Although we cannot teach directly to each individual student in our class all of the time, we can ensure that we sometimes give opportunities for visualisation, for students to work on their own, for sharing and comparing and for physical movement. By keeping our eye on different individuals, we can direct them to learning activities which are best suited to their own proclivities.

Teaching Intelligently: Language Skills Activities Chart

Skill Intelligence	Listening	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Grammar	Vocabulary	Literature
Bodily Kinesthetic	Listeners listen to three sections of a tape in three different places then form groups to collaborate on their answers to a task	Learners re-order a cut-up jumbled reading text.	Learners write stories in groups by writing the first sentence of a story on a piece of paper and passing it to another learner for communication.	Learners play a game where they obtain information from various places in the classroom and report back.	Learners play a board game with counters and dice to practice tenses.	Learners label objects in the classroom with names.	Learners create a similar scene to one they have read about and act it out (e.g. a conflict, a line you were let down).
Interpersonal	Learners check the answers to a listening task in pairs or groups before listening a second time.	Learners discuss answers to questions on a text in groups.	Learners write a dialogue in pairs.	Learners read problem-page letters and discuss responses.	Learners do a "find someone who…" activity related to a grammar point (e.g. present perfect: find someone who has been to Spain).	Learners test each other's vocabulary.	In groups, learners discuss their preferences for characters in a book.
Intrapersonal	Learners think individually about how they might have reacted, compared with someone on a video they have seen.	Learners reflect on characters in a text and how similar or different they are to them.	Learners write learning diaries.	Learners record a speech or talk on a cassette.	Learners complete sentences about themselves, practicing a grammar point (e.g., complete the sentence 'I am as … as …' five times).	Learners make their own vocabulary booklet which contains words they think are important to learn.	Learners write a diary for a few days in the life of a character in a book.
Linguistic	Learners write a letter after listening to a text.	Learners answer true/false questions about a text.	Learners write a short story.	In groups, learners discuss statements about a controversial topic.	The teacher provides a written worksheet on a grammar point.	Learners make mind maps of related words.	Learners rewrite part of a book as a film script, with instructions for the director and actors.
Logical-Mathematical	Learners listen to three pieces of text and decide what the correct sequence is.	Learners compare two characters or opinions in a text.	Learners write steps in a process, (e.g., a recipe).	Learners in a group each have a picture. They discuss and re-order them, without showing them, to create a story.	Learners learn grammar inductively, i.e., they work out how a grammar rule works by using discovery activities.	Learners discuss how many words they can think of related to another word (e.g., photograph, photographer).	Learners re-order a jumbled version of events in a chapter of a novel they have read.
Musical	Learners complete gaps in the lyrics of a pop song.	Learners listen to music extracts and decide how they relate to a text they have read.	Learners write the lyrics to an existing melody about a text or topic they have been dealing with in class.	Learners listen to a musical video clip (with the TV covered up) and discuss which images might accompany the music.	Learners create a mnemonic or rhyme to help them remember a grammar point.	Learners decide which new words they would like to learn from a pop song.	Learners find a piece of appropriate music to accompany a passage from a book.
Naturalist	Learners listen to sound inside and outside the classroom and discuss what they have heard.	Learners work with a text on environmental issues.	Learners write a text describing a natural scene.	Learners discuss an environmental issue.	Learners do an activity associated with nature (e.g., walk by the sea and write a story in the past tense about it).	Learners make a mind map with a work related to nature (e.g. bird, tree).	Learners read descriptions of nature in a novel and then write their own.
Spatial	Learners complete a chart or diagram while listening.	Learners predict the contents of a text using an accompanying picture or photo.	Learners make a collage with illustrations and text about a place in their country.	In pairs learners discover the differences between two pictures without showing them to each other.	The teacher illustrates a grammar point with a series of pictures (e.g. daily activities to show present simple).	Learners cut out a picture from a magazine and label it.	Learners draw a cartoon version of a story.

B5 What to do about individual differences

Faced with the different descriptions of learner types and styles which have been listed here, it may seem that the teacher's task is overwhelmingly complex. We want to satisfy the many different students in front of us, teaching to their individual strengths with activities designed to produce the best results for each of them, yet we also want to address our teaching to the group as a whole.

Our task as teachers will be greatly helped if we can establish who the different students in our classes are and recognise how they are different. We can do this through observation or, as in the following two examples, through more formal devices. For example, we might ask students what their learning preferences are in questionnaires with items (perhaps in the students' first language) such as the following:

When answering comprehension questions about reading passages I prefer to work

a on my own. ❑
b with another student. ❑
c with a group of students. ❑

Or we might try to find out which preferred sensory system our students respond to. Revell and Norman suggest the activity shown in Figure 5.

THE LEAD VAK TEST:
READ AND IMAGINE

Follow each instruction in your mind and give yourself a mark:
0 = impossible 1 = difficult 2 = OK 3 = easy

___ SEE a kangaroo
___ SEE your front door
___ SEE your toothbrush
___ SEE a friend's face
___ SEE a plate of food
___ SEE a TV show …
___ WATCH the TV scene change

___ HEAR a song
___ HEAR rain
___ HEAR a fire alarm
___ HEAR a friend's voice
___ HEAR your own voice
___ HEAR birds singing …
___ HEAR the birdsong change to a call of alarm

___ FEEL excited
___ FEEL yourself swimming
___ FEEL grass under your feet
___ FEEL a cat* on your lap
___ FEEL hot
___ FEEL your fingers on a piano keyboard
___ FEEL your fingers playing a few notes

When you've done the test:
- Add up your scores for each sense: SEE ___ HEAR ___ FEEL
- Does the highest score correspond with what you think your preferred lead system is? How did you fare when it came to changing the scenes slightly in the last one of each section?
- Think of ways to enhance the systems you don't find so easy.

FIGURE 5: 'The Lead VAK Test' from *In Your Hands* by J Revell and S Norman (Saffire Press)

C Language levels

Students are generally described in three levels, *beginner*, *intermediate* and *advanced*, and these categories are further qualified by talking about *real beginners* and *false beginners*. Between beginner and intermediate we often class students as *elementary*. The intermediate level itself is often sub-divided into *lower intermediate* and *upper intermediate* and even *mid-intermediate*. One version of different levels, therefore, has the progression shown in Figure 7.

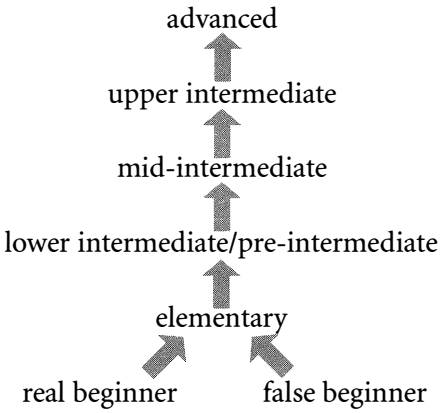


FIGURE 7: Representing different student levels

These terms are used somewhat indiscriminately, so that what one school calls intermediate is sometimes thought of as nearer elementary by others, and someone else might describe a student as advanced despite the fact that in another institution he or she would be classed as upper intermediate. Some coherence is arrived at as a result of the general consensus that exists between publishers about what levels their courses are divided into, but even here there is some variation (often depending on different views about what students at certain levels are capable of doing).

In recent years, the Council of Europe and the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE) have been working to define language competency levels for learners of a number of different languages. The result of these efforts is the Common European Framework (a document setting out in detail what students 'can do' at various levels) and a series of ALTE levels ranging from A1 (roughly equivalent to elementary level) to C2 (very advanced). Figure 8 shows the different levels in sequence.

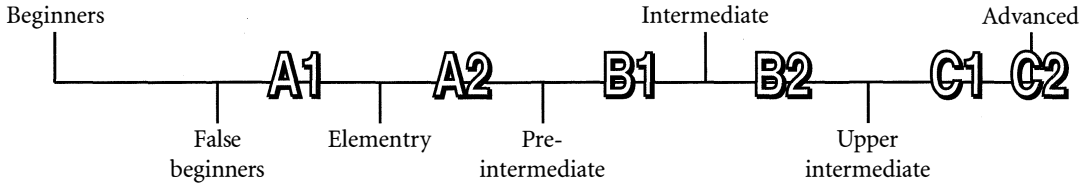


FIGURE 8: Terms for different student levels (and ALTE levels)

ALTE has produced 'can do' statements to try to show students, as well as teachers, what these levels mean, as the example in Figure 9 for the skill of writing demonstrates (A1 is at the left, C2 at the right).

Can complete basic forms and write notes including times, dates and places.	Can complete forms and write short simple letters or postcards related to personal information.	Can write letters or make notes on familiar or predicatable matters.	Can make notes while someone is talking or write a letter including non-standard questions.	Can prepare/draft professional correspondence, take reasonably accurate notes in meetings or write an essay which shows an ability to communicate.	Can write letters on any subject and full notes of meetings or seminars with good expression or accuracy.

FIGURE 9: ALTE 'Can do' statements for writing

ALTE levels and 'can do' statements (alongside the more traditional terms we have mentioned) are being used increasingly by coursebook writers and curriculum designers, not only in Europe but across much of the language-learning world (for more of the statements, see page 141). They are especially useful when translated into the students' L1 because they allow students to say what they can do, rather than having to be told by the teacher what standard they measure up against.

However, it is worth pointing out that the ALTE standards are just one way of measuring proficiency. There are also ESL standards which were developed by the TESOL organisation in the USA (see www.tesol.org/s_tesol/seccss.asp?CID=86&DID=1556), and many exam systems have their own level descriptors. We also need to remember that students' abilities within any particular level may be varied, too (e.g. they may be much better at speaking than writing).

The level students have reached often has an effect on their motivation. For example, students who have considerable trouble understanding and producing language at beginner levels often fail to progress to higher levels; this accounts for the relatively high 'drop-out' rate of some adult beginners. Sometimes students who arrive at, say, an intermediate level, tend to suffer from the so-called 'plateau effect' because for them it is not easy to see progress in their abilities from one week to the next. This can have a very demotivating effect,

Teachers need to be sensitive to the plateau effect, taking special measures to counteract it. Such efforts may include setting achievement goals (see below) so that students have a clear learning target to aim at, explaining what still needs to be done, making sure that activities are especially engaging, and sparking the students' interest in the more subtle distinctions of language use.

Other variations in level-dependent teacher behaviour are important, too, especially in terms of both methodology and the kind of language (and the topics) which we expose our students to.

C1 Methodology

Some techniques and exercises that are suitable for beginners look less appropriate for students at higher levels, and some assumptions about advanced students' abilities are less successful when transposed, without thought, to students at lower levels. This is especially true in speaking tasks. It is quite feasible to ask advanced students to get into pairs or groups to discuss a topic of some kind without structuring the activity in any way. But when asking elementary students to have a discussion in pairs or groups, we need to be far more rigorous

in telling them exactly what they should do, and we will probably help them with some of the language they might want to use. The instructions we give may well be accompanied by a demonstration so that everyone is absolutely clear about the task, whereas at higher levels this may not be so necessary and might even seem strange and patronising (for an example of this, see *Speaking* on the DVD which accompanies Harmer 2007). At advanced levels it is easy to organise discussion – whether pre-planned or opportunistic (see page 201) – whereas for beginners this option will not be available.

At lower levels we may well want to have students repeat sentences and phrases chorally (see page 206), and we may organise controlled cue–response drills (pages 206–207). This is because students sometimes have difficulty getting their mouths round some of the sounds (and stress and intonation patterns) of English; choral repetition and drills can help them get over this and, furthermore, allow them to practise in an enjoyable and stress-free way. Advanced students, however, might feel rather surprised to be asked to practise like this.

In general, we will give students more support when they are at beginner or intermediate levels than we need to do when they are more advanced. This does not mean that we will not approach more advanced tasks with care or be precise about what we are asking students to do. But at higher levels we may well be entitled to expect that students will be more resourceful and, as a result, have less need for us to explain everything in such a careful and supportive way.

C2 Language, task and topic

We have said that students acquire language partly as a result of the comprehensible input they receive – especially from the teacher (see Chapter 6, D3). This means, of course, that we will have to adjust the language we use to the level of the students we are teaching. Experienced teachers are very good at rough-tuning their language to the level they are dealing with. Such rough-tuning involves, at beginner and elementary levels, using words and phrases that are as clear as possible, avoiding some of the more opaque idioms which the language contains. At lower levels we will do our best not to confuse our students by offering them too many different accents or varieties of English (see Chapter 1, B3), even though we will want to make sure they are exposed to more Englishes later on. We will also take special care at lower levels to moderate the speed we speak at and to make our instructions especially clear.

This preoccupation with suiting our language to the level of the students extends to what we ask them to read, listen to, write and speak about. As we shall see on page 273, there are things that students can do with authentic English – that is English not specially moderated for use by language students – but in general, we will want to get students to read and listen to things that they have a chance of understanding. Of course, it depends on how much we want them to get from a text, but we always need to bear in mind the demotivating effect of a text which students find depressingly impenetrable.

The same is true for what we get students to write and speak about. If we ask students to express a complex opinion and they do not have the language to do it, the result will be an unhappy one for both students and teacher. If we try to force students to write a complex letter when they are clearly unable to do such a thing, everyone will feel let down. We will discuss the concept of trying to ensure achievement below.

One problem with some beginner coursebook material in particular is the way in which quite complex topics are reduced to banalities because the language available at that level makes it impossible to treat them in any depth. The result is a kind of 'dumbing-down',

which sometimes makes English language learning material appear condescending and almost childish. We must do our best to avoid this, matching topics to the level, and reserving complex issues for more advanced classes.

D Motivation

It is accepted for most fields of learning that motivation is essential to success: that we have to want to do something to succeed at it. Without such motivation we will almost certainly fail to make the necessary effort. We need, therefore, to develop our understanding of motivation – what it means, where it comes from and how it can be sustained.

D1 Defining motivation

At its most basic level, motivation is some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something. In his discussion of motivation, Douglas Brown includes the need for ego enhancement as a prime motivator. This is the need 'for the self to be known and to be approved of by others' (Brown 2007: 169). This, presumably, is what causes people to spend hours in the gym! Such a view of motivation also accounts for our need for exploration ('the other side of the mountain').

Marion Williams and Robert Burden suggest that motivation is a 'state of cognitive arousal' which provokes a 'decision to act', as a result of which there is 'sustained intellectual and/or physical effort' so that the person can achieve some 'previously set goal' (Williams and Burden 1997: 120). They go on to point out that the strength of that motivation will depend on how much value the individual places on the outcome he or she wishes to achieve. Adults may have clearly defined or vague goals. Children's goals, on the other hand, are often more amorphous and less easy to describe, but they can still be very powerful.

In discussions of motivation an accepted distinction is made between *extrinsic* and *intrinsic* motivation, that is motivation which comes from 'outside' and from 'inside'.

Extrinsic motivation is the result of any number of outside factors, for example the need to pass an exam, the hope of financial reward or the possibility of future travel. Intrinsic motivation, by contrast, comes from within the individual. Thus a person might be motivated by the enjoyment of the learning process itself or by a desire to make themselves feel better.

Most researchers and methodologists have come to the view that intrinsic motivation produces better results than its extrinsic counterpart (but see page 104). Even where the original reason for taking up a language course, for example, is extrinsic, the chances of success will be greatly enhanced if the students come to love the learning process.

D2 External sources of motivation

The motivation that brings students to the task of learning English can be affected and influenced by the attitude of a number of people. It is worth considering what and who these are since they form part of the environment from which the student engages with the learning process.

- **The goal:** one of the strongest outside sources of motivation is the goal which students perceive themselves to be learning for. Frequently this is provided by a forthcoming exam, and in this respect it is no surprise to note that teachers often find their exam classes more

committed than other groups who do not have something definite to work towards.

However, students may have other less well-defined goals, too, such as a general desire to be able to converse in English, to be able to use English to get a better job or to understand English-language websites, etc.

Some students, of course, may not have any real English-learning goals at all. This is especially true for younger learners. In such situations they may acquire their attitude to (and motivation for) learning English from other sources.

- **The society we live in:** outside any classroom there are attitudes to language learning and the English language in particular. How important is the learning of English considered to be in the society the student lives in? In a school situation, for example, is the language learning part of the curriculum of high or low status? If school students were offered the choice of two languages to learn, which one would they choose and why? Are the cultural images associated with English positive or negative?

  All these views of language learning will affect the student's attitude to the language being studied, and the nature and strength of this attitude will, in its turn, have a profound effect on the degree of motivation the student brings to class and whether or not that motivation continues. Even where adult students have made their own decision to come to a class to study English, they will bring with them attitudes from the society they live in, developed over years, whether these attitudes are thoroughly positive or somewhat negative.

- **The people around us:** in addition to the culture of the world around them, students' attitudes to language learning will be greatly influenced by the people who are close to them. The attitude of parents and older siblings will be crucial. Do they approve of language learning, for example, or do they think that maths and reading are what count, and clearly show that they are more concerned with those subjects than with the student's success in English?

  The attitude of a student's peers is also crucial: if they are critical of the subject or activity, a student may well lose any enthusiasm they once had for learning English. If peers are enthusiastic about learning English, however, there is a much greater chance that the same student may feel more motivated to learn the subject.

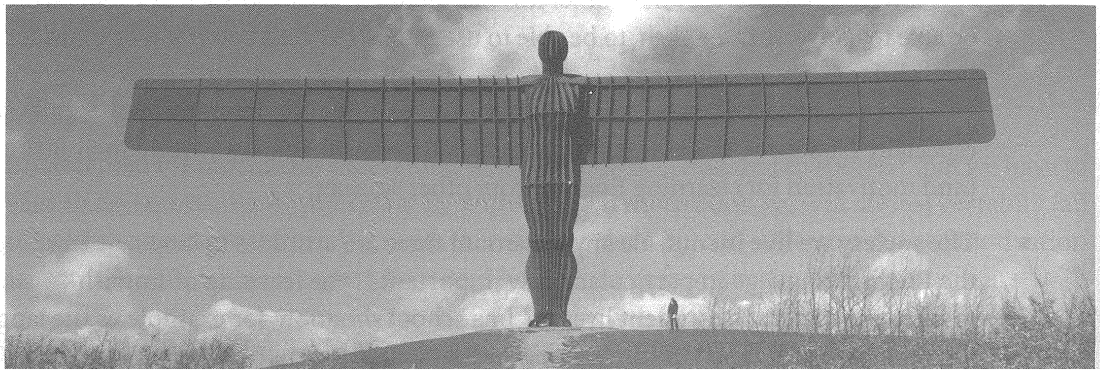
- **Curiosity:** we should not underestimate a student's natural curiosity. At the beginning of a term or semester, most students have at least a mild interest in who their new teacher is and what it will be like to be in his or her lessons. When students start English for the first time, most are interested (to some extent) to see what it is like. This initial motivation is precious. Without it, getting a class off the ground and building rapport will be that much more difficult.

Even when teachers find themselves facing a class of motivated students, they cannot relax. For it is what happens next that really counts. Sustaining students' motivation is one area where we can make a real difference – and for that we need a motivation angel.

D3 The motivation angel

In the north-east of England, outside the city of Gateshead, stands a remarkable statue by Antony Gormley, the 20-metre-high *Angel of the North*. It can be seen from the motorway, from the nearby train line and for miles around. It is, by common consent, a work of uplifting beauty

and inspires almost all who see it, whatever their religion or even if they have none at all.



The *Angel of the North* provides us with a satisfying metaphor to deal with the greatest difficulty teachers face in terms of motivation. For as Alan Rodgers wrote many years ago, '... we forget that initial motivation to learn may be weak and die; alternatively it can be increased and directed into new channels' (Rogers 1996: 61). In other words, we can have a powerful effect on how or even whether students remain motivated after whatever initial enthusiasm they brought to the course has dissipated. We have the ability, as well, to gradually create motivation in students where, initially, there is none. This is not to say that it is a teacher's sole responsibility to build and nurture motivation. On the contrary, students need to play their part, too. But insofar as we can have a positive effect, we need to be able to build our own 'motivation angel' to keep students engaged and involved as lesson succeeds lesson, as week succeeds week.

The angel needs to be built on the solid base of the extrinsic motivation which the students bring with them to class (see Figure 10). And on this base we will build our statue in five distinct stages.

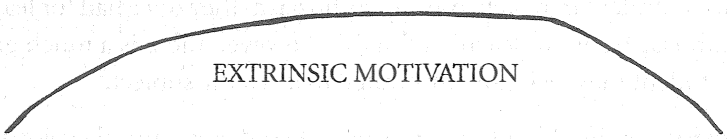


FIGURE 10: The motivation base

- **Affect:** affect, as we said on page 58, is concerned with students' feelings, and here we as teachers can have a dramatic effect. In the words of some eleven-year-old students I interviewed, 'a good teacher is someone who asks the people who don't always put their hands up' and 'a good teacher is someone who knows our names' (Harmer 2007: 26). In other words, students are far more likely to stay motivated over a period of time if they think that the teacher cares about them. This can be done by building good teacher–student rapport (see Chapter 6C), which in turn is dependent on listening to students' views and attempts with respect, and intervening (i.e. for correction) in an appropriate and constructive way.

  When students feel that the teacher has little interest in them (or is unprepared to make the effort to treat them with consideration), they will have little incentive to remain motivated. When the teacher is caring and helpful, however, they are much more likely to retain an interest in what is going on, and as a result, their self-esteem (an important ingredient in success) is likely to be nurtured.

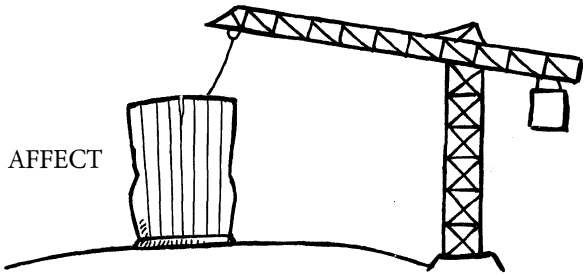


FIGURE 11: Affect

- **Achievement:** nothing motivates like success. Nothing demotivates like continual failure. It is part of the teacher's art, therefore, to try to ensure that students are successful, because the longer their success continues, the more likely they are to stay motivated to learn.

  However, success without effort does not seem to be that motivating. If everything is just too easy, students are likely to lose their respect for the task of learning. The same is true if success is too difficult to attain. What students need to feel is a real sense of achievement, which has cost them something to acquire but has not bankrupted them in the process.

  Part of a teacher's job, therefore, is to set an appropriate level of challenge for the students. This means setting tests that are not too difficult or too easy, and involving students in learning tasks they can succeed in. It also means being able to guide students towards success by showing them how to get things right next time.

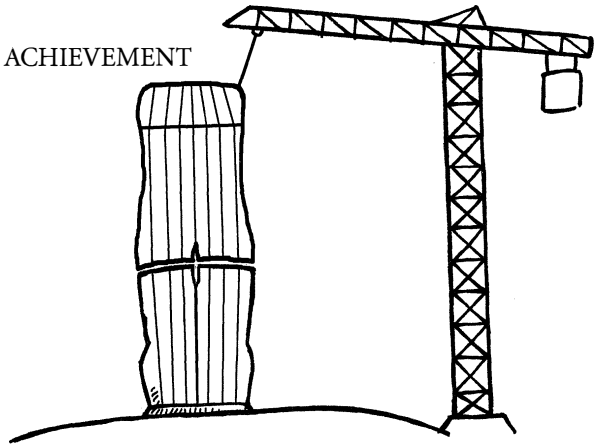


FIGURE 12: Achievement

- **Attitude:** however nice teachers are, students are unlikely to follow them willingly (and do what is asked of them) unless they have confidence in their professional abilities. Students need to believe that we know what we are doing.

  This confidence in a teacher may start the moment we walk into the classroom for the first time – because of the students' perception of our attitude to the job (see Figure 13). Aspects such as the way we dress, where we stand and the way we talk to the class all have a bearing here. Students also need to feel that we know about the subject we are teaching. Consciously or unconsciously they need to feel that we are prepared to teach English in general and that we are prepared to teach this lesson in particular. As we shall see, one

of the chief reasons (but not the only one, of course) why classes occasionally become undisciplined is because teachers do not have enough for the students to do – or seem not to be quite sure what to do next.

When students have confidence in the teacher, they are likely to remain engaged with what is going on. If they lose that confidence, it becomes difficult for them to sustain the motivation they might have started with.

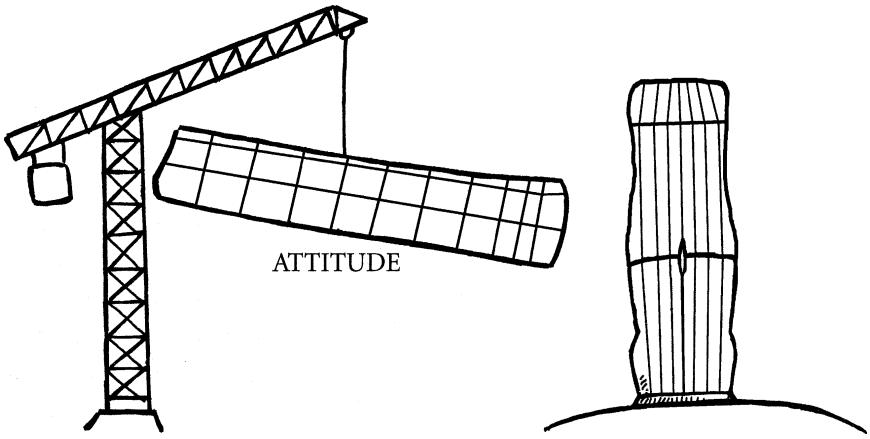


FIGURE 13: (Perceived) attitude (of the teacher)

- **Activities:** our students' motivation is far more likely to remain healthy if they are doing things they enjoy doing, and which they can see the point of. Our choice of what we ask them to do has an important role, therefore, in their continuing engagement with the learning process.

  It sometimes seems to be suggested that students only enjoy activities which involve game-like communication and other interactive tasks. However, this is not necessarily the case. Different students, as we have seen earlier in this chapter, have different styles and preferences. While some may want to sing songs and write poems, others might be much more motivated by concentrated language study and poring over reading texts.

  We need to try to match the activities (see Figure 14) we take into lessons with the students we are teaching. One way of doing this is to keep a constant eye on what they respond well to and what they feel less engaged with. Only then can we be sure that the activities we take into class have at least a chance of helping to keep students engaged with the learning process.

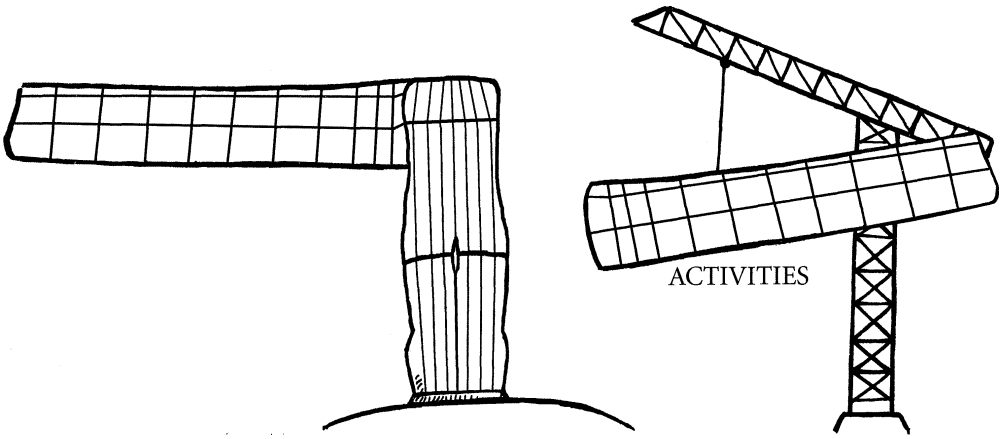


FIGURE 14: Activities

- **Agency:** *agency* is a term borrowed from social sciences (see for example Taylor 1977, Frankfurt 1988, Belz 2002). Here it is appropriated to mean something similar to the agent of a passive sentence, that is, in the words of some grammarians, the person or thing 'that does'.

  A lot of the time, in some classes, students have things done *to* them and, as a result, risk being passive recipients of whatever is being handed down. We should be equally interested, however, in things done *by* the students.

  When students have agency (see Figure 15), they get to make some of the decisions about what is going on, and, as a consequence, they take some responsibility for their learning. For example, we might allow students to tell us when and if they want to be corrected in a fluency activity (Rinvolucri 1998) rather than always deciding ourselves when correction is appropriate and when it is not. We might have students tell us what words they find difficult to pronounce rather than assuming they all have the same difficulties.

  J J Wilson suggests that wherever possible students should be allowed to make decisions. He wants to give students ownership of class materials, letting them write on the board or control the CD player, for example (Wilson 2005). For Jenny de Sonneville, while the teacher may decide on broad learning outcomes, he or she should design tasks 'in which the students are empowered to take a more active role in the course design' (2005: 11). For Lesley Painter, it was allowing students to choose what homework they wanted and needed to do that was the key to motivating her students to do the tasks that were set (Painter 1999). Real agency occurs, finally, when students take responsibility for their own learning, and we can provoke them to do this in the various ways we will discuss in Chapter 23A. A student we have trained to use dictionaries effectively has the potential for agency which a student who cannot access the wealth of information in a dictionary (especially a monolingual dictionary) is cut off from.

  No one is suggesting that students should have complete control of what happens in lessons. But the more we empower them and give them agency, the more likely they are to stay motivated over a long period.

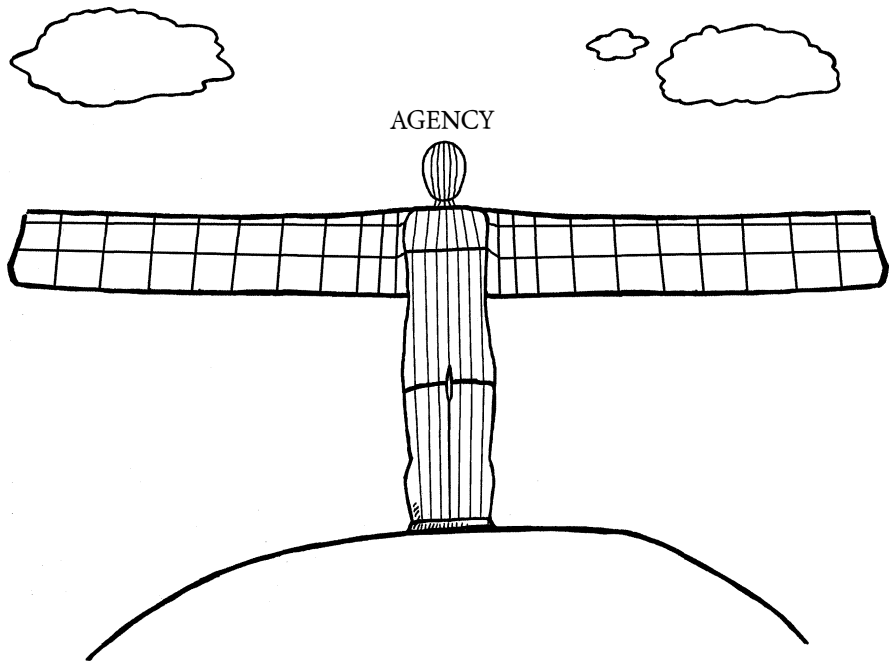


FIGURE 15: The motivation angel

Before we leave the subject of motivation (and indeed of learner description in general), we need to remember that motivation (where it comes from and what teachers can do to sustain it) may not be the same for all students and in all cultures. Judy Chen and her colleagues (based on their study of more than 160 students in Taiwan and China) observe that an assumption that motivation for Chinese students is the same as for EFL students in the USA, is 'apt to be off the mark, as is any assumption that the components of motivation are universal' (Chen *et al* 2005: 624). What their study clearly shows is that throughout Greater China there are numerous learning strategies based entirely on memorisation (2005: 625), and that the greatest motivator is success in exams based on how much students can remember. In such situations (and until and unless the exams change so that they prioritise spoken and written communication rather than memorised vocabulary and grammar), perhaps agency may not be important in the way we have described it; nor is the need for activity variety so pronounced if all students are fixated on this kind of achievement. Indeed in Taiwan many successful ex-students, Chen and her colleagues report, promote an ever-popular 'memorize a dictionary' strategy, and some students get an idiom a day sent to their mobile phones.

We have already discussed the need for context-sensitive methodology (see Chapter 4B). The study which Judy Chen and her colleagues have undertaken reminds us again that in discussions of teaching and learning strategies we need to look carefully at who the students are, where they are learning and what their aspirations are.

Learning styles – Modality Preference Inventory

http://homepages.wmich.edu/~jmcgowan/CTE344/session3/Modalityinventory.

Often (3) Sometimes (2) Seldom/Never (1)

Visual Modality
____ I remember information better if I write it down.
____ Looking at the person helps keep me focused.
____ I need a quiet place to get my work done.
____ When I take a test, I can see the textbook page in my head.
____ I need to write down directions, not just take them verbally.
____ Music or background noise distracts my attention from the task at hand.
____ I don't always get the meaning of a joke.
____ I doodle and draw pictures on the margins of my notebook pages.
____ I have trouble following lectures.
____ I react very strongly to colors.
____ **Total**

Auditory Modality
____ My papers and notebooks always seem messy.
____ When I read, I need to use my index finger to track my place on the line.
____ I do not follow written directions well.
____ If I hear something, I will remember it.
____ Writing has always been difficult for me.
____ I often misread words from the text (i.e., "them" for "then").
____ I would rather listen and learn than read and learn.
____ I'm not very good at interpreting and individual's body language.
____ Pages with small print or poor quality copies are difficult for me to read.
____ My eyes tire quickly, even though my vision check-up is always fine.
____ **Total**

Kinesthetic/Tactile Modality
____ I start a project before reading the directions.
____ I hate to sit at a desk for long periods of time.
____ I prefer first to see something done and then to do it myself.
____ I use the trial and error approach to problem-solving.
____ I like to read my textbook while riding an exercise bike.
____ I take frequent study breaks.
____ I have a difficult time giving step-by-step instructions.
____ I enjoy sports and do well at several different types of sports.
____ I use my hands when describing things.
____ I have to rewrite or type my class notes to reinforce the material.
____ **Total**

Total the score for each section. A score of 21 points or more in a modality indicates strength in that area. The highest of the 3 scores indicates the most efficient method of information intake. The second highest score indicates the modality that boosts the primary strength. For example, a score of 23 in the visual modality indicates a strong visual learner. Such a learner benefits from the text, from filmstrips, charts, graphs, etc. If the second highest score is auditory, then the individual would benefit from audiotapes, lectures, etc. If you are strong kinesthetically, then taking notes and rewriting class notes should reinforce information.

LEARNER TYPES

Note: The following are in no way concrete or absolutes!

Visual Learners tend to…

be neat and orderly
speak quickly
be good spellers
have trouble remembering instructions unless they are written down
often ask people to repeat themselves
doodle during phone conversations
often know what to say but can't think of the right words
need to have an overall picture of a project before they start
be strong, fast readers

Auditory Learners tend to…

talk to themselves while working
be easily distracted by noise
enjoy reading aloud and listening
repeat back and mimic tone and intonation
find writing difficult
be good public speakers
like music more than art
love discussions and give long descriptions
have problems with activities like jigsaws
spell better out loud than in writing

Kinesthetic Learners tend to…

speak slowly
respond to physical rewards
touch people to get attention
stand close when talking to someone
move around a lot
learn by doing
memorize by walking and seeing
gesture a lot
not sit still for a long time
not remember geography
want to act things out

Fadil's "Defining learning objectives for ELT"

(Please answer in full sentences and in your own words)

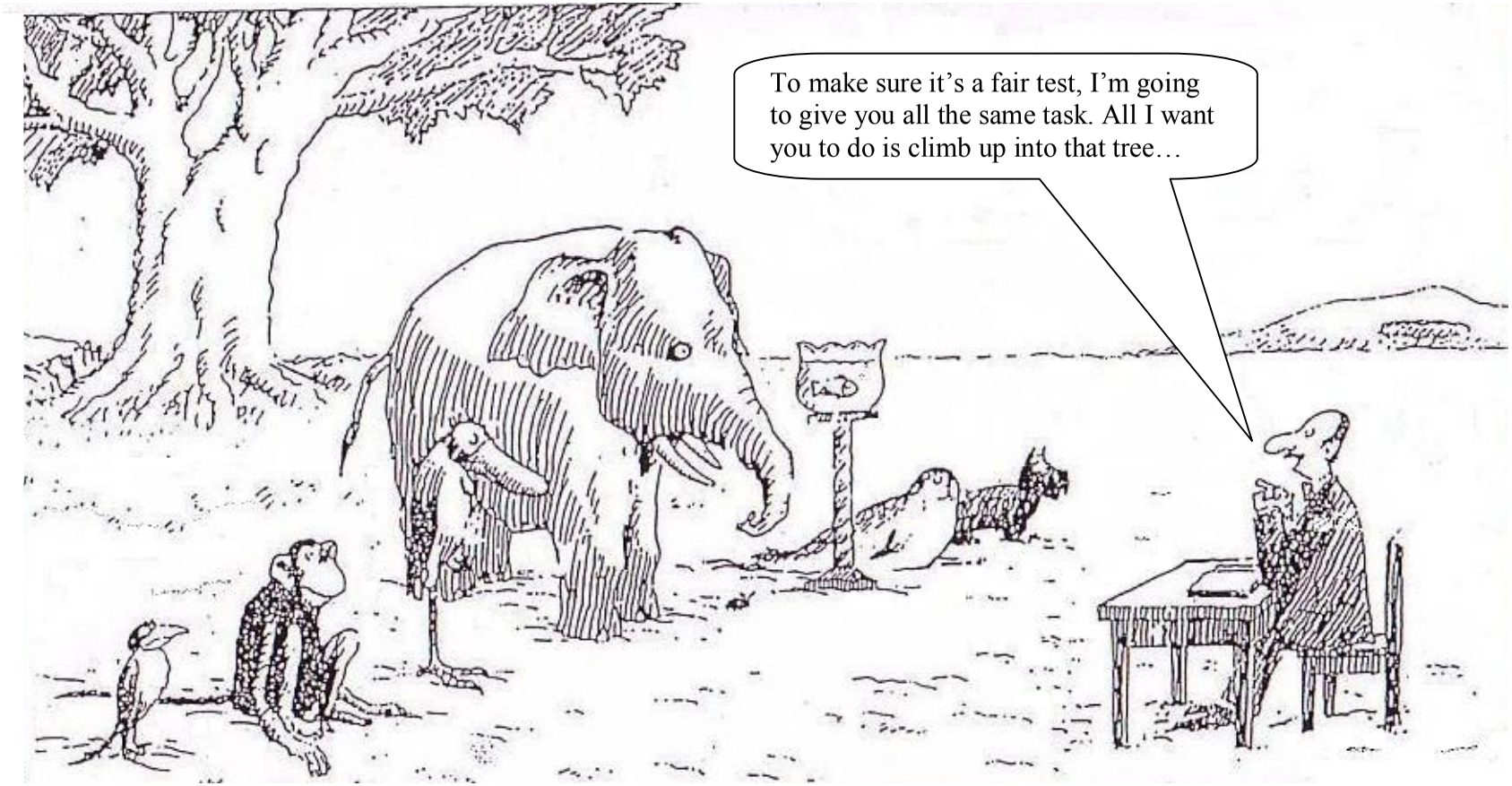
1. What is the difference between statements of aims and statement of objectives?

	Aims	Objectives
Time	a.	a.
Specificity	b.	b.
Perspective	c.	c.
Measurability	d.	d.

2. What are three benefits of writing statement of objectives from the perspective of student learning?

3. What type of verbs should statement of objectives contain? Why?

Realistic objective?



Defining learning objectives for ELT

Hamed el Nil el Fadil

This article attempts to introduce the teacher of EFL to developments in the area of specifying learning objectives. This topic has been largely ignored in recent years as new theories of language acquisition and the emphasis on communication have come to the fore. Many teachers, while welcoming the new approaches, nevertheless feel a need for a clearly defined framework for organizing their teaching, both in the long term and in the short term. When you have studied this article carefully, you should be able to (a) distinguish between statements of aims and statements of objectives, (b) discuss the merits of writing objectives from the point of view of the learner, and (c) write both complete and abbreviated statements of learning objectives for different language skills, functions, and notions. Given the choice, you may elect to use such statements in addition to the more conventional teacher's aims.

Statements of aims and statements of objectives[1]

Most modern language courses seem to recognize the need for teachers to give some kind of direction to their activities by stating the aims of each lesson or unit in the course. Generally speaking, these statements of aims describe either the activities of the teacher (as in examples (a), (b) and (c) below) or the object of the lesson (examples (d) and (e)):

a to teach greetings and introductions
b to teach the names of animals
c to practise the simple past
d indirect statements/questions in the present with *know*
e ways of making suggestions: *let's . . ., I suggest . . ., why don't we . . .?, I think we should . . .*

Statements like the above, however, present a number of difficulties for teachers and learners alike. Firstly, they are written from the point of view of the *teacher* and not the learner. They tell us what the teacher will be doing during the lesson and not what the pupils will be able to do at the conclusion of the lesson. For example, one could ask: 'How long should the pupils practise for, and for what particular purpose and at what level of proficiency?' Secondly, they are open to different interpretations by different readers, as it is not clear whether active production of the forms is required, or merely passive recognition. This is especially true with statements involving language functions or notions, as in examples (b), (c), (d) and (e) above. Thirdly, it is impossible for teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching except by personal criteria such as whether the students appear active, responsive, or even just amused.

Thus we can see that, although many language courses try to give direction and order to the activities of the teacher, they miserably fail to do so, because the aims stated for each lesson or unit, not to mention the goals

of the whole course, lack the precision needed for effective teaching and evaluation.

The need for written learning objectives

There are a number of reasons why it is valuable to write precise statements of objectives in terms of pupils' learning, rather than in terms of teachers' activities. In his book *Preparing Instructional Objectives* (which I strongly recommend to teachers of EFL), Mager suggests three reasons for writing learning objectives (Mager 1975:6).

First, when objectives are defined in terms of learning outcomes, teachers have a better chance of selecting the most appropriate content and teaching tactics. When the teacher has stated quite specifically what he or she wants students to learn, the teacher can ask: 'Now that I know what I want my pupils to learn, what is the best way of helping them achieve it?'

Second, when objectives are described in precise and unambiguous terms, it is easier to find out if our teaching has been effective or not, since we can test our pupils' performance. Depending on the result of our assessment, we either augment our objectives or try using different materials and teaching tactics. This process of trying out new materials and new tactics may eventually create the teacher–researcher that Widdowson (1984) has recently been calling for.

Third, when pupils know exactly what is expected of them, they can organize their own efforts in order to attain the stated objectives. A further benefit is that slow learners, armed with a set of learning objectives, can seek specific help from their peers, parents, and others in the community.

Resistance

Despite the obvious merits, EFL/ESL teachers have been reluctant to use objectives-based instruction, for a number of reasons. First, this approach smells too much of behaviourism. Many instruction designers use the term 'behavioural objectives', and their insistence on *observable* behaviour makes EFL/ESL experts reject such objectives. As it is assumed that it is difficult to observe much of language behaviour, the notion is seen as being incompatible with recent thinking in TEFL methodology, even though it has been proved to work in other spheres of learning and teaching. Second, it is maintained that it is difficult to determine a precise time target for a group of learners to achieve a certain objective within. Third, there is the fear that this approach may fail to take account of language acquisition, as hypothesized and described by Krashen among others, where learning a language is a slow-building spontaneous process catalysed by exposure to meaningful input in the target language (see Krashen 1983:41).

Allaying the fears of TEFL/TESL experts

The term 'behavioural objectives' tends to be confused with behaviourism. Because of this, many writers now avoid using this term and use other terms such as: 'instructional objectives' (Mager 1962/1975), 'performance or operational objectives' (Gagné and Briggs 1974/1979), or 'learning objectives' instead. Needless to say, the stating of such objectives in no way dictates the route learners will take to achieve them. One can write learning objectives for a number of different learning capabilities, including both cognitive and affective ones, regardless of the theory of language learning one espouses. Indeed many educationists in this field adopt modern cognitive theories of learning (see Gagné 1977, Introduction).

Moreover, the fact that learners have different learning abilities is allowed for in a systematic objectives-based approach. On the one hand, it is possible to analyse any objective in order to discover the prerequisites

needed for learning it, and consequently it is always possible to deal with these before addressing the new objective. On the other hand, enrichment programmes can be provided for those students who reach the desired level of performance rather too soon, while remedial materials can be given to those students who fail to reach the expected level.

In addition, this approach takes account of natural acquisition theory. In their latest book, Krashen and Terrell (1983:65) make the point that: 'A decision on the methods and materials to be used in a course is possible only once the goals of the course have been defined'. They have also listed some goals for the learning of English through their Natural Approach. If the importance of stating goals is accepted, as it seems to be, then it becomes necessary to make them so specific that two different teachers cannot interpret them differently. This is a very important condition if we want statements of objectives to be useful to teachers and textbook writers. I will try to show in the next section how this can be done.

How to write learning objectives

The first task of a course writer is to define the goals of the course.[2] As statements of aims tend to be interpreted differently by different people, it is imperative to make them as precise as possible. In other words, we need to transform general statements of aims into unambiguous statements of objectives. For such statements to be precise they have to:

a provide information about the focus of the lesson, i.e. what the students will be learning, whether these are concepts, intellectual skills, or attitudes, etc;
b specify what the learner must do in order for us to ascertain that he or she has fulfilled the objectives;
c lay down the conditions or define the situation(s) in which the intended outcomes are to occur;
d determine the level of proficiency or speed the learners must attain;
e state the proportion of students expected to attain the stated outcomes;
f fix a time limit within which the learners should achieve the objectives.

Obviously, not all six need to be specified all the time. Indeed, we may sometimes specify the first three or four things only. Below are three examples: the first is a complete statement containing all six elements, the second is an abbreviated statement containing four, while the third example illustrates how the same principles can be applied to the writing of course objectives.

An example of a complete statement of a learning objective:
'By the end of the week (TIME), all pupils (TARGET INDIVIDUALS), will be able to use (BEHAVIOUR) fairly accurately (LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE) appropriate greeting forms, such as *hello, good morning, good afternoon, good evening* (FOCUS) when meeting different people at different times (SITUATION).'

An example of an abbreviated statement of objectives:
'Given a short text of about six hundred words (FOCUS), the student will read it silently in three minutes (CONDITION), and answer orally (BEHAVIOUR) at least eight of the ten multiple choice questions (LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE).'

An example of course objectives:
'By the end of the course, the pupils will be able to express themselves accurately and appropriately in different situations, such as the following:

— in social groups, discussions, and talks
— in giving out instructions or directions for carrying out tasks, such as helping some one find their way in town, etc.
— presenting an oral summary of a written or oral report
— giving detailed information about an accident and asking for help.'

Observable behaviour

Perhaps this is the most important and at the same time the trickiest of the components. In order for us to be certain that the pupils have achieved the objectives stated, we need to remember two things when specifying the desired behaviour. First, we must use action verbs and avoid using non-action or abstract verbs (Gagné and Briggs 1974/1979:122). The verbs on the left are among the verbs that are useful, while those on the right are among those to be avoided when writing statements of learning objectives:

Verbs to use	*Verbs to avoid*
Recite, sing, say, direct, describe, write down, classify, apologize, ask, greet, describe, argue, demand, request, etc.	Enjoy, understand, learn, know, revise, listen, read, practise, etc.

Second, when we have to use words such as *understand, read,* or *listen,* we require learners to perform some observable behaviour from which we can infer that they have listened to or read something and understood it. In the second example above, the verb *read* was used, but learners were required to answer some questions based on the text in order to show that they had read and understood the text. There are, of course, other ways of providing such evidence, for example completing tables, following a route on a map, etc.

The level of performance

Although it is possible to measure objectively the performance of a listener or reader, it is difficult to measure objectively the performance of a speaker or writer (van Ek 1980:84) for at least two reasons. On the one hand, the level of performance in speech and writing depends on the abilities of the listener or reader as well. This is characteristic of situations where pupils of markedly different abilities are taking part in a role play, for example. One speaker may not be understood, not because of inability to communicate, but because of the inability of others to understand him or her. Moreover, the evaluation of a speaker or writer, to a large extent, depends on the subjective judgement of the teacher. Teachers differ not only in what they consider to be acceptable performance but also in their tolerance of pupils' mistakes. However, there are a number of guidelines which I have found to be useful in this connection.

First, we must always regard our students as progressing towards a native-like command of the target language, although this requires a lot of time, effort, and patience both from students and their teachers. Secondly, we must recognize the need not only for grammatical accuracy but also for appropriateness of the form to the particular situation in which it is uttered (Widdowson 1978:67). For example, 'Will you borrow me your book?' may be more acceptable than 'Lend me your book' uttered in an imperious tone. Finally, we should turn a blind eye to some of our pupils' mistakes, so as to encourage the development of fluency.

Target individuals and time

When planning lessons or courses, it is essential to be realistic about what students can master within any period of time, whether it is a lesson, a term, or even a period of years. For example, many practising teachers with

whom I have discussed the question of how much to teach complain that inspectors and other school administrators assess teachers' efficiency according to how much material they have covered, rather than according to how effectively it has been learned. This may well be the simplest way of finding out whether a teacher has been working or not,but it is not a valid means of evaluating the teacher. There are many other more effective methods of doing this, and one of the most important is to find out what the teacher intended the students to achieve, and what degree of success he or she had with these objectives.

Given the varying standards achieved by ESL/EFL students, it is imperative that we investigate how much students can learn within a given period of time. Obviously learners have different learning abilities, and, as the novice teacher gains in experience and wisdom, he or she will come to realize what students are capable of mastering within a given period of time, and to appreciate that what is a realistic objective for one group of students may be unrealistic for another.

Summary Statements of learning objectives written from the point of view of learners do not replace the more conventional statements describing teachers' activities; indeed, they are intended to be an essential complement. Statements of learning objectives are useful in organizing the activities both of teachers and or students. Moreover, they help the teacher to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching. For learning statements to be useful, they must be precise about (a) the object of the lesson, (b) what the pupils must do in order for us to know that they have achieved the objectives, (c) the conditions or the situations in which they will perform, (d) the level of proficiency they must attain, and (f) the time in which the objectives will be achieved. Of course, not all of these components are equally important, and in many cases we can settle for the first three or four only. □

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Notes

1 These two terms are used quite loosely in educational writings. However, 'aims' usually refer to long-term, general indications of intent, while 'objectives' are used to refer to short-term, specific indications of intent.

2 The aims of a course can be determined either by taking advice from some recognized authority such as a ministry of education, or by doing a needs analysis.

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The author

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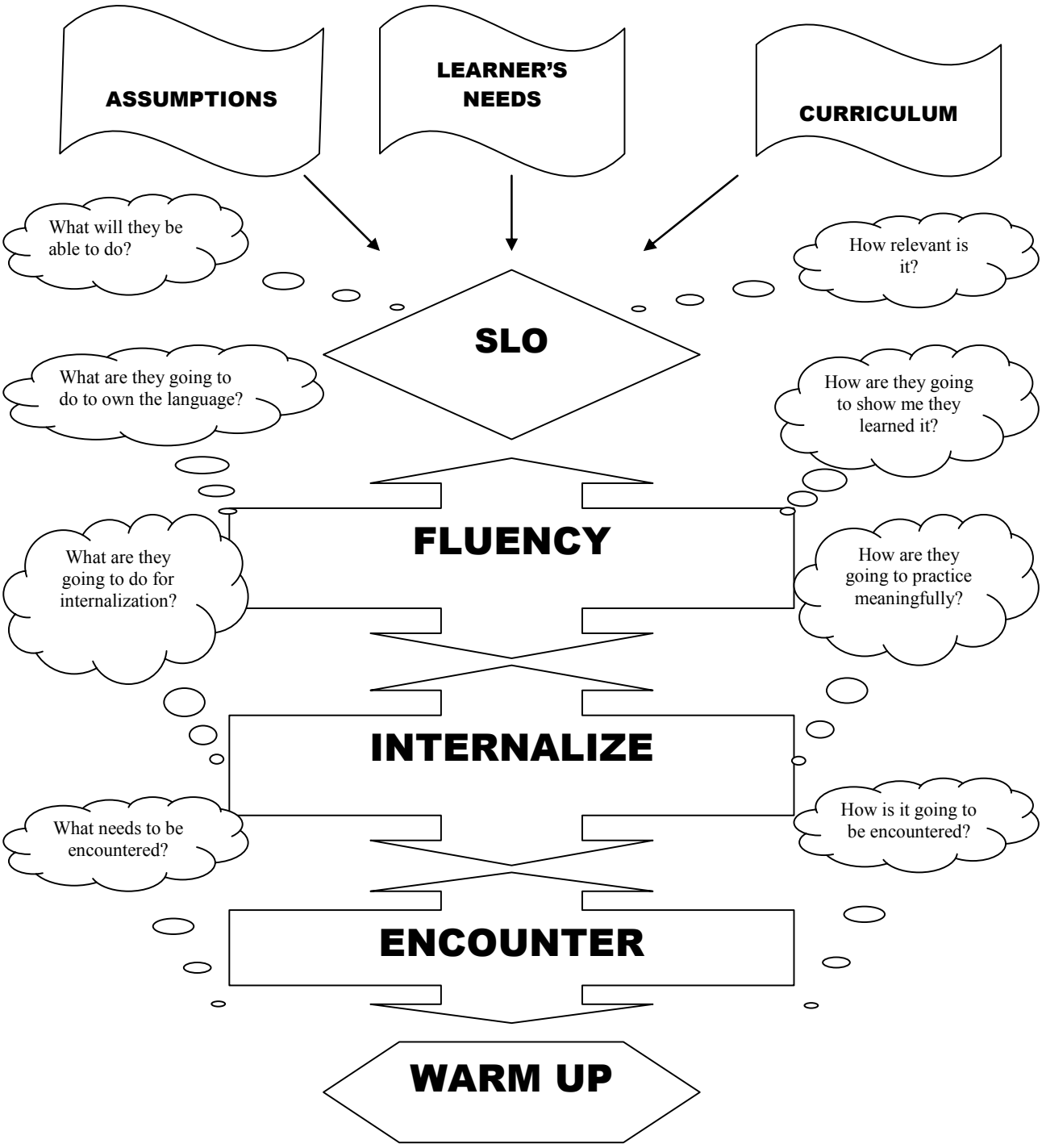
Lesson planning process



Final Questions to ask:

1. How does each part support the SLO?
2. Have I broken it down into digestible parts?
3. Have I provided them with relevant, challenging activities?
4. How am I keeping the learners in the spotlight?

How to develop a lesson plan

Overview: To begin, ask yourself three basic questions:

1. Where are your students going?
2. How are they going to get there?
3. How will you know when they've arrived?

Then begin to think about each of the following categories that form the organization of the plan. While planning, use the questions below to guide you during each stage.

Goals

1. What is the purpose, aim, or rationale for the lesson?
2. What do you want or expect students to be able to do by the end of the lesson?
3. How does the lesson tie in with the course framework?

Prerequisites

1. What must students be able to do before this lesson?
2. How will you make connections to what students already know (i.e. their background knowledge)?

Materials

1. What materials will be needed?
2. How familiar are you with the content?
3. How will the materials be used?
4. How much preparation time is required?
5. How will you instruct students to use these materials?

Lesson Procedure – Introduction

1. How will you introduce the ideas and objectives of this lesson?
2. How will you get students' attention and motivate them in order to hold their attention?
3. How can you tie lesson goals with student interests and past classroom activities?
4. What will be expected of students?

Lesson Procedure – Main Activity

1. What is the focus of the lesson?
2. What does the teacher do to facilitate learning, manage the various activities, and sustain interest?
3. How can this material be presented to ensure each student will benefit from the learning experience?

Closure/Conclusion

1. What will you use to draw the ideas together for students at the end?
2. How will you provide feedback to students to correct their misunderstandings and reinforce their learning?

Follow-up Lessons/Activities

1. What activities might you suggest for enrichment and remediation?
2. What lessons might follow as a result of this lesson?

Assessment/Evaluation

1. How will you evaluate the goals that were identified?

How will students demonstrate that they have learned and understood the goals of the lesson?

Reflective teaching questions about lessons

Overall

1) Was the lesson effective? Why or why not?
2) Did I achieve the goals and objectives I had for the lesson? Why or why not?
3) Were my students' needs addressed successfully? Why or why not?
4) Was there anything that the students didn't respond to well? Why?
5) What helped my students' learning?
6) What hindered my students' learning?
7) What were my strengths as a teacher today?
8) What were my weaknesses as a teacher today?
9) What are 3-5 things I could improve?
10) How do I plan to reach my improvement goals?

Specifics

1) Were there clear goals and objectives for the lesson?
2) Did I plan and prepare well for the lesson?
3) Was the lesson well organized and logically sequenced?
4) Were the goals and objectives of the lesson clear to the students?
5) Were my instructions brief and clear?
6) Was the contented encountered/presented effectively?
7) Were all my teaching materials appropriate and used effectively?
8) Did I provide students with time to practice?
9) Did students use different language skills?
10) Was I able to stimulate and sustain student interest and motivation for the duration of the lesson?
11) Did I praise, encourage and motivate my students as much as possible?
12) Were the students able to make connections between what I was teaching and their own lives?
13)
14) Was the challenge level suitable for my students?
15) Did the activities go as planned?
16) Were the activities meaningful and appropriate to achieve my goals and objectives?
17) Were the activities appropriate for different learning styles?
18) Did the students have enough time/opportunities to participate in the learning activities?
19) Was the material/content too much, too little, or just right for the lesson?
20) Was the seating arrangement appropriate for each activity?
21) Did I help my students become more aware of the second language culture?
22) What events during the class made me deviate form my plans?
23) Was I able to guide students/explain any difficult concepts to my students clearly?
24) Were student errors monitored and corrected effectively?
25) Did I respond well to student problems?
26) Did I pay attention to all my students as equally as possible?
27) Did I speak in the target language (English) as much as possible?
28) Was teacher talk minimized and student talk maximized?
29) Did I use gestures, body language, and/or humor to enliven the class?
30) Did the students speak in the target language (English) with each other?
31) Did students get sufficient practice using the target skills?
32) Did all students participate actively – even the reluctant ones?
33) Did I organize class time effectively (i.e. Did I have good time management skills)?
34) Was I able to recycle language which I had previously taught?
35) Were the students' performance assessed properly?
36) Did I do anything to leave the students with a feeling of achievement?

EIF Framework

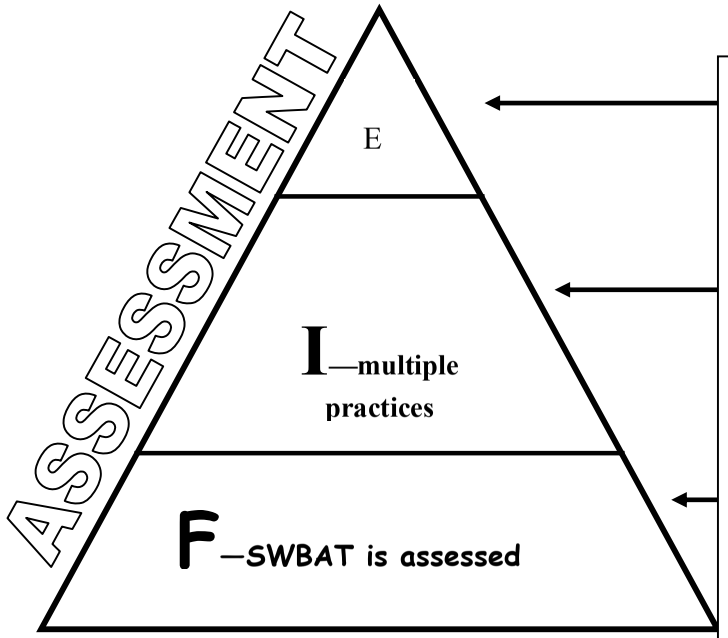
(Please answer in **full sentences** and **in your own words**)

1) How many language skills are there in English? What skills can we teach using the EIF Framework?

2) Please describe what EIF stands for and summarize your understanding of the framework.

EIF SPEAKING LESSON FRAMEWORK

Encounter, Internalize, Fluency



Inductive Encounter—student involvement

Maximize opportuni-ties for Ss contact with the language

SWBAT Students will be able to…
Student Learning Objectives are SMART! (Specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time bound).

Don't over prepare. Get mileage from your materials. How many ways can the teacher use the same materials by maximizing VAKT?

INTERNALIZE → ***FLUENCY***

ACCURACY	CONTROLLED	HANDS ON
Recognition of vocab. Structure intro. Production practice activities with great attention to error correction (overt).	Production by repetition. Activities move from limited to multiple choices—1-4. T-Ss to S-S	T- guided and directed using deductive or inductive approach

1

2

3

4

Note: the numbers 1-4 are arbitrary and meant to be reference points only on a continuum.

FLUENCY

FLUENCY	FREE	HANDS OFF
Some mastery of vocab and structures. Error correction is delayed and indirect.	Interactive, open-ended communication. Personalized, creative use of language.	Little to no control or error correction . Teacher observes and assesses SWBAT

EIF INTERNALIZE (PRACTICE) Continued

1

2

3

4

CONTINUUM RENTING TO OWNING

- Recognition drills: E-stage transitions to I-stage (meaning before form/listening before speaking)

ALM Drills such as

- Structure Repetition drills (repeat after teacher)
- Simple substitution drills (mechanical) (T supplies vocab and Ss plug into structure)
- Dialogue—repetition
- Matching structures, vocabulary

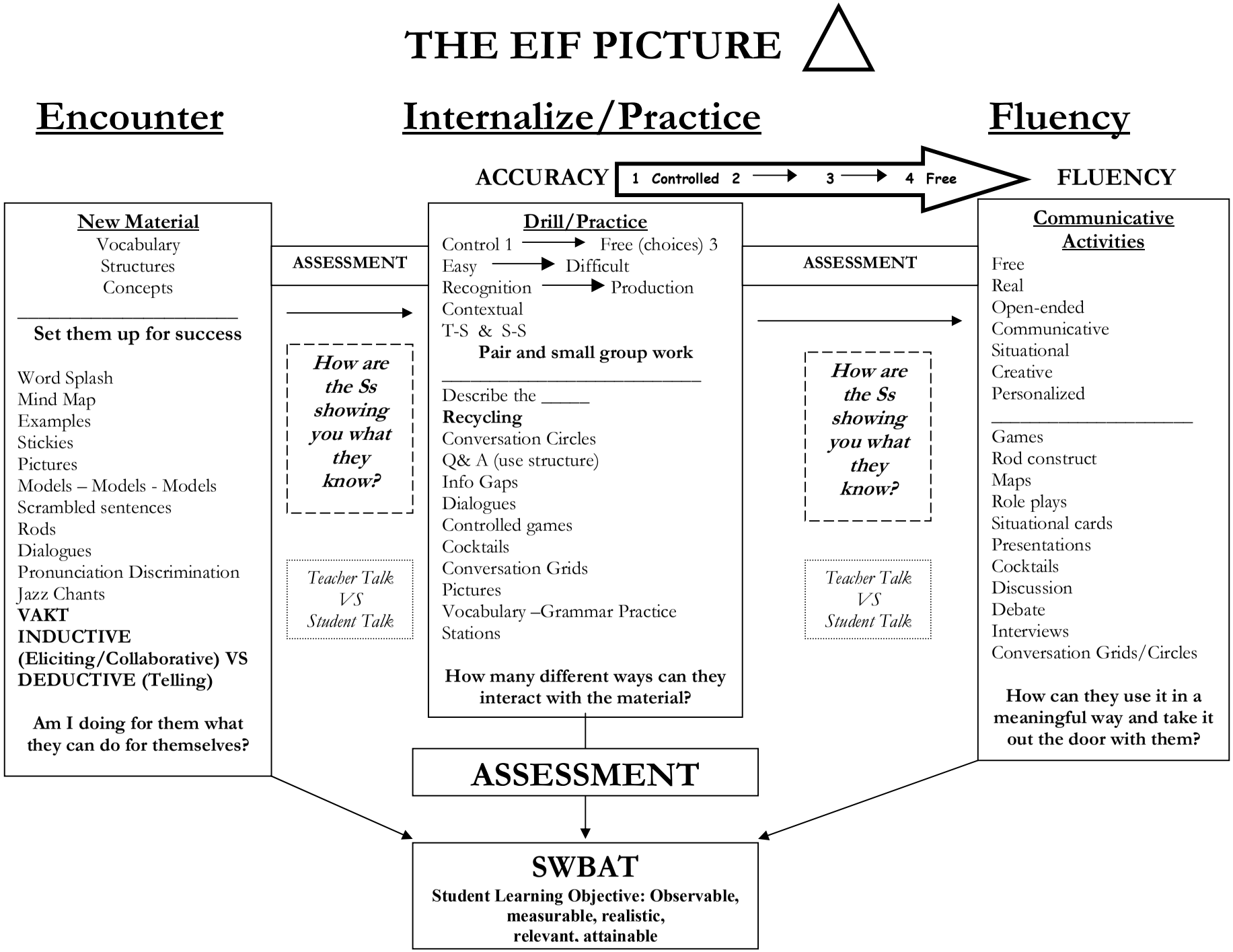
- Simple substitution drills (meaningful) (T points to a picture or acts out and Ss use in structure.
- Transformation drills—change statement to question
- Q & As
- Plug-in dialog—(T-directed, scaffolded dialog)
- Controlled games

- Cocktails
- Conversation Grids—daily routines, Find Someone Who (using set structure)
- Less controlled games
- Information Gaps

- Group work with presentations
- Role plays
- Interviews
- Conversation Grids
- Cocktails-- sharing opinions
- Situation Cards
- Construction Gaps-- Rod construct
- Opinion Gaps
- Task Completions
- Discussions
- Open-ended Games
- Debates

Note: the numbers 1-4 are arbitrary and meant to be reference points only on a continuum.

THE EIF PICTURE



Kinds of activities

Some of the activities mentioned on the previous pages are explained in greater detail or a specific example in our coursebook is mentioned.

Recognition drills

Recognition drills are meaning based assessment of the target language that is being introduced in the encounter stage of the lesson. Recognition drills consist of:

- Puzzles like "Who is Who" in the Comparatives 1 Lesson
- Direct Method Q& A sequences like steps 1-2 in the Comparative 2 Lesson
- Human or Scrambled Sentences like in the Present Perfect Lesson
- X/O Quiz like in the Can/Can't lesson (Kim Yuna can't skate. O/X)
- TPR activities like in the Locator Prepositions Lesson
- Brainstorming or mind map activities like in the Life Map Lesson
- Flashcard word/picture matching games like in the Can/Can't Lesson

Other activities are possible, but these are the examples found in the E-I-F sample lesson in our course packet.

ALM drills

See your Method textbooks chapter 4 in both Kim, et al & Larsen-Freeman.

Plug-in dialog

A plug-in dialog is basically a multi-slot substitution drill. To make it more student-centered, try to gap the dialog based on categories, and let Ss brainstorm items in that category to put into the gaps in the dialog. This allows Ss to plug-in their own words and to make the dialog their own.

A: Where are you going?
B: I'm going to ….(place)...
A: What are you going to do there?
B: I'm going to ….(action)….

Places	Actions
Church	pray, meet friends, sing in the choir, play the piano, listen to the mass

Notice one place can have more then one possible action. Ss should be encouraged to choose the action that is most appropriate for them. This makes the dialog practice more authentic then your pre-determined ALM substitution drill.

Controlled games

Talkopoly in the Present Perfect lesson is an example of a controlled game. A controlled game provides the target language/structure/forms/content that the Ss need to use in order to play the game. The ***Card, Cup X/O*** game in the Can/Can't Lesson is also a controlled practice game; content, structure and answers are all controlled by how the Ss play the game. There are numerous examples of controlled games that one can find on the internet.

Lesson controlled games

The ***Go Fish*** card game in the Can/Can't Lesson is an example of a less controlled game. It is less controlled because it provides limited target language support (or no target language support) is provided, but it's not free practice or a fluency activity because the learners are limited by the cards as to the content they use. There are also numerous less controlled that one can find on the internet.

Open-ended games

An example of an open-ended game is provided in the Comparatives 2 Lesson. The game, ***Consent***, is open-ended because no target language support is provided and the learners themselves control the choice of topic/content to be used in the game. There are also numerous open-ended games that one can find on the internet.

Cocktails or mingle activities

Cocktail and mingle activities are activities that require learners to walk around and to talk to as many of their classmates as possible. The purpose is get information from a variety of people on a limited number of questions. An opinion gap can be run as a cocktail or mingle activity. For example the topic is: **"What is your favorite….?"**

Teacher begins by making 6 groups. Each group gets a category to ask about such as games, food, TV programs, Animals to name a few. Each person in the group must come up with 4 questions about their category that is different from their group members. After each Ss has made their four Qs, the teacher has the Ss mingle and ask their questions. As a follow T could Have Ss return to their home group and share what they learned about their classmates.

Conversation grid example

Conversation grids are good when Ss are expected to memorize a dialog. For example, maybe the following dialog appears in your student book.

A. I went to a Japanese restaurant last Saturday.
B: Really, how was it?
A: It was excellent, but a little expensive.

B: How did you hear bout the restaurant?
A: I learned about it from an ad on the internet.
B: Hmm, maybe I'll take my girlfriend this weekend.

Ss begin the unit by listening and answering some questions about the dialog content, but the T decides to expand the input by gapping the dialog:

A. I went to a/an …...(place)…...(time)…..
B: Really, how was it? <chunk 1>
A: It was….(feeling)……..

B: How did you learn/hear bout the….(place)…?
A: I heard/learned about it from……(how)……. <chunk 2>
B: …….(authentic response)……

T will have Ss practice the dialog in two chunks. For a lesson controlled practice activity, Ss will brainstorm their own places, times, feelings, and how they can learn about places to go.

Grammar Focus

We learn or hear about things **from** *people* or *general categories* (*ads, posters*)

If ads are paper-based, then use: **from** an ad **in** a newspaper, magazine, or flier.
If ads are electronic, then use: **from** an ad **on** the radio, TV, or internet

Fluency Stage Conversation Grid

In the fluency the Ss have memorized the dialog through doing several practice activities. Now they use this ***conversation grid*** (see below) to demonstrate that they have mastered the dialog.

Name of Ss	Place	Time	Feeling	How
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				
5.				

Find someone who

An example a ***Find Someone Who*** activity can be found in the Present Perfect Lesson. ***Find Someone Who*** activities can be I-stage or F-stage activities depending on how much TL support and scaffolding is provided to the learners. The example in the Present Perfect Lesson is an I-stage activity because TL support is provide on the WB even though no TL support is provided on the worksheet.

Situation cards

Situation cards are usually used so that learners can participate in a Role Play. For a Role Play to be successful, the learner needs to know his or her role and situation cards describe the situation or role for a student to play. Depending on the level of the learners, situation cards can very detailed (see the second example) or very simple (see the first example).

In the first example, Ss are expected to ask other learners for advice about the situation that they are in. In the second example, learners are expected to act out the role/task that is described on the card.

Example #1.

I lost my wallet.

Example # 2

You are a manager. You have an employee that hasn't been performing well. He/she is often late. He/she also spends a lot of time checking his/her private emails and strange websites instead of doing work. Yesterday, you caught her/him sleeping at his/her desk. Please terminate the employee (in a nice way).

Dialogs and role plays

Hi, James.
Hi, Reader.
How's it going today?
Not bad, how about you?
Fine. Listen.
Yes?
I was wondering if you could talk a little bit about dialogues and role plays.
Sure…

Dialogs and role plays are essential tools in helping our learners build a solid foundation of competence and confidence. When used properly, they can simulate a real conversational situation and provide learners with the language and the structure they need to be successful in real encounters.

There is one important distinction between the two. Simply put, ***dialogs are tightly controlled conversations while role plays tend to be a lot freer***. When we use dialogs, we provide our learners with not only the language of the conversation, but also the order in which it's delivered. When we use role plays, the learners themselves determine the language and the order in which the conversation unfolds.

Dialogs

Of course, we must first think about what the dialog is going to be about. Where does it take place? What are our learners' needs? How does the dialog support the objectives of the lesson? Here are also some other considerations…

***S*imulate reality:** How do we construct an exercise that simulates reality in design and delivery? Can we use realia (props)? How does body language come into play?

***P*rovide support:** vocabulary, grammatical structures, and pronunciation may be areas they need help with. Do they understand the context and the content before practicing the dialog?

***E*ngage the learners:** Where's the language coming from? Are the learners giving us the vocabulary? How much can we elicit from them? Do they have plenty of opportunities to interact with the dialog as a class, in pairs, etc?

***A*uthentic language:** How do we balance the need for authenticity with the level of our learners? How can we keep it authentic while keeping the dialog *within reach* of our learners?

***K*eep it simple:** If the purpose is to build confidence and competence, how does the dialog reflect that? Is it too long? Are the exchanges too long or complicated? Do we need to use several dialogs to simplify the acquisition of each component?

When delivering a dialog, the exact manner may depend on the level of the learners. Here are some possible steps in dialog delivery:

Low Level Learners:	Higher Level Learners:
Set Scene	Set Scene
Focus on meaning (vocab, etc)	Focus on meaning (vocab, etc)
T reads whole dialog	Ss read whole dialog
T elicits understanding & helps	T elicits understanding & helps
T reads line by line and Ss repeat	Ss read line by line; T assess
T reads Person A; Ss Person B	If necessary, whole class reads through
T reads Person B; Ss Person A	Pair practice
½ Ss Person A; ½ Ss Person B	Practice in front of group
Pair Practice	Focus on how to change/alter/modify
Practice in front of class	

Some variations to try:

- Cut the dialog into strips and have Ss put it in order.
- Provide partial dialog and Ss fill in the blanks.
- Provide 1 side of the dialog and Ss (in pairs) come up with the other side.
- Provide a context and in small groups, Ss come up with the dialog.

- Have 3 people instead of 2 dialog.
- Create a group dialog with T guidance.
- Use a picture sequence and have Ss write up their own dialogs following the sequence.
- Provide a word list, examples of grammatical structures to include, outline and have Ss write their own.
- Show an example -of a "typical" dialog and have Ss write their own using the example as a reference.

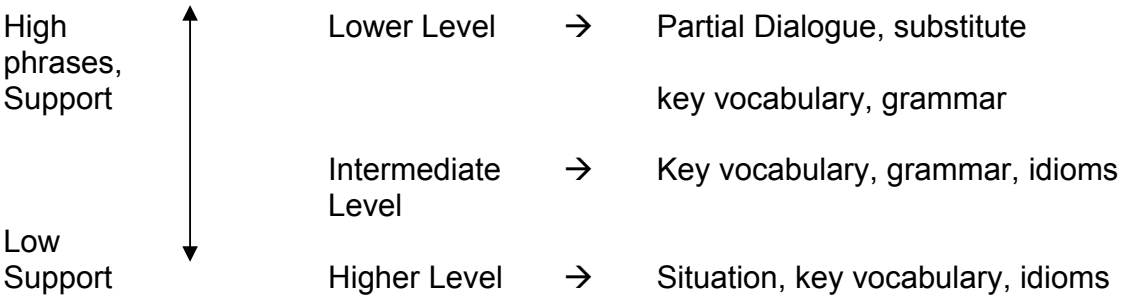
Role plays

One of the short-comings of dialogs is the chances of an authentic conversation really happening in the way the dialog is taught are, well, not very likely. Thus preparing our learner for the "real world" may start with dialogs, but should end with role plays.

Role plays are designed to give learners the opportunity to stand on their own two feet. We offer the scenario and they act it out according to their own abilities and understanding of the situation. Here are some additional considerations…

> ***A*ssess*:*** How do we assess how well they did? Are we assessing the fluidity? Fluency? Accuracy?
> ***C*reate Opportunities*:*** How many times are we going to have them role play? Do they "practice" in small groups before doing it *solo*?
> ***T*each*:*** What language or help do we need to provide them with in order for them to be successful?

Their level determines how much help we give them. Obviously, low-level learners need more support than higher-level learners do.



Some variations to try:

- Brainstorm words, phrases and structures that the Ss may use when role-playing.
- Use the role play to asses what they know and then teach them what they lack.
- Use role plays as a review from the previous class.

- Use role plays as a means of exploring emotions and their effects on language.
- Tape the role plays have the Ss listen to them to make any necessary changes.
- Use role plays as a warm up, pace changer, closing activity.
- Ss practice role play by cocktail with color coded cards signifying what role to play.
- Ss practice in small groups, pairing off with several group members before doing it in front of the class.

Wow, it looks like these two techniques can be really useful.
They sure are!
But I also get the feeling that there's a lot to consider when deciding what to do.
There is, but it becomes easier with practice.
Well, thanks for the tips.
No problem.
See you in class?
I'll be there!

Task completions

Task completion activities are task-based learning tasks adapted to the EIF lesson planning framework. A task is a communicative activity that has a clear outcome. Common tasks that learners can do in an EIF lesson plan are ranking, sorting and comparing tasks. See your Methods book by Kim et al. pages 124-127 and 135-137 for more specific details.

Discussions and debates

Although these are possible fluency activities, EFL learners have a difficult time doing them if they are completely unstructured. Imagine what would happen if you were teaching middle school students and you said:

"OK, today we have been learning about rules. Now, discuss."

Obviously nothing would happen. First, what exactly do you expect them to discuss, and second, what language are you expecting them to use to do the discussing?

To use discussions and debates in an EFL situation, you need to structure the language use in such away that the learners can handle the task and stay in the target language.

For example, a topic that most Korean learners have something to say about is school uniforms. Learners could both discuss and debate this topic if the teacher structures the activities appropriately. For a less controlled practice activity, you could have Ss discuss school uniforms by giving them a questionnaire that they "discuss" in groups. The questionnaire should ask open-ended Qs about the benefits and disadvantages of wearing school uniforms. One leaner should be the moderator to make sure all Ss have a turn

answering each Q on the questionnaire. As a follow-up activity to this discussion, leaner fill-in a graphic organizer describing the benefits and disadvantages to wearing school uniforms. After that, let Ss use the graphic organizer to have a structured debate. Provide learners with key expressions to help them introduce their "discussion points" and to "argue" for or against the wearing of school uniforms.

Speaking Guidelines

Definition: Speaking is communicating information through the spoken word.

What speaking involves:
*knowing and using the following in order to convey intended meaning:
- appropriate vocabulary and expressions
- correct pronunciation
- correct word order
- body language, tone, and facial expressions
- appropriate register (degree of politeness)

*the ability to check understanding and use repair strategies when necessary
*an awareness of who the "listener" is

A good speaking lesson:
1) Has one or more of these purposes:
    - to learn to talk about an interesting/motivating topic
    - to learn something new about others
    - to accomplish a task
2) Provides ways for students to learn the vocabulary (words and phrases appropriate for the situation) they need to express themselves.
3) Gives students a variety of opportunities to express themselves using the vocabulary.
4) Helps students develop strategies to make them selves understood.

Typical *encounter* activities:
Beginners: describing a picture or pictures; using the people and things in the classroom; learning a dialogue; watch and follow a model; elicitation from students of vocabulary they already know; Jazz chants
Intermediate/advanced: adapted versions of activities for beginners; a word map

Typical *internalize/fluency* activities:
All levels: pair conversations; games; information gaps; opinion gaps (values clarification activities); logic gaps; mixers ("cocktail party"); role plays; discussions

Recommended resources:
Kehe, David and P.D. Kehe (1994). *Conversation Strategies: Pair and Group Activities for Developing Communicative Competence*. Brattleboro, VT: Pro Lingua Associates.

Klippe, Frederike (1984). *Keep Talking: Communicative fluency activities for language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Winn-Bell Olsen, Judy (1977). *Communication Starters and Other Activities for the ESL Classroom*. Hayward, CA: Alemany Press.

Techniques for Speaking Lessons

Conveying information/language to learners:

Posters
Blackboard/Whiteboard
Power point
Videos
Authentic materials
Research (Internet/community)
Jigsaw reading
Presentation
Overheads/PPTs
Guest Speakers
Observation
Metaphors
Eliciting
Giving worksheets for learners to deduce
Think/Pair/Share activity
Learners presenting
Listening
Reading
Doing it the wrong way
Story-Telling
Predictin

Providing opportunities for learners to practice and internalize language:

Pair activities
Jigsaw activities
Information gap activities
Opinion activities
Dialog building
Problem solving activities
Sequencing activities
Project work
Strategic interactions
Ss individual presentations
Role play
Board games
Ball toss
Matching
Making a video
Scavenger hunt
TPR
Field trips
Real-life encounters ("mystery guest")
Experiential trips into community
News reel
Video
Value gaps
Letter/journal writing
Skits

Creating real use opportunities for learners:

Treasure hunts	Telephoning each other/teacher
Sending them out into the community to find information	Give homework which requires them to find real use opportunities and report back later
Project work	Research projects-Internet, etc.
Classroom language	Bringing the real world into the classroom
Speakers	Authentic materials
Community-based learning	Personalization
Letter-writing/e-mail	Simulation and role play
Conversation partners /interviewing/public	Providing time and spaces for reflection on practice
Class time which focuses on analyzing opportunities for real use sharing with other students in preparation for above	

Ways to group learners

String
Pick a rod (colors match)
Matching cards or pictures (by color or shape or thematic groups, etc.)
Stand up and move (by name or touch)
Count off by 2's, 3's, etc.
Pairs, three's
Mingle and chat to music- STOP
Boys/girls; everyone wearing _____ get in one group, etc.
Someone you haven't talked to
Likes/dislikes-find something in common
Find someone who with only one possibility
Magazine picture puzzle pieces
Matching sound or action such as animal/instrument/vehicle or picture/emotion, etc…
Line-ups and divide
Dice or playing car

Working with Content

Teachers must decide **how much content students can focus on** without being overwhelmed. They also need to create a **logical sequence** that helps students work toward a final objective.

In the juggling lesson, for example, the throw and catch action is a fundamental skill that needs to be learned early in the process. By then adding a second ball and spending time on the over/under pattern, the teacher provides a kind of stone to cross the river mentioned metaphorically in the Preview section.

This process of breaking down content and helping students focus is known as **scaffolding** and allows the students to work on content in a meaningful way that is challenging but not overwhelming. In this way, the teacher provides stepping stones for students to cross the river and reach their learning objectives.

With the inclusion of pictures and verbal directions, the teacher helps students focus on key elements of juggling. Noting visually how one ball goes under another helps students learn that pattern. Doing the one-two-three motion without the balls might help some students internalize the pattern. Effective teachers need to be able to break down content so that students can progress step by step. This type of thinking requires the teacher to have a solid understanding of the content, a sense of what is initially possible for students, and a clear, student-centered objective.

Allowing Students to Encounter and Clarify Content

Students rarely enter a learning situation with no knowledge of the content. In the first stage of the juggling lesson, sometimes called a **presentation stage,** the teacher gives students a chance to share what they already know about juggling. This allows students to activate their prior experiences, ideas, and feelings (also called **schema activation**).

It is important to note that students are **encountering** key elements of juggling throughout the lesson, and that students may present key information to each other while observing and discussing their juggling patterns. In a classroom setting with a large group of students, the teacher has a stage in which to **elicit** what some students already know so all students can benefit from it. In this way, the teacher builds the lesson on the abilities and needs of specific students.

The use of **pictures, demonstrations, verbal explanations, peer teaching,** and **practice** all contribute to students **relating new information to prior knowledge,** a key feature of learning. By using a variety of sensory modes, the teacher helps students with different learning styles **notice key features** in the content.

Allowing Students to Work on Accuracy

In the juggling lesson, it is important that students first master the initial throw and catch motion. The throw needs to have an arc to it and move from right to left or left to right, at least in this early stage of juggling. If the move is not done correctly, it will be very difficult to juggle without dropping the balls later on.

A student might start juggling and look proficient, only to drop all of the balls almost immediately. To master the different elements of juggling, students need time to **remember and internalize** movements. The initial throwing of one ball in Stage 5 is an example of just such a controlled practice. The student encounters the key elements of the throw/catch movement through the picture and verbal explanation, then remembers and internalizes that part of juggling by doing it over and over. This is not mindless **repetition**—the student will likely **experiment** with exactly how to hold the ball by noting where it lands in the hand, how much strength to apply, etc. In this way, students continue to **make discoveries and encounter** important aspects of juggling even in the practice stages.

They will continue to **notice** the results of their efforts but will also benefit from **feedback and correction** from the teacher and other students. The student might **personalize** the movement by imagining the ball is an egg, requiring a delicate touch. They might say to themselves "nice and soft" or "one-two, one-two" as a way of **making it their own.** This stage of the lesson is a kind of **controlled practice** in that the content and student activity are both very **restricted.** As the lesson progresses, the students continue to **recycle** what they have learned and move toward a **freer practice** that actually resembles juggling.

Helping Students with Effectiveness and Ease (Fluency)

As the student internalizes the juggling moves, they develop an **unconscious competence:** they no longer actively think about what they are doing. Just as you tie your shoes or drive while thinking about other things, the fluent use of something involves doing it with a certain ease.

In the juggling lesson, the teacher creates a **real-world context** by demonstrating what juggling looks like at the beginning. In Stages 6 and 7 of the juggling lesson, students may fluently use the throw and catch technique while trying to remember/internalize the over/under technique with two balls. From this example, it's clear that accuracy and fluency are not necessarily a linear process. A competent juggler might go back and focus on their throw and catch technique when trying to progress to juggling four balls.

A combination of **accuracy and fluency** means that someone can juggle without dropping the balls or straining and still carry on other actions like chatting with someone and smiling. Part of being fluent means using the skill for your own purposes. In the case of juggling, the purpose might be entertaining yourself or others. A competent juggler is not easily distracted and does not mind people talking around them. That is part of the **real-world context** of juggling. If a student stays within a controlled classroom environment, it is not clear that they have **mastered or acquired** the content.

It is also important to point out that lessons do not always begin with presentation and move to controlled practice. In fact, many approaches to lesson design—**Task-based Learning** and the **Test-Teach-Test** model—involve starting with a fluency activity to see what students can do and then improving on or expanding that skill. (See the For Further Reading section at the end of the chapter for more about these lesson designs.) In the case of juggling, a later lesson might ask students to start with basic juggling then move to doing tricks like throwing the balls higher or spinning around to catch them.

The ultimate purpose of learning a foreign language is to use it to effectively communicate in real-world situations.

Language Learning

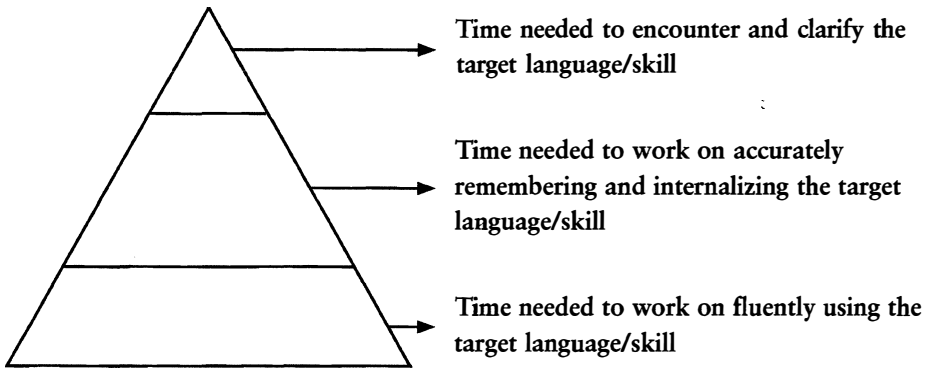
The principles used in the juggling lesson can be applied to language learning as well. Teachers can **assess** student learning only when they see students use their knowledge to accomplish communicative tasks. Just as the ability to describe juggling does not mean one can juggle, a student that can explain English grammar may not be able to describe their town in English. The other volumes in this series of books will explore what it means to effectively use language to communicate.

The ECRIF Triangle (Encounter, Clarify, Remember/Internalize, Use Fluently)

If you look at the juggling lesson in terms of time spent, it's clear that a relatively small amount of time is spent **encountering and clarifying** the actual juggling moves (Stages 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 9). Quite a bit of time is spent trying to **remember and internalize** the moves accurately (Stages 5, 6, 8, 9, 10). The most time really is required for Stages 10 and 11 so the learner can **fluently use** those moves and juggle effectively.

It is important to remember that students may always work on accuracy by returning to previous stages and doing focused practice activities. In the juggling lesson, you had the option of going back and working on the throw and catch motion after being introduced to the over/under and one-two-three patterns. In this way, what you had already studied was **recycled** over several lessons.

An important aspect of staging a lesson is to think about how much time and focus is required for students to move from accuracy to fluency. This diagram illustrates the time necessary to improve skills and move toward mastery.



Originally developed by Professor Pat Moran at the School for International Training, this triangle diagram illustrates a basic principle of learning: Students need more time to remember, internalize, and use content than to encounter and clarify it. Understanding this principle helps a teacher stage single lessons and think about how to help students learn over a longer period. Even after the juggling lesson, for example, you will have to practice over a few days or even weeks to really feel confident.

Going back to Mark's story from the Preview section, it's clear that the bulk of his challenge was encountering and clarifying. The content he encountered was not broken down into reasonable chunks, and he did not have a chance to work with the content so that he could remember and internalize it.

Take a moment to review the information introduced to this point. Answer the questions posed at the beginning of the Points of View section.

Thoughts to Consider

What connections do you make between these quotes and your own ideas about staging a learning experience?

"What a child can do today with assistance, she will be able to do by herself tomorrow."

– Lev Vygotsky

"The mind is not a vessel to be filled, but a fire to be ignited."

– Plutarch

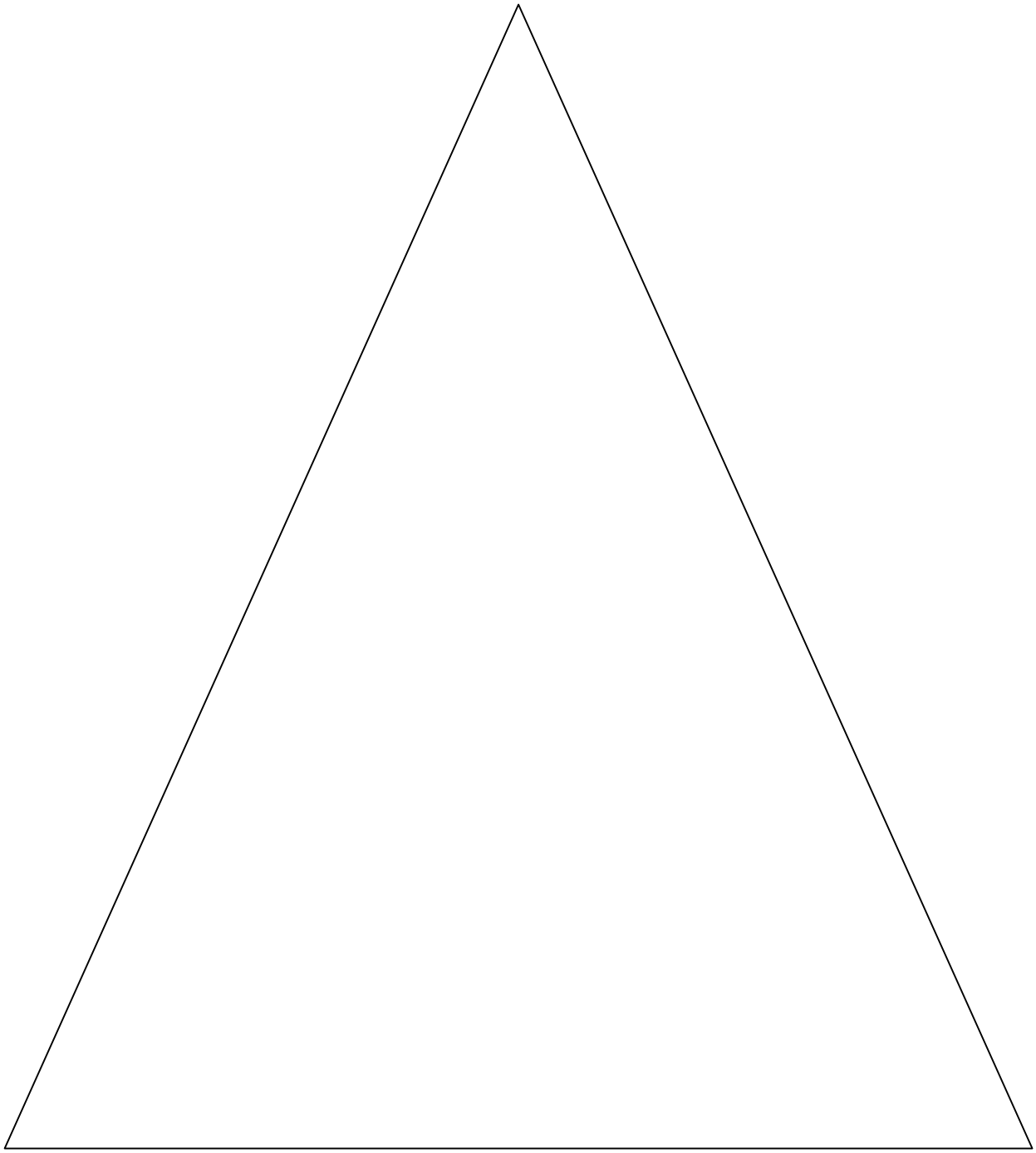
"Complexity creates confusion, simplicity focus."

– Edward de Bono

"I am always ready to learn, although I do not always like being taught."

– Winston Churchill

Use this for notes:



Tomlinson's Introduction

(Please answer in **full sentences** and **in your own words**)

1) Which three statements about materials do you agree with the most? Why?

Introduction: principles and procedures of materials development

Brian Tomlinson

1.1 Introduction

This book concerns itself with what we could do in order to improve the quality of materials which are used for the teaching and learning of second languages. I would like to start the book by considering some of the steps which I think we could take and at the same time introducing issues which are dealt with in the various chapters of the book. I should stress that although the contributors to this book are basically like-minded in their approach to the development of L2 materials, many of the issues raised are controversial and some of the stances taken in the book are inevitably contradictory. In such cases we hope you will be informed, stimulated and able to make up your own mind by relating the authors' stances to your own experience.

I am going to argue that what those of us involved in materials development should do is to:

1. Clarify the terms and concepts commonly used in discussing materials development.
2. Carry out systematic evaluations of materials currently in use in order to find out to what degree, how and why they facilitate language learning.
3. Consider the potential applications for materials development of current research into second language acquisition and into language use.
4. Consider the potential applications of what both teachers and learners believe is valuable in the teaching and learning of a second or foreign language.
5. Pool our resources and bring together researchers, writers, teachers, learners and publishers in joint endeavours to develop quality materials.

1.2 Terms and concepts

Let me start by clarifying some of the basic terms and concepts which you will frequently encounter in this book.

1.2.1 Materials

Most people associate the term 'language-learning materials' with coursebooks because that has been their main experience of using materials. However, in this book the term is used to refer to anything which is used by teachers or learners to facilitate the learning of a language. Materials could obviously be videos, DVDs, emails, YouTube, dictionaries, grammar books, readers, workbooks or photocopied exercises. They could also be newspapers, food packages, photographs, live talks by invited native speakers, instructions given by a teacher, tasks written on cards or discussions between learners. In other words, they can be anything which is deliberately used to increase the learners' knowledge and/or experience of the language. Keeping this pragmatic concept of materials in mind can help materials developers to utilise as many sources of input as possible and, even more importantly, can help teachers to realise that they are also materials developers and that they are ultimately responsible for the materials that their learners use. It can also be useful to keep in mind that materials 'can be instructional in that they inform learners about the language, they can be experiential in that they provide exposure to the language in use, they can be elicitative in that they stimulate language use, or they can be exploratory in that they facilitate discoveries about language use' (Tomlinson 2001: 66).

1.2.2 Materials development

'Materials development is both a field of study and a practical undertaking. As a field it studies the principles and procedures of the design, implementation and evaluation of language teaching materials' (Tomlinson 2001: 66). As a practical undertaking it refers to anything which is done by writers, teachers or learners to provide sources of language input, to exploit those sources in ways which maximise the likelihood of intake and to stimulate purposeful output: in other words the supplying of information about and/or experience of the language in ways designed to promote language learning. Ideally the 'two aspects of materials development are interactive in that the theoretical studies inform and are informed by the development and use of classroom materials' (Tomlinson 2001: 66).

Materials developers might write textbooks, tell stories, bring advertisements into the classroom, express an opinion, provide samples of language use or read a poem aloud. Whatever they do to provide input, they do so ideally in principled ways related to what they know about how languages can be effectively learned. All the chapters in this book concentrate on the three vital questions of what should be provided for

the learners, how it should be provided and what can be done with it to promote language learning.

Although many chapters in this book do focus on the development of coursebook materials (e.g. Jan Bell and Roger Gower in Chapter 6, Hitomi Masuhara in Chapter 10 and Frances Amrani in Chapter 11), some focus on electronic ways of delivering materials (e.g. Gary Motteram in Chapter 12 and Lisa Kervin and Beverly Derewianka in Chapter 13), a number of others focus on teacher development of materials (e.g. David Jolly and Rod Bolitho in Chapter 5 and Rod Ellis in Chapter 9), and some suggest ways in which learners can develop materials for themselves (e.g. Jane Willis in Chapter 3 and Alan Maley in Chapter 15).

1.2.3 Materials evaluation

This term refers to attempts to measure the value of materials. In many cases this is done impressionistically and consists of attempts to predict whether or not the materials will work, in the sense that the learners will be able to use them without too much difficulty and will enjoy the experience of doing so. A number of chapters in this book challenge this vague, subjective concept of evaluation and advocate more systematic and potentially revealing approaches. For example, Frances Amrani in Chapter 11 reports ways of reviewing materials prior to publication which can improve the quality of the materials, Andrew Littlejohn in Chapter 8 proposes a more objective, analytical approach to evaluation and Rod Ellis in Chapter 9 argues the need for whilst-use and post-use evaluation of materials in order to find out what the actual effects of the materials are. Other recent publications which propose systematic approaches to the evaluation of language-learning materials include McGrath (2002), McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2011), Rubdi (2003) and Tomlinson (2003a).

All the chapters in this book implicitly accept the view that for materials to be valuable, the learning points should be potentially useful to the learners and that the learning procedures should maximise the likelihood of the learners actually learning what they want and need to learn. It is not necessarily enough that the learners enjoy and value the materials.

1.2.4 Language teaching

Most people think of teaching as the overt presentation of information by teachers to learners. In this book the term 'teaching' is used to refer to anything done by materials developers or teachers to facilitate the learning of the language. This could include the teacher standing at the front of the classroom explaining the conventions of direct speech in

English, it could include a textbook providing samples of language use and guiding learners to make discoveries from them, it could include a textbook inviting learners to reflect on the way they have just read a passage or it could include the teacher providing the vocabulary a learner needs whilst participating in a challenging task. Teaching can be direct (in that it transmits information overtly to the learners) or it can be indirect (in that it helps the learners to discover things for themselves). It can also be pre-emptive (in that it aims to prevent problems), facilitative (in that it aims to help the learners do something), responsive (in that it responds to a need for language when it occurs) or remedial in that it aims to remedy problems. Most chapters in this book focus on indirect teaching as the most effective way of facilitating the learning of a language. For example, in Chapters 2 and 3 Randi Reppen and Jane Willis suggest ways in which learners can be helped to make discoveries about language use by analysing samples of language in use, in Chapter 16 Grethe Hooper Hansen looks at ways in which learners can be helped to learn from information which is actually peripheral to the task they are focusing on, and in Chapter 17 Brian Tomlinson proposes procedures which could enable self-access learners to learn for and about themselves.

1.2.5 Language learning

Learning is normally considered to be a conscious process which consists of the committing to memory of information relevant to what is being learned. Whilst such direct learning of, for example, spelling rules, conventions of greetings and vocabulary items can be useful to the language learner, it is arguable that much language learning consists of subconscious development of generalisations about how the language is used and of both conscious and subconscious development of skills and strategies which apply these generalisations to acts of communication. Language learning can be explicit (i.e. the learners are aware of when and what they are learning) or it can be implicit (i.e. the learners are not aware of when and what they are learning). Language learning can also be of declarative knowledge (i.e. knowledge about the language system) or of procedural knowledge (i.e. knowledge of how the language is used). Most of the chapters in this book take the position that communicative competence is primarily achieved as a result of implicit, procedural learning. But most of them also acknowledge that explicit learning of both declarative and procedural knowledge is of value in helping learners to pay attention to salient features of language input and in helping them to participate in planned discourse (i.e. situations such as giving a presentation or writing a story which allow time for

planning and monitoring). Consequently many of the chapters view the main objectives of materials development as the provision of the meaningful experience of language in use and of opportunities to reflect on this experience. This is the position taken by Ronald Carter, Rebecca Hughes and Michael McCarthy in Chapter 4, in which they argue for the need to expose learners to spoken English as it is actually used. It is also the position taken by Brian Tomlinson in Chapter 14 in which he proposes experiential ways of helping learners to transfer the high level skill of visualisation from their L1 reading process, by Grethe Hooper Hansen in Chapter 16 when she advocates multi-level experience of language in use and by Brian Tomlinson in Chapter 17 when he suggests an experiential approach to self-access learning of language.

1.3 Systematic evaluation of materials

In Chapter 7 Philip Prowse gets a number of well-known materials writers to reveal how they set about writing materials. The remarkable thing is that most of them follow their intuitions rather than an overt specification of objectives, principles and procedures. Obviously these intuitions are informed by experience of what is valuable to learners of a language and in many cases they lead to the development of valuable materials. But how useful it would be if we were able to carry out long-term, systematic evaluations of materials which are generally considered to be successful. I know of a number of famous textbook writers who do sit down and identify the popular and apparently successful features of their competitors so that they can clone these features and can avoid those features which appear to be unpopular and unsuccessful. Doing much more than this sort of ad hoc impressionistic evaluation of materials would involve considerable time and expenditure and would create great problems in controlling such variables as learner motivation, out-of-class experience and learner–teacher rapport. But longitudinal, systematic evaluations of popular materials could be undertaken by consortia of publishers, universities and associations such as MATSDA, and they could certainly provide empirically validated information about the actual effects of different types of language-learning materials. Such research is carried out by publishers, but it tends to focus on what makes the materials popular rather than on what effect the materials have on language acquisition, and most of this research is understandably confidential (see Chapter 11 by Frances Amrani for information about this type of research).

A number of chapters in this book try to push the profession forward towards using more systematic evaluation procedures as a means of informing materials development. In Chapter 8 Andrew Littlejohn

exemplifies procedures for achieving thorough and informative analysis of what materials are actually doing, in Chapter 11 Frances Amrani reports on systematic evaluations of materials carried out by publishers prior to the publication of materials, and in Chapter 5 David Jolly and Rod Bolitho propose ways in which learner evaluations of materials feed into the development process. In Chapter 9 Rod Ellis insists that we should stop judging materials by their apparent appeal and start evaluating them by observing what the learners actually do when using the materials and by finding out what they seem to learn as a result of using them.

1.4 Second language acquisition research and materials development

> It seems clear that researchers cannot at present agree upon a single view of the learning process which can safely be applied wholesale to language teaching. (Tarone and Yule 1989)

> no second language acquisition research can provide a definitive answer to the real problems of second language teaching at this point. … There is no predetermined correct theory of language teaching originating from second language acquisition research. (Cook 1996)

The quotations above are still true today and it is also still true that we should not expect definitive answers from second language acquisition (SLA) research, nor should we expect one research-based model of language acquisition to triumph over all the others. We must therefore be careful not to prescribe applications of unsubstantiated theories. But this should not stop us from applying what we *do* know about second and foreign language learning to the development of materials designed to facilitate that process. What we do know about language learning is a result of thousands of years of reflective teaching and of at least a century of experimental and observational research. If we combined the convincing anecdotal and empirical evidence available to us, we could surely formulate criteria which could contribute to the development of successful materials. From the reports of many of the writers in this volume it would seem that they rely on their intuitions about language learning when they set out to write textbooks. This also seems to be true of many of the authors who have contributed reports on their processes for materials development to a book called *Getting Started: Materials Writers on Materials Writing* (Hidalgo, Hall and Jacobs 1995). The validity of their intuitions is demonstrated by the quality of their materials. But intuitions are only useful if they are informed by recent and relevant classroom experience and by knowledge of the findings of recent second language

acquisition research. And all of us could benefit from more explicit guidelines when setting out to develop materials for the classroom.

What I am arguing for is a compilation of learning principles and procedures which most teachers agree contribute to successful learning plus a compilation of principles and procedures recommended by most SLA researchers. A marriage of the two compilations could produce a list of principles and procedures which would provide a menu of potentially profitable options for materials developers from the classroom teacher adapting a coursebook unit to the author(s) setting out to develop a series of commercially published textbooks for the global market. Such a list should aim to be informative rather than prescriptive and should not give the impression that its recommendations are supported by conclusive evidence and by all teachers and researchers. And, of course, it needs to be supplemented by information about how the target language actually works (for ways of gaining such information, see, for example, Chapter 2 in this book by Randi Reppen, Chapter 3 by Jane Willis and Chapter 4 by Ronald Carter, Rebecca Hughes and Michael McCarthy). My own list of basic principles is as follows:

1. A prerequisite for language acquisition is that the learners are exposed to a rich, meaningful and comprehensible input of language in use.
2. In order for the learners to maximise their exposure to language in use, they need to be engaged both affectively and cognitively in the language experience.
3. Language learners who achieve positive affect are much more likely to achieve communicative competence than those who do not.
4. L2 language learners can benefit from using those mental resources which they typically utilise when acquiring and using their L1.
5. Language learners can benefit from noticing salient features of the input and from discovering how they are used.
6. Learners need opportunities to use language to try to achieve communicative purposes.

For a justification of these principles and a discussion of ways of applying them to materials development see Tomlinson (2010). See also McGrath (2002), McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2011) and Tomlinson (2008) for discussion of the application of learning principles to materials development.

Of course, one problem is that there is considerable disagreement amongst researchers about some of the main issues relevant to the teaching and learning of languages. Some argue that the main prerequisite for language acquisition is comprehensible input (i.e. being exposed to language you can understand); others argue that the main prerequisite

is opportunity for output (i.e. situations in which you have to actually use the language). Some researchers argue that the best way to acquire a language is to do so naturally without formal lessons or conscious study of the language; others argue that conscious attention to distinctive features of the language is necessary for successful language learning. Try skimming through an overview of second language acquisition research (e.g. Ellis 2008) and you will soon become aware of some of the considerable (and, in my view, stimulating) disagreements amongst SLA researchers. Such disagreements are inevitable, given our limited access to the actual mental processes involved in the learning and using of languages, and often the intensity of the arguments provoke additional and illuminating research. However, I believe that there is now a sufficient consensus of opinion for SLA research to be used as an informative base for the formulation of criteria for the teaching of languages. The following is a summary of what I think many SLA researchers would agree to be some of the basic principles of second language acquisition relevant to the development of materials for the teaching of languages.

1.4.1 Materials should achieve impact

Impact is achieved when materials have a noticeable effect on learners, that is when the learners' curiosity, interest and attention are attracted. If this is achieved, there is a better chance that some of the language in the materials will be taken in for processing.

Materials can achieve impact through:

(a) novelty (e.g. unusual topics, illustrations and activities);
(b) variety (e.g. breaking up the monotony of a unit routine with an unexpected activity; using many different text-types taken from many different types of sources; using a number of different instructor voices on a CD);
(c) attractive presentation (e.g. use of attractive colours; lots of white space; use of photographs);
(d) appealing content (e.g. topics of interest to the target learners; topics which offer the possibility of learning something new; engaging stories; universal themes; local references);
(e) achievable challenge (e.g. tasks which challenge the learners to think).

One obvious point is that impact is variable. What achieves impact with a class in Brazil might not achieve the same impact with a class in Austria. And what achieves impact with ten learners in a class might not achieve impact with the other five. In order to maximise the likelihood of achieving impact, the writer needs to know as much as possible about

the target learners and about what is likely to attract their attention. In order to achieve impact with most of the learners, the writer also needs to offer choice. The more varied the choice of topics, texts and activities, the more likely is the achievement of impact.

1.4.2 Materials should help learners to feel at ease

> Research has shown … the effects of various forms of anxiety on acquisition: the less anxious the learner, the better language acquisition proceeds. Similarly, relaxed and comfortable students apparently can learn more in shorter periods of time. (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982)

Although it is known that pressure can stimulate some types of language learners, I think that most researchers would agree that most language learners benefit from feeling at ease and that they lose opportunities for language learning when they feel anxious, uncomfortable or tense (see, for example, Oxford 1999). Some materials developers argue that it is the responsibility of the teacher to help the learners to feel at ease and that the materials themselves can do very little to help. I disagree.

Materials can help learners to feel at ease in a number of ways. For example, I think that most learners:

- feel more comfortable with written materials with lots of white space than they do with materials in which lots of different activities are crammed together on the same page;
- are more at ease with texts and illustrations that they can relate to their own culture than they are with those which appear to them to be culturally alien;
- are more relaxed with materials which are obviously trying to help them to learn than they are with materials which are always testing them.

Feeling at ease can also be achieved through a 'voice' which is relaxed and supportive, through content and activities which encourage the personal participation of the learners, through materials which relate the world of the book to the world of the learner and through the absence of activities which could threaten self-esteem and cause humiliation. To me the most important (and possibly least researched) factor is that of the 'voice' of the materials. Conventionally, language-learning materials are de-voiced and anonymous. They are usually written in a semi-formal style and reveal very little about the personality, interests and experiences of the writer. What I would like to see materials writers do is to chat to the learners casually in the same way that good teachers do and to try to achieve personal contact with them by revealing their own preferences, interests and opinions. I would also like to see them

try to achieve a personal voice (Beck, McKeown and Worthy 1995) by ensuring that what they say to the learners contains such features of orality as:

- informal discourse features (e.g. contracted forms, informal lexis);
- the active rather than the passive voice;
- concreteness (e.g. examples, anecdotes);
- inclusiveness (e.g. not signalling intellectual, linguistic or cultural superiority over the learners).

1.4.3 Materials should help learners to develop confidence

> Relaxed and self-confident learners learn faster (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982).

Most materials developers recognise the need to help learners to develop confidence, but many of them attempt to do so through a process of simplification. They try to help the learners to feel successful by asking them to use simple language to accomplish easy tasks such as completing substitution tables, writing simple sentences and filling in the blanks in dialogues. This approach is welcomed by many teachers and learners. But in my experience it often only succeeds in diminishing the learners. They become aware that the process is being simplified for them and that what they are doing bears little resemblance to actual language use. They also become aware that they are not really using their brains and that their apparent success is an illusion. And this awareness can even lead to a reduction in confidence. I prefer to attempt to build confidence through activities which try to 'push' learners slightly beyond their existing proficiency by engaging them in tasks which are stimulating, which are problematic, but which are achievable too. It can also help if the activities encourage learners to use and to develop their existing extra-linguistic skills, such as those which involve being imaginative, being creative or being analytical. Elementary-level learners can often gain greater confidence from making up a story, writing a short poem or making a grammatical discovery than they can from getting right a simple drill. For more discussion of the value of setting learners achievable challenges see de Andres (1999) and Tomlinson (2003b, 2006).

The value of engaging the learners' minds and utilising their existing skills seems to be becoming increasingly realised in countries that have decided to produce their own materials through textbook projects rather than to rely on global coursebooks, which seem to underestimate the abilities of their learners. See Tomlinson (1995) for a report on such projects in Bulgaria, Morocco and Namibia, and Popovici and Bolitho (2003) for a report on a project in Romania. See Tomlinson *et al.* (2001)

and Masuhara *et al.* (2008) for evaluations of global coursebooks, and Tomlinson (in press) for a discussion of the importance of engagement.

1.4.4 What is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant and useful

Most teachers recognise the need to make the learners aware of the potential relevance and utility of the language and skills they are teaching. And researchers have confirmed the importance of this need. For example, Stevick (1976) cites experiments which have shown the positive effect on learning and recall of items that are of personal significance to the learner. And Krashen (1982) and Wenden (1987) report research showing the importance of apparent relevance and utility in language acquisition.

In ESP (English for specific purposes) materials it is relatively easy to convince the learners that the teaching points are relevant and useful by relating them to known learner interests and to 'real-life' tasks, which the learners need or might need to perform in the target language. In general English materials this is obviously more difficult; but it can be achieved by narrowing the target readership and/or by researching what the target learners are interested in and what they really want to learn the language for. An interesting example of such research was a questionnaire in Namibia which revealed that two of the most important reasons for secondary school students wanting to learn English were so they would be able to write love letters in English and so that they would be able to write letters of complaint for villagers to the village headman and from the village headman to local authorities.

Perception of relevance and utility can also be achieved by relating teaching points to interesting and challenging classroom tasks and by presenting them in ways which could facilitate the achievement of the task outcomes desired by the learners. The 'new' learning points are not relevant and useful because they will help the learners to achieve long-term academic or career objectives, but because they could help the learners to achieve short-term task objectives now. Of course, this only works if the tasks are begun first and the teaching is then provided in response to discovered needs. This is much more difficult for the materials writer than the conventional approach of teaching a predetermined point first and then getting the learners to practise and then produce it. But it can be much more valuable in creating relevance and utility for the teaching point; and it can be achieved by, for example, referring learners to 'help pages' before and/or after doing sub-tasks or by getting learners to make decisions about strategies they will use in a task and then referring them to 'help pages'. So, for example, learners could be asked to choose from (or add to) a list of project tasks and then to decide on strategies

for achieving their project targets. Those learners who decide to research local documents could be referred to a section in the book which provides advice on scanning, whereas those learners who decide to use questionnaires could be referred to a section which deals with writing questions.

Obviously providing the learners with a choice of topic and task is important if you are trying to achieve perception of relevance and utility in a general English textbook.

1.4.5 Materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment

Many researchers have written about the value of learning activities that require the learners to make discoveries for themselves. For example, Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith (1988) assert that the role of the classroom and of teaching materials is to aid the learner to make efficient use of the resources in order to facilitate self-discovery. Similar views are expressed by Bolitho and Tomlinson (1995); Bolitho *et al.* (2003), Tomlinson (1994a, 2007) and Wright and Bolitho (1993).

It would seem that learners profit most if they invest interest, effort and attention in the learning activity. Materials can help them to achieve this by providing them with choices of focus and activity, by giving them topic control and by engaging them in learner-centred discovery activities. Again, this is not as easy as assuming that what is taught should be learned, but it is possible and extremely useful for textbooks to facilitate learner self-investment. In my experience, one of the most profitable ways of doing this is to get learners interested in a written or spoken text, to get them to respond to it globally and affectively and then to help them to analyse a particular linguistic feature of it in order to make discoveries for themselves (see Tomlinson 1994a for a specific example of this procedure). Other ways of achieving learner investment are involving the learners in mini-projects, involving them in finding supplementary materials for particular units in a book and giving them responsibility for making decisions about which texts to use and how to use them (an approach I saw used with great success in an Indonesian high school in which each group in a large class was given responsibility for selecting the texts and the tasks for one reading lesson per semester).

1.4.6 Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught

> Certain structures are acquired only when learners are mentally ready for them. (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982)

Meisel, Clahsen and Pienemann (1981) have put forward the Multidimensional Model in which learners must have achieved readiness in order to learn developmental features (i.e. those constrained by developing

speech-processing mechanisms – e.g. word order) but can make themselves ready at any time to learn variational features (i.e. those which are free – e.g. the copula 'be'). Pienemann (1985) claims that instruction can facilitate natural language acquisition processes if it coincides with learner readiness, and can lead to increased speed and frequency of rule application and to application of rules in a wider range of linguistic contexts. He also claims that premature instruction can be harmful because it can lead to the production of erroneous forms, to substitution by less complex forms and to avoidance. Pienemann's theories have been criticised for the narrowness of their research and application (restricted mainly to syntax, according to Cook 1996), but I am sure most teachers would recognise the negative effects of premature instruction as reported by Pienemann.

Krashen (1985) argues the need for roughly tuned input, which is comprehensible because it features what the learners are already familiar with, but which also contains the potential for acquiring other elements of the input which each learner might or might not be ready to learn (what Krashen refers to as i + 1 in which i represents what has already been learned and 1 represents what is available for learning). According to Krashen, each learner will only learn from the new input what he or she is ready to learn. Other discussions of the need for learner readiness can be found in Ellis (1990) (see especially pp. 152–8 for a discussion of variational and developmental features of readiness) and in Ellis (2008).

Readiness can be achieved by materials which create situations requiring the use of variational features not previously taught, by materials which ensure that the learners have gained sufficient mastery over the developmental features of the previous stage before teaching a new one, and by materials which roughly tune the input so that it contains some features which are slightly above each learner's current state of proficiency. It can also be achieved by materials which get learners to focus attention on features of the target language which they have not yet acquired so that they might be more attentive to these features in future input.

But perhaps the most important lesson for materials developers from readiness research is that we cannot expect to select a particular point for teaching and assume that all the learners are ready and willing to learn it. It is important to remember that the learner is always in charge and that 'in the final analysis we can never completely control what the learner does, for HE [*sic*] selects and organises, whatever the input' (Kennedy 1973: 76).

1.4.7 Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use

Krashen (1985) makes the strong claim that comprehensible input in the target language is both necessary and sufficient for the acquisition of

that language provided that learners are 'affectively disposed to "let in" the input they comprehend' (Ellis 1994: 273). Few researchers would agree with such a strong claim, but most would agree with a weaker claim that exposure to authentic use of the target language is necessary but not sufficient for the acquisition of that language. It is necessary in that learners need experience of how the language is typically used, but it is not sufficient because they also need to notice how it is used and to use it for communicative purposes themselves.

Materials can provide exposure to authentic input through the advice they give, the instructions for their activities and the spoken and written texts they include. They can also stimulate exposure to authentic input through the activities they suggest (e.g. interviewing the teacher, doing a project in the local community, listening to the radio, etc.). In order to facilitate acquisition, the input must be comprehensible (i.e. understandable enough to achieve the purpose for responding to it). This means that there is no point in using long extracts from newspapers with beginners, but it does not mean that beginners cannot be exposed to authentic input. They can follow instructions intended to elicit physical responses, they can listen to dramatic renditions of stories, they can listen to songs, they can fill in forms.

Ideally materials at all levels should provide frequent exposure to authentic input which is rich and varied. In other words the input should vary in style, mode, medium and purpose and should be rich in features which are characteristic of authentic discourse in the target language. And, if the learners want to be able to use the language for general communication, it is important that they are exposed to planned, semi-planned and unplanned discourse (e.g. a formal lecture, an informal radio interview and a spontaneous conversation). The materials should also stimulate learner interaction with the input rather than just passive reception of it. This does not necessarily mean that the learners should always produce language in response to the input; but it does mean that they should at least always do something mentally or physically in response to it.

See in particular Chapters 1, 2, 3, 4, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 17 of this book for arguments in favour of exposing learners to authentic materials, and also see Gilmore (2007) and Mishan (2005).

1.4.8 The learners' attention should be drawn to linguistic features of the input

There seems to be an agreement amongst many researchers that helping learners to pay attention to linguistic features of authentic input can help them to eventually acquire some of those features. However, it is important to understand that this claim does not represent a

back-to-grammar movement. It is different from previous grammar teaching approaches in a number of ways. In the first place the attention paid to the language can be either conscious or subconscious. For example, the learners might be paying conscious attention to working out the attitude of one of the characters in a story, but might be paying subconscious attention to the second conditionals which the character uses. Or they might be paying conscious attention to the second conditionals, having been asked to locate them and to make a generalisation about their function in the story. The important thing is that the learners become aware of a gap between a particular feature of their interlanguage (i.e. how they currently understand or use it) and the equivalent feature in the target language. Such noticing of the gap between output and input can act as an 'acquisition facilitator' (Seliger 1979). It does not do so by immediately changing the learner's internalised grammar but by alerting the learner to subsequent instances of the same feature in future input. So there is no immediate change in the learners' proficiency (as seems to be aimed at by such grammar teaching approaches as the conventional Presentation–Practice–Production approach). There is, however, an increased likelihood of eventual acquisition provided that the learners receive future relevant input.

White (1990) argues that there are some features of the L2 which learners need to be focused on because the deceptively apparent similarities with L1 features make it impossible for the learners to otherwise notice certain points of mismatch between their interlanguage and the target language. And Schmidt (1992) puts forward a powerful argument for approaches which help learners to note the gap between their use of specific features of English and the way these features are used by native speakers. Inviting learners to compare their use of, say, indirect speech with the way it is used in a transcript of a native speaker conversation would be one such approach and could quite easily be built into coursebook materials.

Randi Reppen in Chapter 2 of this book and Jane Willis in Chapter 3 exemplify ways of helping learners to pay attention to linguistic features of their input. Kasper and Roever (2005) and Schmidt (2001) also discuss the value of noticing how the language is actually used.

1.4.9 Materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes

Most researchers seem to agree that learners should be given opportunities to use language for communication rather than just to practise it in situations controlled by the teacher and the materials. Using language for communication involves attempts to achieve a purpose in a situation in which the content, strategies and expression of the interaction

are determined by the learners. Such attempts can enable the learners to 'check' the effectiveness of their internal hypotheses, especially if the activities stimulate them into 'pushed output' (Swain 1985) which is slightly above their current proficiency. They also help the learners to automatise their existing procedural knowledge (i.e. their knowledge of how the language is used) and to develop strategic competence (Canale and Swain 1980). This is especially so if the opportunities for use are interactive and encourage negotiation of meaning (Allwright 1984: 157). In addition, communicative interaction can provide opportunities for picking up language from the new input generated, as well as opportunities for learner output to become an informative source of input (Sharwood-Smith 1981). Ideally teaching materials should provide opportunities for such interaction in a variety of discourse modes ranging from planned to unplanned (Ellis 1990: 191).

Interaction can be achieved through, for example:

- information or opinion gap activities which require learners to communicate with each other and/or the teacher in order to close the gap (e.g. finding out what food and drink people would like at the class party);
- post-listening and post-reading activities which require the learners to use information from the text to achieve a communicative purpose (e.g. deciding what television programmes to watch, discussing who to vote for, writing a review of a book or film);
- creative writing and creative speaking activities such as writing a story or improvising a drama;
- formal instruction given in the target language either on the language itself or on another subject:

> We need to recognise that teaching intended as formal instruction also serves as interaction. Formal instruction does more than teach a specific item: it also exposes learners to features which are not the focus of the lesson. (Ellis 1990)

The value of materials facilitating learner interaction is stressed in this book by Alan Maley in Chapter 15 and by Brian Tomlinson in Chapter 17. See Swain (2005) for an overview of the literature on the Output Hypothesis and its insistence that output is not just the product of language learning but part of the process of language learning too.

1.4.10 Materials should take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed

Research into the acquisition of language shows that it is a gradual rather than an instantaneous process and that this is equally true for

instructed as well as informal acquisition. Acquisition results from the gradual and dynamic process of internal generalisation rather than from instant adjustments to the learner's internal grammar. It follows that learners cannot be expected to learn a new feature and be able to use it effectively in the same lesson. They might be able to rehearse the feature, to retrieve it from short-term memory or to produce it when prompted by the teacher or the materials. But this does not mean that learning has already taken place. I am sure most of you are familiar with the situation in which learners get a new feature correct in the lesson in which it is taught but then get it wrong the following week. This is partly because they have not yet had enough time, instruction and exposure for learning to have taken place.

The inevitable delayed effect of instruction suggests that no textbook can really succeed if it teaches features of the language one at a time and expects the learners to be able to use them straightaway. But this incremental approach is popular with many publishers, writers, teachers and learners as it can provide a reassuring illusion of system, simplicity and progress. Therefore, adaptation of existing approaches rather than replacement with radical new ones is the strategy most likely to succeed. So, for example, the conventional textbook approach of PPP (Presentation–Practice–Production) could be used to promote durable learning if the objective of the Production phase was seen as reinforcement rather than correct production and if this was followed in subsequent units by more exposure and more presentation relating to the same feature. Or the Production phase could be postponed to another unit which is placed after further exposure, instruction and practice have been provided. Or the initial Production phase could be used to provide output which would enable the learners to notice the mismatch between what they are doing and what proficient speakers typically do.

In my view, in order to facilitate the gradual process of acquisition, it is important for materials to recycle instruction and to provide frequent and ample exposure to the instructed language features in communicative use. This is particularly true of vocabulary acquisition, which requires frequent, spaced and varied recycling in order to be successful (Nation 2003, 2005; Nation and Wang 1999). It is equally important that the learners are not forced into premature production of the instructed features (they will get them wrong) and that tests of proficiency are not conducted immediately after instruction (they will indicate failure or an illusion of success).

Ellis (1990) reports on research revealing the delayed effect of instruction and in Chapter 9 of this book he argues the need for post-use evaluation of materials to find out what learners have eventually learned as a result of using them.

1.4.11 Materials should take into account that learners differ in learning styles

Different learners have different preferred learning styles. So, for example, those learners with a preference for studial learning are much more likely to gain from explicit grammar teaching than those who prefer experiential learning. And those who prefer experiential learning are more likely to gain from reading a story with a predominant grammatical feature (e.g. reported speech) than they are from being taught that feature explicitly. This means that activities should be variable and should ideally cater for all learning styles. An analysis of most current coursebooks will reveal a tendency to favour learners with a preference for studial learning and an apparent assumption that all learners are equally capable of benefiting from this style of learning. Likewise an analysis of the teaching and testing of foreign languages in formal education systems throughout the world will reveal that studial learners (who are actually in the minority) are at an advantage.

Styles of learning which need to be catered for in language-learning materials include:

- visual (e.g. learners prefer to see the language written down);
- auditory (e.g. learners prefer to hear the language);
- kinaesthetic (e.g. learners prefer to do something physical, such as following instructions for a game);
- studial (e.g. learners like to pay conscious attention to the linguistic features of the language and want to be correct);
- experiential (e.g. learners like to use the language and are more concerned with communication than with correctness);
- analytic (e.g. learners prefer to focus on discrete bits of the language and to learn them one by one);
- global (e.g. learners are happy to respond to whole chunks of language at a time and to pick up from them whatever language they can);
- dependent (e.g. learners prefer to learn from a teacher and from a book);
- independent (e.g. learners are happy to learn from their own experience of the language and to use autonomous learning strategies).

I think a learner's preference for a particular learning style is variable and depends, for example, on what is being learned, where it is being learned, whom it is being learned with and what it is being learned for. For example, I am happy to be experiential, global and kinaesthetic when learning Japanese out of interest with a group of relaxed adult learners and with a teacher who does not keep correcting me. But I am

more likely to be analytic and visual when learning French for examination purposes in a class of competitive students and with a teacher who keeps on correcting me. And, of course, learners can be helped to gain from learning styles other than their preferred style. The important point for materials developers is that they are aware of and cater for differences of preferred learning styles in their materials and that they do not assume that all learners can benefit from the same approaches as the 'good language learner' (see Ellis 1994: 546–50).

See Oxford and Anderson (1995) for an overview of research into learning styles. See also Anderson (2005) and Oxford (2002).

1.4.12 Materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes

> the learner's motives, emotions, and attitudes screen what is presented in the language classroom … This affective screening is highly individual and results in different learning rates and results. (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982)

Ideally language learners should have strong and consistent motivation and they should also have positive feelings towards the target language, their teachers, their fellow learners and the materials they are using. But, of course, ideal learners do not exist and even if they did exist one day, they would no longer be ideal learners the next day. Each class of learners using the same materials will differ from each other in terms of long- and short-term motivation and of feelings and attitudes about the language, their teachers, their fellow learners and their learning materials, and of attitudes towards the language, the teacher and the materials. Obviously no materials developer can cater for all these affective variables, but it is important for anybody who is writing learning materials to be aware of the inevitable attitudinal differences of the users of the materials.

One obvious implication for the materials developer is 'to diversify language instruction as much as possible based upon the variety of cognitive styles' (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991) and the variety of affective attitudes likely to be found amongst a typical class of learners. Ways of doing this include:

- providing choices of different types of text;
- providing choices of different types of activities;
- providing optional extras for the more positive and motivated learners;
- providing variety;
- including units in which the value of learning English is a topic for discussion;

- including activities which involve the learners in discussing their attitudes and feelings about the course and the materials;
- researching and catering for the diverse interests of the identified target learners;
- being aware of the cultural sensitivities of the target learners;
- giving general and specific advice in the teacher's book on how to respond to negative learners (e.g. not forcing reluctant individuals to take part in group work).

For reports on research into affective differences see Arnold and Brown (1999), Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009), Ellis (1984: 471–83) and Wenden and Rubin (1987).

For specific suggestions on how materials can cater for learner differences see Tomlinson (1996, 2003b, 2006) and Chapter 15 by Alan Maley in this book.

1.4.13 Materials should permit a silent period at the beginning of instruction

It has been shown that it can be extremely valuable to delay L2 speaking for beginners of a language until they have gained sufficient exposure to the target language and sufficient confidence in understanding it. This silent period can facilitate the development of an effective internalised grammar which can help learners to achieve proficiency when they eventually start to speak in the L2. There is some controversy about the actual value of the silent period and some learners seem to use the silence to avoid learning the language. However, I think most researchers would agree that forcing immediate production in the new language can damage the reluctant speaker affectively and linguistically and many would agree with Dulay, Burt and Krashen that:

> communication situations in which students are permitted to remain silent or respond in their first language may be the most effective approach for the early phases of language instruction. This approach approximates what language learners of all ages have been observed to do naturally, and it appears to be more effective than forcing full two-way communication from the very beginning of L2 acquisition. (1982: 25–6)

The important point is that the materials should not force premature speaking in the target language and they should not force silence either. Ways of giving learners the possibility of not speaking until they are ready include:

- starting the course with a Total Physical Response (TPR) approach in which the learners respond physically to oral instructions from a

teacher or CD (see Asher 1977; Tomlinson 1994b, Tomlinson and Masuhara in press);
- starting with a listening comprehension approach in which the learners listen to stories in the target language, which are made accessible through the use of sound effects, visual aids and dramatic movement by the teacher;
- permitting the learners to respond to target language questions by using their first language or through drawings and gestures.

A possible extension of the principle of permitting silence is to introduce most new language points (regardless of the learners' level) through activities which initially require comprehension but not production. This is an approach which I call TPR Plus and which we used on the PKG Project in Indonesian secondary schools. It usually involved introducing new vocabulary or structures through stories which the learners responded to by drawing and/or using their first language, and through activities in which the whole class mimed stories by following oral instructions from the teacher (see Barnard 2007; Tomlinson 1990, 1994b).

For discussion of research into the silent period see Ellis (2008); Krashen (1982); Saville-Troike (1988).

1.4.14 Materials should maximise learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic and emotional involvement which stimulates both right- and left-brain activities

A narrowly focused series of activities which require very little cognitive processing (e.g. mechanical drills; rule learning; simple transformation activities) usually leads to shallow and ephemeral learning unless linked to other activities which stimulate mental and affective processing. However, a varied series of activities making, for example, analytic, creative, evaluative and rehearsal demands on processing capacity can lead to deeper and more durable learning. In order for this deeper learning to be facilitated, it is very important that the content of the materials is not trivial or banal and that it stimulates thoughts and feelings in the learners. It is also important that the activities are not too simple and that they cannot be too easily achieved without the learners making use of their previous experience and their brains.

The maximisation of the brain's learning potential is a fundamental principle of Lozanov's Suggestopedia, in which 'he enables the learner to receive the information through different cerebral processes and in different states of consciousness so that it is stored in many different parts of the brain, maximising recall' (Hooper Hansen 1992). Suggestopedia does

this through engaging the learners in a variety of left- and right-brain activities in the same lesson (e.g. reciting a dialogue, dancing to instructions, singing a song, doing a substitution drill, writing a story). Whilst not everybody would accept the procedures of Suggestopedia, most researchers seem to agree on the value of maximising the brain's capacity during language learning and the best textbooks already do contain within each unit a variety of different left- and right-brain activities.

For an account of the principles of Suggestopedia see Lozanov (1978) and Chapter 16 in this volume by Grethe Hooper Hansen. See also Tomlinson (2003b) for a discussion of the need to humanise materials, Tomlinson and Avila (2007a, 2007b) for a discussion of the value of developing materials which help the learners to make full use of their mental resources whilst learning and using an L2, and Tomlinson (in press) for suggestions for ways of engaging L2 learners cognitively, affectively, aesthetically and kinaesthetically.

1.4.15 Materials should not rely too much on controlled practice

It is interesting that there seems to be very little research which indicates that controlled practice activities are valuable. Sharwood-Smith (1981) does say that 'it is clear and uncontroversial to say that most spontaneous performance is attained by dint of practice', but he provides no evidence to support this very strong claim. Also Bialystok (1988) says that automaticity is achieved through practice but provides no evidence to support her claim. In the absence of any compelling evidence most researchers seem to agree with Ellis, who says that 'controlled practice appears to have little long term effect on the accuracy with which new structures are performed' (Ellis 1990: 192) and 'has little effect on fluency' (Ellis and Rathbone 1987). See De Keyser (2007) on language practice and also Ellis (2008).

Yet controlled grammar practice activities still feature significantly in popular coursebooks and are considered to be useful by many teachers and by many learners. This is especially true of dialogue practice, which has been popular in many methodologies for the last 30 years without there being any substantial research evidence to support it (see Tomlinson 1995). In a recent analysis of new low-level coursebooks I found that nine out of ten of them contained many more opportunities for controlled practice than they did for language use. It is possible that right now all over the world learners are wasting their time doing drills and listening to and repeating dialogues. See Tomlinson *et al.* (2001) and Masuhara *et al.* (2008) for coursebook reviews which also report a continuing dominance of practice activities.

1.4.16 Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback

Feedback which is focused first on the effectiveness of the outcome rather than just on the accuracy of the output can lead to output becoming a profitable source of input. Or in other words, if the language that the learner produces is evaluated in relation to the purpose for which it is used, that language can become a powerful and informative source of information about language use. Thus a learner who fails to achieve a particular communicative purpose (e.g. borrowing something, instructing someone how to play a game, persuading someone to do something) is more likely to gain from feedback on the effectiveness of their use of language than a learner whose language is corrected without reference to any non-linguistic outcome. It is very important, therefore, for materials developers to make sure that language production activities have intended outcomes other than just practising language.

The value of outcome feedback is focused on by such writers on task-based approaches as Willis and Willis (2007) and Rod Ellis in Chapter 9 in this volume. It is also stressed by Brian Tomlinson in Chapter 17 of this volume.

To find out more about some of the principles of language learning outlined above, you could make use of the index of one of the following books:

Cook, V. 2008. *Second Language Learning and Second Language Teaching*, 4th edn. London: Edward Arnold.

Ellis, R. 2008. *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*, 2nd edn. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D. and M. Long. 1991. *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research*. London: Longman.

1.5 What teachers and learners believe and want

I have argued above that materials developers should take account of what researchers have told us about language acquisition. I would also argue that they should pay more attention to what teachers and learners believe about the best ways to learn a language and also to what they want from the materials they use (even though this would often contradict the findings of SLA researchers).

Teachers spend far more time observing and influencing the language-learning process than do researchers or materials developers. Yet little research has been done into what teachers believe is valuable

for language learning and little account is taken of what teachers really want. In this book Hitomi Masuhara argues in Chapter 10 for the need to find out what teachers really want from coursebooks and she puts forward suggestions for how this information could be gained and made use of. Also Frances Amrani in Chapter 11 describes how attempts have been made to find out exactly what teachers think and feel about trial versions of coursebooks so that their views can influence the published versions. David Jolly and Rod Bolitho in Chapter 5 propose a framework which could help teachers to adapt materials and to write materials themselves; and Rod Ellis in Chapter 9 outlines a way in which teachers can improve materials as a result of whilst-use and post-use evaluation of them. Also Saraceni (2003) focuses on learner involvement in adapting materials.

There have been attempts to involve learners in the evaluation of courses and materials (see Alderson 1985 for an interesting account of post-course evaluations which involved contacting the learners after their courses had finished) and a number of researchers have kept diaries recording their own experiences as learners of a foreign language (e.g. Schmidt and Frota 1986). But little systematic research has been published on what learners actually want their learning materials to do (see Johnson 1995 for an account of what one adult learner wants from her learning materials).

One exceptional example of trying to make use of both learner and teacher beliefs and wants was the Namibia Textbook Project. Prior to the writing of the Grade 10 English textbook, *On Target* (1995), teachers and students all over the country were consulted via questionnaires. Their responses were then made use of when 30 teachers met together to design and write the book. The first draft of the book was completed by these teachers at an eight-day workshop and it was then trialled all over the country before being revised for publication by an editorial panel. Such consultation and collaboration is rare in materials development and could act as a model for textbook writing. See Tomlinson (1995) for a description of this and other similar projects.

1.6 Collaboration

The Namibian Textbook Project mentioned above is a classic example of the value of pooling resources. On page iv of *On Target* (1995) 40 contributors are acknowledged. Some of these were teachers, some were curriculum developers, some were publishers, some were administrators, some were university lecturers and researchers, some were examiners, one was a published novelist and all of them made a significant

contribution to the development of the book. This bringing together of expertise in a collaborative endeavour is extremely rare and, as one of the contributors to the Project, I can definitely say it was productive. Too often in my experience researchers have made theoretical claims without developing applications of them, writers have ignored theory and have followed procedural rather than principled instincts, teachers have complained without making efforts to exert an influence, learners have been ignored and publishers have been driven by considerations of what they know they can sell. We all have constraints on our time and our actions, but it must be possible and potentially valuable for us to get together to pool our resources and share our expertise in a joint endeavour to develop materials which offer language learners maximum opportunities for successful learning. This bringing together of different areas of knowledge and expertise is the main aim of MATSDA and it is one of the objectives of this book. The contributors to *Materials Development in Language Teaching* include classroom teachers, researchers, university lecturers, teacher trainers, textbook writers and publishers, and we hope that our pooling of knowledge and ideas will help you to use, adapt and develop materials in effective ways.

1.7 New directions in materials development

Since *Materials Development in Language Teaching* was first published in 1998, there have been some new directions in materials development. The most obvious one is the increase in quantity and quality of language-learning materials delivered through new technologies. Whilst some new technology programmes and courses have been rightly criticised for simply reproducing activity and task types from paper sources, others have been praised for exploiting the interactive possibilities of new technologies such as video conferencing, emails, YouTube, Facebook, Twitter, blogs and mobile phones. See Chapter 12 by Gary Motteram, Chapter 13 by Lisa Kervin and Beverly Derewianka, Chapter 15 by Alan Maley and Chapter 17 by Brian Tomlinson in this volume for discussion of the possibilities offered to materials developers by new technologies. See also Reinders and White (2010).

Other new directions in materials development include materials for text-driven approaches, for task-based approaches and for Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approaches. Brian Tomlinson in Chapters 14 and 17 of this volume refers to approaches in which a potentially engaging text drives a unit of materials instead of a predetermined teaching point, and Tomlinson (2003c) details a flexible framework for developing text-driven materials which has been used

on materials development projects in, for example, Bulgaria, Ethiopia, Morocco, Namibia, Singapore and Turkey. Task-based approaches (in which an outcome-focused task drives the lesson) have received a lot of attention recently, but much of it has focused on the principles and procedures of task-based teaching. However, Rod Ellis in Chapter 9 of this volume gives attention to task-based materials, as do Ellis (2003), Van den Branden (2006), Nunan (2004), Samuda and Bygate (2008) and Willis and Willis (2007). CLIL has been commanding a lot of attention recently and it has been used as a means of teaching English and a content subject at the same time in primary, secondary and tertiary institutions in Europe (Eurydice 2006), as well as an approach in which a content area which engages the learner is used to help them improve their English (Tomlinson and Masuhara 2009). Most of the literature on CLIL so far has focused on the theory of CLIL and on its integration into curricula in educational institutions. However, there is a chapter on materials for CLIL in Coyle *et al*. (2010).

I hope that the chapters in this book will provide a theoretical and practical stimulus to help materials developers and teachers to produce quality materials for learners using the 'new' approaches referred to above, as well as to continue to develop innovative and effective mater-ials for the more established approaches.

Features of Good Materials Chart

Feature:	Examples that you have seen:
1) Materials should achieve impact	
2) Materials should help learners to feel at ease (safety and comfort)	
3) Materials should help learners develop confidence	
4) What is being taught should be perceived as relevant and useful	
5) Materials should facilitate learner self-investment and discovery	
6) Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught	
7) Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use	
8) Learner's attention should be drawn to the linguistic features of the input	

9) Materials should provide opportunities to use the TL for communicative purposes	
10) Materials should take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed	
11) Materials should take into account that learners have different learning styles	
12) Materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitude	
13) Materials should permit a silent period at the beginning of instruction	
14) Materials should maximize learning potential (left brain/right brain)	
15) Materials should not rely too much on controlled practice	
16) Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback	

Grave's "Coursebooks" (*adapting)

(Please answer in **full sentences** and **in your own words**)

1) What does SARS mean?

2) Before an activity, the T needs to determine if Ss understand the instructions and are ready to do the activity because: "[S]imply telling the learners what, how, and why of an activity doesn't prepare them. They need to demonstrate either verbally or in action that they have understood" What can Ts do to check and clarify their verbal instructions? How can Ts check to see if Ss understand the activity? Give a clear example or examples.

3) Explain what the authors means by: "Any activity actually has three parts: Preparation, implementation, and follow-up" How does this relate to what you have learned in TELS 1&2; especially in terms of the activity route map? Does the Korean educational system allow for this? Why or why not?

Coursebooks

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At the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

Goals

- ✔ **analyze** how a coursebook is organized and what it emphasizes.
- ✔ **devise** ways to adapt or supplement an activity for a specific group of learners using techniques such as personalization and format shifting or by introducing supplementary material.
- ✔ **explain** how you would prepare learners to do an activity, how you would monitor them, and how you would follow up the activity.

1. What is a coursebook?

Coursebooks are prepackaged, published books used by the students and teacher as the primary basis for a language course. Coursebooks range from those that are broadly focused on developing all language skills to those that focus on a specific skill such as writing, or specific area such as hotel management. In addition to the student book, coursebook packages may include audio-cassettes or CDs, videos, workbooks, CD-ROMs, test packages and Internet materials. They almost always include a teacher's guide. In this chapter, we will focus on the student book, since it is the one component most likely to be used by all the students in the classroom. Examples will be taken from integrated skills coursebooks that are intended primarily for learners in countries where English is not a national language.

A coursebook is a learning tool shared by teachers and learners that can be used in systematic and flexible ways. In order to use a coursebook systematically and flexibly, it is important to understand how it is put together and how it can be adapted to meet the needs of your particular learners. The coursebook provides a plan for learning, a visible outline of what is to be learned in the classroom, as well as a bank of resource material and ideas (Acklam, 1994). What happens in the classroom fills out and transforms the outline into learning experiences for the students.

2. Background to the design and use of coursebooks

Most people who have studied a foreign language have used a coursebook at some point in their studies. The way coursebooks look and what they contain go hand and hand with the prevailing ideas at the time they were published about how languages are best taught and learned. Up until the mid-twentieth century, language books were used mainly in academic settings in order to understand the written texts of the target language. This approach, which is still common in academic settings today, is called the **grammar translation** approach. Coursebooks contain long reading passages, with vocabulary glossaries and grammar notes in the students' mother tongue. Students are tested on their ability to translate texts with lexical and grammatical accuracy. In the 1960s and 1970s, the focus shifted from grammar translation and its emphasis on written texts to **audiolingualism,** which focused on the spoken language. (See the chapters on methodology and grammar, this volume.) Audiolingualism was an outgrowth of **behaviorist** theories that learning is habit formation, the result of response to stimuli. Language coursebooks used dialogues, pattern practice, and substitution drills in which the teacher provided a stimulus such as a sentence beginning

with *they* and a cue *she,* and the learners provided a response sentence, changing the subject from they to she. **Structural linguistics,** which views language as a system, reducible to a finite set of grammatical structures, also had a strong influence on language texts. For example, *English 900,* a series first published in 1964, contained 900 sentences. By mastering the sentences, one was supposed to have mastered the language.

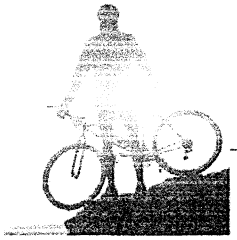
In the 1970s and 80s, there was a shift toward the **notional-functional approach,** championed by the Council of Europe (e.g., Van Ek and Alexander, 1975). Language was understood to be used for purposes, or functions, such as expressing opinions, and to talk or write about both abstract and concrete topics, or notions, such as time and weather. Communication took precedence over grammar. Coursebooks began to emphasize functional language as well as pair work and group work activities in which learners used the language to communicate with each other.

The development of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) also influenced the kinds of materials that were published. EAP coursebooks focus on the development of one or two skills, such as writing or reading for academic purposes. ESP coursebooks focus on the development of specific workplace skills such as public health administration. EAP and ESP coursebooks use authentic material such as newspaper articles and other source materials. The use of authentic or quasi-authentic materials is also common in current coursebooks in order to simulate the use of language in real contexts.

Other approaches to teaching languages have questioned the effectiveness of coursebooks. The introduction of **task-based language teaching** in the 1980s challenged the very use of coursebooks. In task-based approaches, language is learned through negotiation with other learners in problem-solving or task-management situations that focus on meaning, rather than form, not through learning prespecified grammar, functions or notions. Tasks can range from discussing the effectiveness of an advertisement and reporting on the discussion to designing an original advertisement. Because coursebooks specify language to be learned, they were seen as incompatible with this approach. However, many current coursebooks now include tasks or projects to stimulate interaction and negotiation among learners.

Other critics have charged that, because a coursebook specifies what is to be taught and learned, it becomes an operating manual that the teacher and students follow unquestioningly. It leaves little room for decision-making and adapting to the needs of the particular group. (See, for example, Swan, 1992.) Proponents of using coursebooks have argued that they provide a needed structure for interaction in the classroom and that learners see the textbook as a guide that helps them organize their learning and provides security (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994). One purpose of this chapter is to help teachers understand how to take advantage of what a coursebook has to offer and not feel dominated by it.

Reflection



Think back on your own experience learning with a coursebook. Did you notice any differences in the coursebooks you used? Did you find the coursebooks a help or a hindrance? Why?

3. Principles for using a coursebook

1. Understand how the coursebook is organized.

A coursebook provides a visible outline for what is to be learned in the classroom. Coursebooks are often described metaphorically as maps (O'Neil, 1993). Maps provide a guide to the territory to be covered. The actual classroom teaching and learning can be viewed as a journey through the territory. The first principle for using a coursebook is to become familiar with the territory so that you can plan the journey.

Most coursebooks are organized around key features of language. These features include topics and associated vocabulary (e.g. food or transportation), grammar structures (e.g. verb tenses or how to form questions), and social and cultural interaction skills (e.g. how to order in a restaurant or how to politely refuse something). Coursebooks also emphasize two or more of the four skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing.

The first step is to explore the coursebook to see how it is organized. Often the table of contents (sometimes called scope and sequence) provides a chart that shows how the authors have mapped out the territory within each unit and across units. Knowing how the book is organized can help you to make decisions about how to adapt it to your particular group of students. Each unit or chapter of a coursebook is a microcosm of the book as a whole, so one way to get to know a coursebook is by examining a unit.

Reflection

Look at the Table of Contents extracts from three different interme-diate level coursebooks. What features of language are they organized around? What are the similarities and differences in the ways they are organized? What do you think accounts for the differences?

Unit Title	Functions	Grammar	Listening and Pronunciation	Reading and Writing	Learning Strategies and Skills
Life Stories	• Talk about past actions • Talk about frequency of actions • Talk about lifestyles • Talk about habits and routines	Simple past tense: Questions, short answers Was born/married Irregular past tense of verbs Used to Had to Reported speech: verb *say*	Listen: listen to a biography to put events in chronological order Pronunciation: use to	Read a biography Write an autobiography Write a biography (Project)	Look for time order cues in biographical material List events in chronological order as a writing strategy

Figure 1 *Super Goal 3* (McGraw-Hill, 2002)

Alike yet different

Speaking *The roles of men and women*

Listening *Short oral report—weekend cooks*

Grammar *Review of contrasting tenses: simple present vs. present progressive; present simple past vs. present perfect*

Reading *Contrast/comparison*—How different are men and women?

Conversation *Sharing news and stating an opinion strategies*

Grammar More adjective clauses: Fran works with a sister that specializes in interior decorating.

Writing *Personal reports*

Figure 2 *CrossCurrents 1* (Pearson Education Limited, 1992)

Topics	Functions	Grammar	Listening/ Pronunciation	Writing/Reading	Interchange Activity
Unusual and Exceptional jobs	Giving opinions about jobs; describing and comparing jobs	Gerund phrases as subject and object; comparisons with *more/less than* and as ... as	Listening to descriptions of jobs; Sentence stress	Writing about career advantages and disadvantages "Strategies for Keeping Your Job" Reading advice about behavior in the workplace	The best and the worst Finding out about classmates' summer or part-time jobs

Figure 3 *New Interchange 3: English for International Communication* (Cambridge University Press, 1998)

Reflection

Usually, the different language features or components of a coursebook chapter or unit are linked together around a topic or topics. What is the focus of each of the units profiled? How are the components of each unit linked?

2. Adapt the material.

Coursebooks are not written for a specific group of people. Since they are meant to be used by different or successive groups of learners, they can't be. They're written for a generalized target group (e.g., for children or adults, for use in English speaking countries or in other countries, for beginner, intermediate or advanced levels, and so on). No book can meet all the needs and interests of each group of learners that uses it. For this reason, a coursebook *must be adapted* to your particular group of learners. Acklam (1994, p. 12) suggests the following acronym for adapting a coursebook: "SARS."

S = Select What parts of the coursebook do you definitely want to keep?
A = Adapt What parts of the coursebook do you basically want to keep, but need to change in some way to make them more suitable for your students, and in tune with your teaching style?
R = Reject What parts of the coursebook do you definitely want to leave out?
S = Supplement What else do you need to bring to the coursebook to fulfill the requirements of the overall syllabus you are working to, and to respond to the needs of your particular students?

Figure 4 SARS (Select, Adapt, Reject, Supplement)

Remember, a coursebook is not an inflexible document, it is a learning tool that is used by learners and teachers. Your decisions about what to "select, adapt, reject and supplement" depend on who your learners are (age, interests, purposes for studying and language level), what the institution emphasizes, the resources available to you, how much time you have, and

what you feel is important. If there is too much X, then do less of X. If there is no Y, then add Y, if Z is unnecessary for your students, then skip Z. For example, Sato (2002) found that Japanese high school students and teachers initially had difficulty using coursebooks that emphasized speaking since they were accustomed to coursebooks that emphasized reading with a focus on translation and grammar. They were able to use the coursebooks more effectively when the teachers designed oral performance assessments to be done at the end of each unit. The addition of the tests gave the learners a goal and thus made them more willing to do the speaking activities in the coursebook. In the section on techniques we will look at ways to adapt and supplement a coursebook.

3. Prepare the learners.

In an on-line research project a colleague and I conducted with a group of teachers from four different countries, we found that coursebook activities usually fail not because they're too boring or too complicated, but because the learners haven't been adequately prepared to do them. Put another way, any coursebook activity can be successful as long as learners know what to do and have the ability to do it. (If they don't have the ability to do the activity, the coursebook may be at too high a level.) Preparing the learners means two things. First, it means orienting them to the content and purpose of the activity, that is, making sure they know *what* the activity is about and *why* they are doing it. Second, it means making sure they understand the steps of the activity, *how* to do it. However, simply telling the learners the *what, how,* and *why* of an activity doesn't prepare them. They need to demonstrate either verbally or in action that they have understood.

Preparing the learner really means preparing yourself. What is the context for the activity? The images that accompany an activity are often helpful in providing a context. How can you make the context clear and interesting to the learners? What is the point of the activity? Is the focus to learn grammar? Is it to practice speaking? Is it to learn vocabulary? The title of the activity often provides clues to the purpose. What are the steps involved in carrying out the activity? How can you ensure that the learners know what to do? How long will the activity take?

Figure 5 is a page from a textbook aimed at young adults/adults at the intermediate level. There are two activities on the page. Describe how you would prepare the learners to do each activity so that

a) they know *what* the activity is about (How would you orient them to the content?);
b) *why* they are doing it (How would you make sure they understand the purpose?);
c) and *how* to do it (How would you break down the steps?).

Decide on a time limit to give the students for each activity.

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1 Talk it over

Complete the sentences using some of the words in the list.

Women are more _____ than men.
Men are more _____ than women.

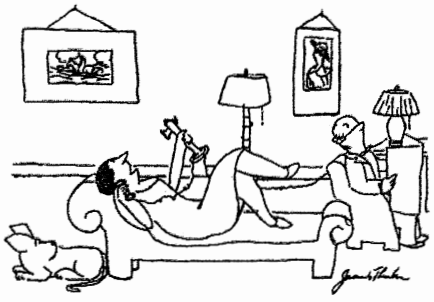
competitive	cautious	logical	possessive	emotional	aggressive
considerate	intuitive	industrious	generous	relaxed	sensitive

Compare your sentences and opinions with a classmate. Which statements do you agree with?

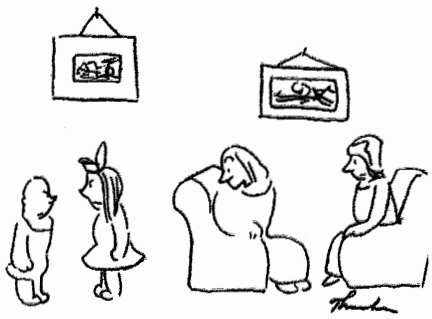
2 Talk about... Cartoons

Look at these cartoons. Describe what is happening in each one. What generalizations do they show about men, women, and children?

"He doesn't know anything except facts."



"Well, if I called the wrong number, why did you answer the phone?"



"Alice can be a little *girl* Commando in your game, Donald."

Figure 5 *CrossCurrents 1* (Pearson Education Limited, 1992)

4. Monitor and follow up.

Any activity actually has three parts: preparation, implementation, and follow-up. While the students are doing an activity, you have an important role: to monitor what and how well they are doing. The easiest way to monitor is to walk around the classroom and observe what they are doing, (in a neutral, not a judgmental way). As you circulate, you can answer questions, keep track of language problems, offer helpful corrections (if they don't inhibit fluency), and make sure they are doing what they are supposed to be doing. Monitoring also helps you to see if the time limit you set was appropriate and whether it will need to be shortened or extended. Often teachers concentrate on the students in the front rows and remain at the front once an activity is underway. Consequently, the students at the back give up on the activity and the learning opportunity is lost.

It helps to develop signals to let students know when to stop. In small classes, this can be done via language such as "OK, time to stop." In large classes, clapping your hands or ringing a bell are more effective than using your voice, unless you have a resonant voice! Once an activity is done, it is important to follow up so that students can demonstrate what they have learned or ask questions about it. For example, if students have practiced a dialogue in pairs, then a few pairs can demonstrate the dialogue to the group. If groups of three have just discussed what they like to read and why, then a few students can report to the class on what they learned about their partners' preferences. Alternatively, the teacher can survey the class. For example, "How many of you like to read ___?"

5. Build a repertoire.

In addition to being organized around key features of language, a coursebook generally has consistent types of activities in each unit or chapter such as pair and group tasks, **role-plays, information gaps,** listening tasks, and vocabulary games. It helps to build up your own repertoire of ways to do each type of activity. For example, most listening activities include some kind of task. One way to approach a listening activity (after the appropriate introduction to what it's about) is for students to listen through once to get the general idea; listen a second time and do the task in the book such as answer questions or fill in a diagram; and then listen a third time and check their answers. If you follow this format consistently, you provide some predictability for the students–they learn familiar ways to approach an activity. It also helps to have ways to vary an activity once students are familiar with the basic format. For example, students can try to do the task before the first listening as a way to create anticipation for what they will hear.

Building a repertoire also means having techniques for supplementing what is in the textbook. Part of my own repertoire includes putting things on cards or strips of paper that students can manipulate. For example, one way to teach vocabulary is to have students write the vocabulary words on cards and then group them in some way. Another way is to put parts of sentences on cards so that students can put them in order and learn the grammar. I sometimes write prompts on cards for speaking and writing activities. I also have students write comprehension questions to reading passages on cards and quiz each other.

The teacher's guide that accompanies the coursebook is an excellent resource for learning about ways to teach and vary activities. When Alison Rice and I were writing the introduction to the teacher's guide for *East West Basics* (Oxford University Press, 1994), we included nine different ways to prepare for a dialogue and ten different ways to practice it. Teacher's guides also give step-by-step suggestions for how to teach each activity in the student book.

4. Classroom techniques and tasks

In this section, we look at techniques and tasks for implementing the five principles outlined in the previous section. The first two techniques are designed to help you understand how the coursebook is organized.

Survey or map the territory When familiarizing yourself with the table of contents, trying to take in the entire contents of the book can be overwhelming. Start small, with a group of units or just one unit. Some books have review units, so a natural chunk is the group of units leading up to the review unit. If you own the book, make notes as you go through it about what you like, what you don't like, what you want to emphasize, supplement, and reject.

Another way to survey the territory is to make a map of it. This means creating a nonlinear visual representation of the contents of the book or unit. By taking apart the pieces and rearranging them in a visual way, you become familiar with what is in the book. These kinds of "mind maps" or "word webs" can be done at any level: book, unit, or activity. (See Andersen, Chapter 4, this volume.)

Group prioritizing There is often more material in a coursebook than you can cover in the amount of time available. Richard Acklam suggests the following activity (1994, p. 13). "Give out the books on the first day [of class], and, for homework, ask students to decide which topics/grammar areas in the book they are most interested in/concerned about. The next day the students vote on the most relevant parts of the book for them, and this immediately helps the teacher to select appropriately."

One advantage of this technique is that the assignment gives the students a reason for looking through the coursebook. It gives them ownership of the "tool" and helps them understand it is flexible. It also opens dialogue among them and the teacher. One disadvantage is that some learners may feel intimidated or inadequate to the task. Or they may feel that making these decisions is the teacher's job. One way to adapt this task would be to have them do the same kind of prioritizing, but only for one unit.

The next three techniques will help you adapt the material to your particular group of learners.

Personalizing Personalizing means asking for or giving personal or culturally familiar information related to the material in the coursebook. This technique draws on the learners' experiences and opinions and so makes the material more real and accessible to the students. I remember observing a high school French teacher teach telephone numbers using the examples in the textbook. The students were bored and inattentive. By simply asking them to use their own telephone numbers, she would have made the material more relevant and motivating. In addition to making material more relevant, personalizing also allows for personal and cultural comparisons. Learning how to order food from a menu is a common coursebook activity. Learners can be asked to compare the way menus are organized in their culture(s), what items cost, and what food items are included.

Personalizing can be done in preparing for an activity, during an activity, or following up an activity. Take the example of ordering from a menu. The menu in the coursebook is unlikely to be one students have actually used. In preparation for the activity, the teacher can ask students to make a list or sketch of what they expect to find in a menu. They can then compare their lists to the menu in the book and discuss how they are similar and different. To personalize during the activity, the learners can discuss foods on the menu that they've tried, and ones they've never tried, and whether they would want to order them or not. As a follow-up, the teacher can ask the learners to talk about the kinds of restaurants they go to and what they usually order. Alternatively, they can prepare menus with only their favorite foods.

Reflection

Why is personalizing important? What are some considerations when planning ways to personalize the material and activities in a coursebook?

Format shift **Format shift** means switching to a different skill or grouping than the one proposed in the book.

- Switching to a different skill: A reading text about places to vacation in Australia can be used as a model for writing about places to vacation in the students' own country. The same text can be used for pair dictation or for pronunciation practice. In one sense, format shift is about supplementing through skill integration: when appropriate, giving students opportunities to speak, listen, read, and write about each activity.
- Switching to a different grouping: a pair question and answer activity about the ideal roommate can become a mixer in which the whole group gets up and walks around and asks different people the same question. An individual writing activity about the pros and cons of school uniforms can be turned into a small group brainstorm and group essay.

Use props, visuals, or realia Props, visuals and realia stimulate visual and cultural interest in a lesson. Realia are objects or texts that are used by people in their everyday lives. Props are theatrical aids to represent a role or situation. Visuals are pictures, drawings, photos or images. (These three categories very often blend.) Realia for a lesson about phone numbers might include a phone book or an advertisement with phone numbers. Realia for a unit about places to vacation might include tourist brochures. Props for a lesson on phone numbers might include a toy telephone, and for a lesson on places to vacation, a beach towel and ski goggles. One of my colleagues uses a plastic bow as a humorous prop to demonstrate a dialogue between a woman and a man. He places the bow in his hair when speaking the woman's part and at his throat when speaking the man's part. Visuals for a lesson on vacations might include pictures of different vacations spots.

Props, visuals and realia can be used both to prepare students for and to supplement or extend an activity. The teacher should not be the only source of these supplementary materials. Students can be asked to bring in materials related to the topics, such as pictures of their ideal vacation spot or photos from their last vacation.

The two activities in Figure 5 (page 232) are aimed at intermediate adult/young adult learners. Think of a group of learners that fits that description.

Describe:

- how you would personalize the activities so that they are relevant to the learners and highlight potential cultural differences.
- different ways of grouping learners to do them (individual, pair, small group, whole class).
- props, visuals, or realia you or the learners could bring in to supplement them.

The next two techniques are designed to help you prepare the learners to do the activities.

Visual instructions Visual instructions is a fancy way of saying "demonstrate what to do." This technique is based on the notion that showing is much more effective than telling. For example, to introduce a pair activity, you can write an example of the pair exchange on the board and then use your hands to represent the two speakers as you demonstrate the exchange. (Some teachers use puppets, others change positions.) You can then ask two students to stand up and model the exchange. If you are introducing a group activity in which students are to survey each other in groups (e.g., about what they like to read and why), you can demonstrate the activity by asking one student the questions first and then having the student ask you the same questions.

Elicitation Elicitation means asking the students to provide information or examples based on what they know. In preparing for an activity that reviews the present perfect tense, you can ask for several examples from the students. However, elicitation doesn't mean putting learners on the spot. It only works when you try to elicit what they are likely to know. Because it emphasizes the learners' experience and knowledge, elicitation helps to take the focus off of the text as the source of authority and helps learners become more self-reliant, an important skill in learning a language. Elicitation works hand in hand with personalization. To prepare for an activity about reading preferences you can first ask the students "What are things we read?" and list their responses on the board. It is also a way to get differences of opinion, or examples that are different from those provided in the coursebook. Students can be asked whether a picture that shows a family living in a large house is the way most people live. Elicitation is also useful when following up an activity.

Reflection

For the Action box on page 232, you made a list of ways to prepare students for the activities in Figure 5. How would you modify them to include visual instructions or elicitation?

The next two techniques are designed to help you monitor and follow up what the students do.

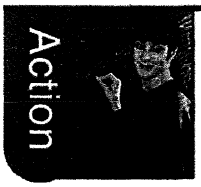
Mistake log One way to monitor what and how well the students are doing is to keep a mistake log. Make a note of the activity and the class and as you circulate, write down the mistakes you hear the students making. Mistakes

can be grammatical, lexical (vocabulary), or cultural. The mistake log can then be used in a number of ways. You can use it immediately after the activity and elicit correction from the students. For example, in an activity for practicing polite ways to ask for something, the teacher noticed that many of the students were not using the word *please*, which was included in the examples in the book. After the activity, she wrote two contrasting examples on the board "Could you bring me a glass of water?" and "Could you bring me a glass of water, please?" She asked the students to discuss the difference and why one was more polite than the other.

If there are recurrent mistakes, for example incorrect use of tenses, you can prepare a separate lesson and use examples from the log. The log will also show you and your students in which areas they are improving because the mistakes occur less frequently.

Group survey One way to follow up an activity is to do a group survey of the results. Surveys answer the questions how many, how often, how much, how long, and so on. For example, after an activity in which students have asked for and given information about their families, the teacher writes three headings on the board: only child, one brother or sister, more than one brother or sister, and then surveys the class to find out how many fit in which category. In a group survey after an activity on reading preferences, the teacher writes each type of reading on the board, asks for a show of hands for each, and writes the number after each category. She then asks the group why the categories with the most and least numbers are the most and least popular.

Activity chart Building a repertoire requires setting up some kind of system for keeping track of what has been successful so that you can use the techniques again. One way to do that is to make a chart with the relevant four skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing (depending on which you teach), as well as other focal areas such as grammar, culture, or vocabulary.



Chapters 2, 3, 7 and 8 in *Practical English Language Teaching* provide descriptions of excellent activities that can be used in the classroom. Refer to the appropriate chapter in order to complete the activity chart. Write one or two activities from each chapter.

Focus area →	Listening	Speaking	Vocabulary	Grammar
Activity	•	•	•	•
	•	•	•	•

5. Using a coursebook in the classroom

The purpose of this section is to show you some of the ways language teachers use the concepts and techniques already discussed. The first example shows how a teacher prepares to teach the first two activities in a unit. The second example shows how a teacher adapts an activity in a unit. The last example shows how a teacher prepares her students to do an activity, how she monitors, and how she follows up the activity.

Teacher A teaches at a language institute in Morocco. The learners are men and women, mainly in their twenties, and at an intermediate level of English. In preparation for teaching the activities in Figure 6, Teacher A has made notes about how she wants to teach the activities on that page.

Look at the textbook excerpt in Figure 6. Notice how the teacher has annotated the page with her comments.

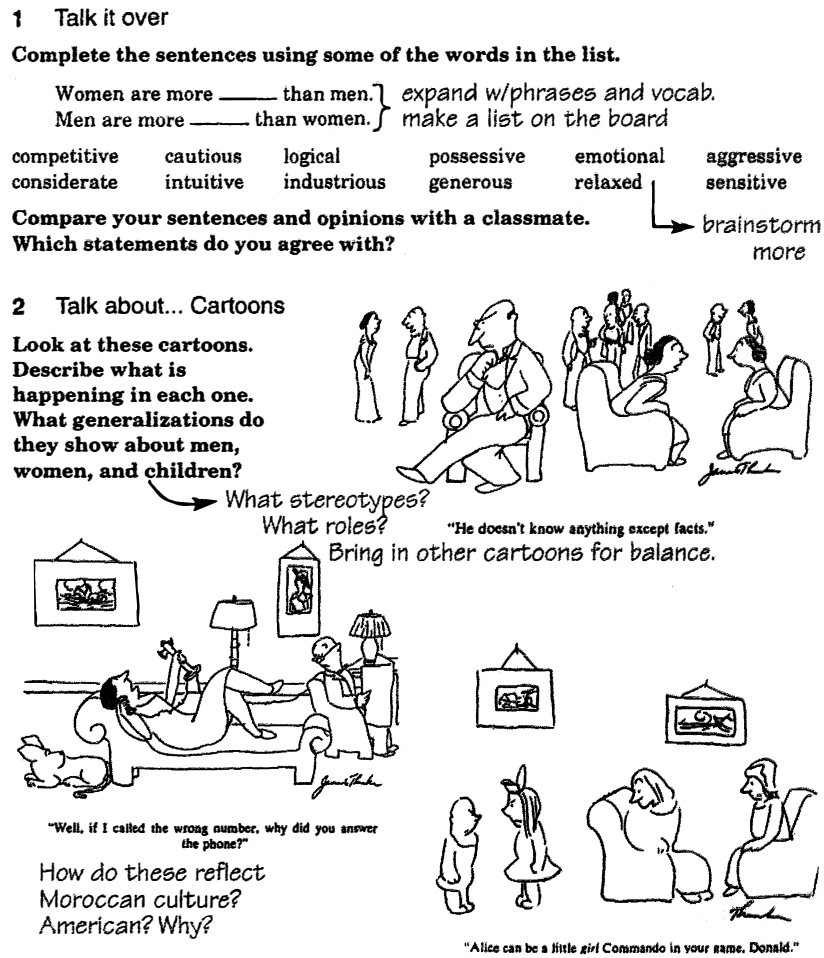


Figure 6 *CrossCurrents 1* (Pearson Education Limited, 1992)

Commentary Before the students even open the book, Teacher A plans two preparatory activities (discuss terms and brainstorm) to orient students to the theme of the unit and to generate useful vocabulary based on their own experience. The first activity in the book *Talk it Over* aims to provide the vocabulary and grammar needed to compare men and women as a basis for expressing personal opinions. The activity already has personalization built in since students are expressing their own opinions. However, as it is a forced choice, the students may feel they have to express opinions they don't hold. The teacher plans to add an additional grammar structure *As...as* so that the students can talk about similarities in addition to differences. She plans to review the vocabulary, however it is unclear from the notes how she will make sure they understand new vocabulary. If some students don't know certain vocabulary words, she could elicit explanations or examples from the students who do.

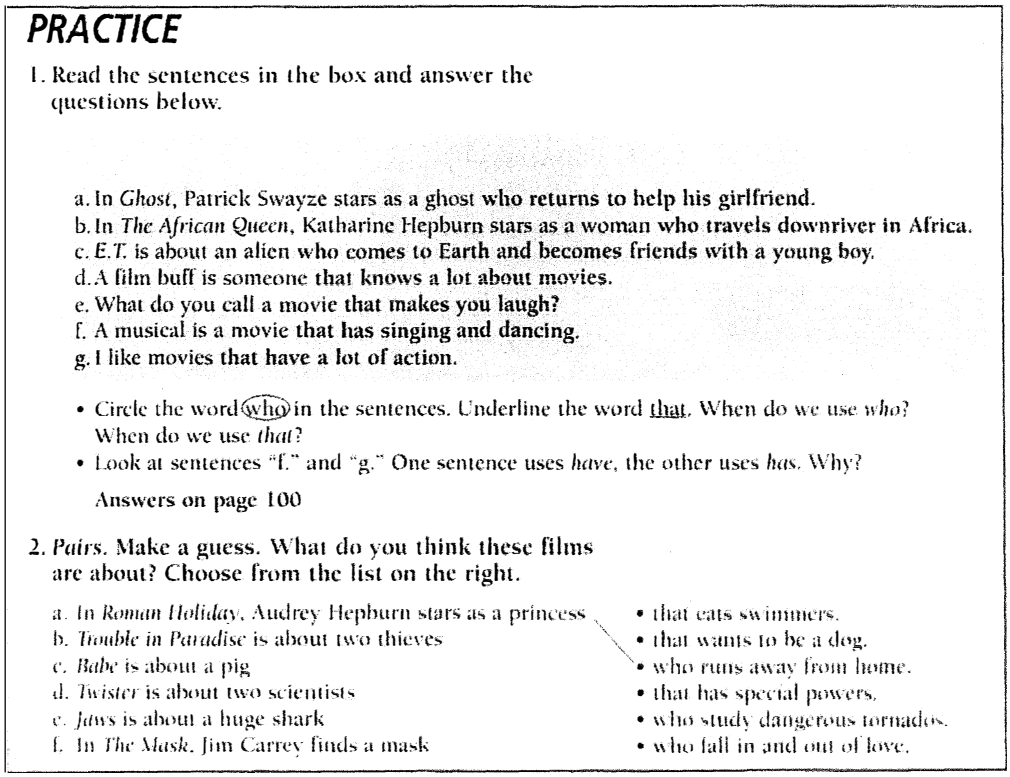
The second activity in the book *Talk about...Cartoons* asks students to describe the cartoons and the way they generalize male and female traits and roles. The teacher questions the viewpoint of the textbook. She feels the stereotypes are too traditional, so she plans to bring in additional visual material to show a variety of perspectives.

Think of a particular group of learners. Consider their age, gender, level of English, and interests and purposes for learning English. Choose a page from a coursebook. Write on the page what you would keep, what you would adapt, what you would reject and what you would supplement.

Reflection

Look at Teacher A's notes in Figure 6. What are ways that she plans to supplement the material? How does she plan to adapt the activities and why? How will she prepare the students? How will she personalize the material?

Teacher B teaches at a language institute in Brazil. His students are adults at an intermediate level. He is teaching Activity 2 in Figure 7. In this activity, they are applying the rule they learned in Activity 1.



PRACTICE

1. Read the sentences in the box and answer the questions below.

a. In *Ghost*, Patrick Swayze stars as a ghost who returns to help his girlfriend.
b. In *The African Queen*, Katharine Hepburn stars as a woman who travels downriver in Africa.
c. *E.T.* is about an alien who comes to Earth and becomes friends with a young boy.
d. A film buff is someone that knows a lot about movies.
e. What do you call a movie that makes you laugh?
f. A musical is a movie that has singing and dancing.
g. I like movies that have a lot of action.

- Circle the word who in the sentences. Underline the word that. When do we use *who*? When do we use *that*?
- Look at sentences "f." and "g." One sentence uses *have*, the other uses *has*. Why?

Answers on page 100

2. *Pairs.* Make a guess. What do you think these films are about? Choose from the list on the right.

a. In *Roman Holiday*, Audrey Hepburn stars as a princess	• that eats swimmers.
b. *Trouble in Paradise* is about two thieves	• that wants to be a dog.
c. *Babe* is about a pig	• who runs away from home.
d. *Twister* is about two scientists	• that has special powers.
e. *Jaws* is about a huge shark	• who study dangerous tornados.
f. In *The Mask*, Jim Carrey finds a mask	• who fall in and out of love.

Figure 7 *Transitions 1* (Oxford University Press, 1998)

The activity takes about fifteen minutes.

The sentences that are in the book have been transferred on to cards.

Teacher B divides the class into two groups of six students and hands out a set of cards to each group. He tells them to match the cards. Six movies are described on the cards; there are twelve cards in each set. Examples: *Trouble in Paradise* is about two thieves...(card 1A)...who fall in and out of love (card 1B); *Babe* is about a pig...(card 3A)...that wants to be a dog (card 6B). Students sit on the floor to work. They spread out the cards on the floor but are confused about what to do. The teacher gives them an example by matching one pair of sentences himself. Once students have understood what the teacher is asking them to do, they get down to work. Students interact loudly with each other as they move the cards around and try to match them correctly. They make an effort to use English to communicate and do so successfully. The teacher stands by the students as he watches them working, but does not intervene in their negotiation. Students are on task throughout the activity and are able to match the sentences correctly in the end. Once they have finished matching the cards, the teacher plays the tape for them to check their answers. (The tape has the correct answers.) The teacher checks to see if they have any questions. There aren't any, so he moves on to the next activity.

Commentary Teacher B adapted Activity 2 by doing two format switches. The first switch was from reading and drawing lines to speaking and matching cards. Instead of having the learners connect the two sentence halves by drawing a line in the book, he transferred the sentence halves onto cards. The second switch was from pair to group work. Instead of having them work in pairs, as suggested in the book, he asked them to work in groups of six. The teacher assumed that telling the students what to do was enough preparation for the activity. It didn't work. Once he had demonstrated what to do, they understood.

Reflection

Why do you think Teacher B adapted the activity this way? What are the advantages of doing the activity the way the teacher has done it rather than the way it is suggested in the book? What are the disadvantages?

I see two important advantages to the way Teacher B has done it–group involvement and kinesthetic manipulation. One possible disadvantage is that students may not want to work on the floor or that there may not be space to spread the cards out on the floor.

Teacher C, in Extract 1 page 243, teaches in a private language school in Hong Kong. Her students are young adults. In the following example, we see how she teaches an information gap activity shown in Figure 8. In this kind of activity, Student A has information that Student B doesn't have and vice versa. The activity requires the students to use the target language in order to find out the missing information. Teacher C prepares the learners to do the activity, monitors them as they do, it and follows up with examples.

Action

Along the side of Extract 1, draw lines where the three phases of the activity (preparing, doing, follow-up) begin and end.

Then note where you find the following:

- Orienting the learners to the purpose of the activity
- Orienting the learners to how to do the activity (making sure they know what to do)
- Elicitation from learners
- Providing a context for the activity
- Monitoring the activity
- Personalizing

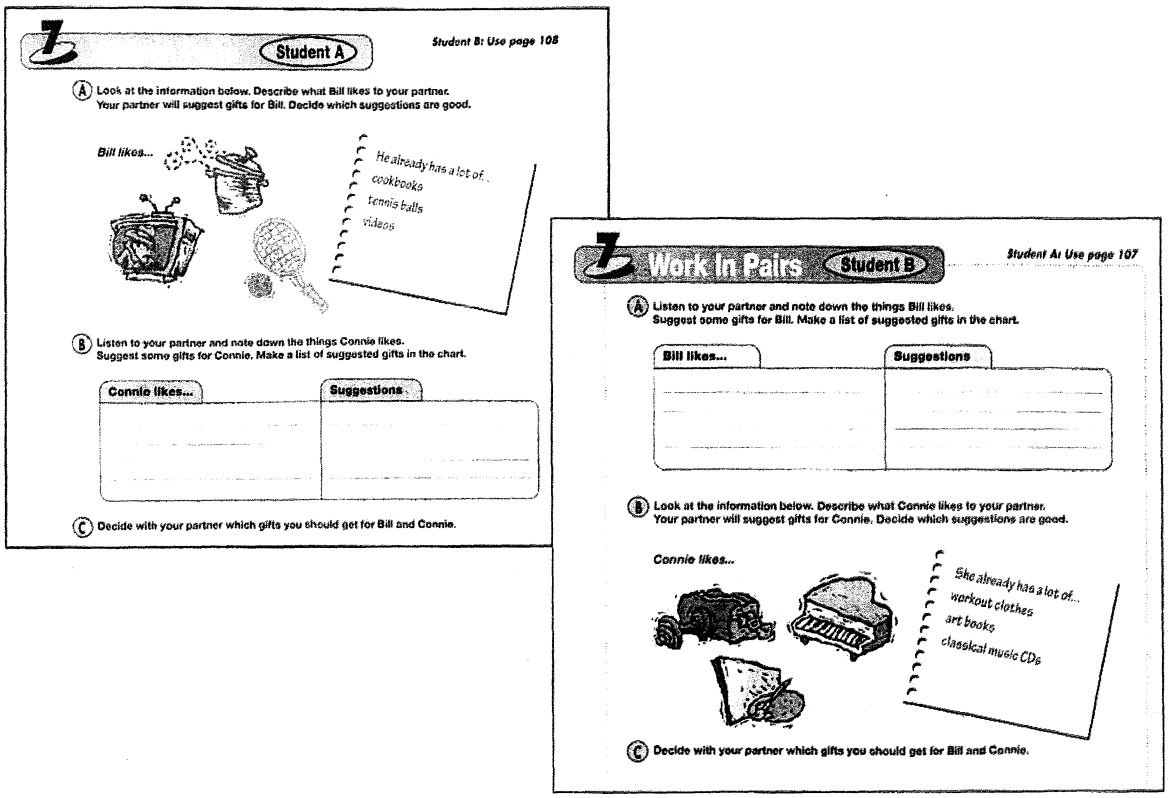


Figure 8 *Expressions 1* (Heinle/Thomson, 2001)

In the classroom extracts, *T* stands for teacher and *S* represents a particular student. *Ss* stands for students.

Extract 1

T: *Right, now are you ready to do the info gap task? Yes? We've done lots of these, now, haven't we?*

Ss: *(Nod)*

T: *The purpose of this task is to give you more practice in the language we're learning in this unit. What ARE we practicing? Remember? Johnny?*

S: *Talk about what people like.*

T: *Talking about what people like—good. And?*

S: *Talking about gift giving.*

T: *Talking about gift giving. Right. These are our communication goals. And what structures do we use to do these things? ... Anyone? ... Yes, Mary?*

S: What do you like? *And* What do you like doing?

T: *Great! And we use* "like" *to talk about things, right? And* "like doing" *to talk about activities. What about making gift giving suggestions?*

S: *Let's.*

T: *OK, good,* Let's get him a CD, *or* Let's get Tom a golf club. *OK, now WHEN do we give people gifts? WHEN? Yes, Monica?*

S: *Birthday.*

T: *Birthdays are good.* (Writes *birthdays* on the board) *Johnny?*

S: *New ... new baby.*

T: *That's a good suggestion.* (Writes *new baby* on the board and continues eliciting until there are a number of events on the board.) *OK, now get into your pairs and I want Student A to look at page 107, and Student B to look at page 108.* (Peers over students' shoulder) *Johnny, you're the B student aren't you? You're looking at the wrong page. 108, please. Good. Now, Bill likes the things the A students can see in the picture, but he already has these things. OK? Understand, Monica? Right. So, tell your partner what Bill likes, and your partner will suggest gifts. Write the suggestions in the space, and then decide on the best idea. Oh, Student A—start off by suggesting a reason for buying a gift—look at the board—it's his birthday, he's going away and so on. Right, off you go.*

(The students complete the task. As they do so, the teacher circulates and monitors. When she hears a mistake, she writes it in a notebook, but does not interrupt the students.)

T: *OK, I think everybody's finished now. Are you two finished? Right, good. So, now I want you to do the same thing for Connie. B, tell A what Connie likes. A will make suggestions. Write them down then decide, decide on the best one, OK?*

(Again, the teacher circulates and monitors. At one point she is stopped by one pair, listens to their question and says "It's called a subscription—a subscription.")

T: *OK, time's up. Let's hear what each pair decided.* (Teacher elicits responses from the students and writes them on the board.) *Well, that's great—look at all these interesting gifts. Which of these gifts would YOU like to receive, Johnny? ... Sorry?*

S: *The California Fitness Subscription.*

T: Yeah, I like that one, too. How about you, Sophie? (She continues, eliciting students' preferences, and writing their names next to the gift.) *OK, now, you all did very well, but I noticed a few mistakes creeping in here and there. Look.*

(She writes the mistakes from her notebook on the board and gets students to self-correct.)

Commentary Teacher C provides an excellent example of how to introduce and maintain control of an activity so that students are free to concentrate on the task and practice the target language. When she elicits examples, she makes sure to call on a variety of students. She is nonjudgmental in the way she makes sure that students are "on task" and in the way she introduces error correction at the end. She provides a human touch in her responses by not only asking for students' personal preferences, but in commenting on what they have chosen and on what she herself would choose.

6. Conclusion

In this chapter, I outlined some of the ways in which coursebooks have changed through the years, as well as some of the disadvantages and advantages of using coursebooks. I then explained five principles for using a coursebook, followed by techniques that show how to put the principles into practice: how a coursebook is organized, ways to prepare for, monitor, and follow up an activity, ways to adapt and supplement what is in a coursebook, as well as how to build a repertoire of one's own. In the last part of the chapter, we looked at how three teachers prepare to teach using a coursebook.

Further readings

Graves, K. 2000. *Designing Language Courses: A Guide for Teachers.* Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Chapter 9, "Adapting a textbook," goes into more detail about ways to adapt a coursebook at the syllabus, unit, or activity level with step-by-step examples from teachers. It also discusses the "hidden curriculum" of coursebooks.

Rinvolucri, M. 2002. *Humanising Your Coursebook: Activities to bring your classroom to life.* London: First Person Publishing.

This book describes 95 activities for using a coursebook with sections on warm-up activities, grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, listening, speaking, and assessment.

Woodward, T. 2001. A Central Tool: The Coursebook, p. 145–160 in *Planning Lessons and Courses.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

This section includes ideas for orienting yourself and the students to the coursebook as a whole as well as thoughtful ways to adapt it.

Helpful Web sites

Many coursebooks now have their own Web sites to provide additional activities.

Here are Web addresses for a few of the major ESL/ELT publishers.

Cambridge University Press (http://publishing.cambridge.org/elt)

Heinle/Thomson Publishing (http://www.heinle.com)

McGraw-Hill/Contemporary (http://mhcontemporary.com)

Oxford University Press (http://www.oup.co.uk)

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Sato, Y. 2002. "Teacher and Student Learning in the Workplace." Paper presented at the annual conference of the Japan Association for Language Teaching, Shizuoka, Japan.

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BOX 13.1.1: IN FAVOUR OF USING A COURSEBOOK

1. Framework
A coursebook provides a clear framework: teacher and learners know where they are going and what is coming next, so that there is a sense of structure and progress.

2. Syllabus
In many places the coursebook serves as a syllabus: if it is followed systematically, a carefully planned and balanced selection of language content will be covered.

3. Ready-made texts and tasks
The coursebook provides texts and learning tasks which are likely to be of an appropriate level for most of the class. This of course saves time for the teacher who would otherwise have to prepare his or her own.

4. Economy
A book is the cheapest way of providing learning material for each learner; alternatives, such as kits, sets of photocopied papers or computer software, are likely to be more expensive relative to the amount of material provided.

5. Convenience
A book is a convenient package. It is bound, so that its components stick together and stay in order; it is light and small enough to carry around easily; it is of a shape that is easily packed and stacked; it does not depend for its use on hardware or a supply of electricity.

6. Guidance
For teachers who are inexperienced or occasionally unsure of their knowledge of the language, the coursebook can provide useful guidance and support.

7. Autonomy
The learner can use the coursebook to learn new material, review and monitor progress with some degree of autonomy. A learner without a coursebook is more teacher-dependent.

BOX 13.1.2: AGAINST USING A COURSEBOOK

1. Inadequacy
Every class – in fact, every learner – has their own learning needs: no one coursebook can possibly supply these satisfactorily.

2. Irrelevance, lack of interest
The topics dealt with in the coursebook may not necessarily be relevant or interesting for your class.

3. Limitation
A coursebook is confining: its set structure and sequence may inhibit a teacher's initiative and creativity, and lead to boredom and lack of motivation on the part of the learners.

4. Homogeneity
Coursebooks have their own rationale and chosen teaching/learning approach. They do not usually cater for the variety of levels of ability and knowledge, or of learning styles and strategies that exist in most classes.

5. Over-easiness
Teachers find it too easy to follow the coursebook uncritically instead of using their initiative; they may find themselves functioning merely as mediators of its content instead of as teachers in their own right.

PDP framework

(Please answer in **full sentences** and **in your own words**)

1) What are the four skills we teach in English? Which of those skills can we teach using the PDP framework?

2) Describe what PDP stands for. Demonstrate your understanding of the framework by summarizing what happens in each of the three stages of the lesson.

What is PDP?

PDP is a framework that can be used to teach the receptive skills – listening and reading. In regards to reading, it helps in building learners' reading skills as well as their reading comprehension.

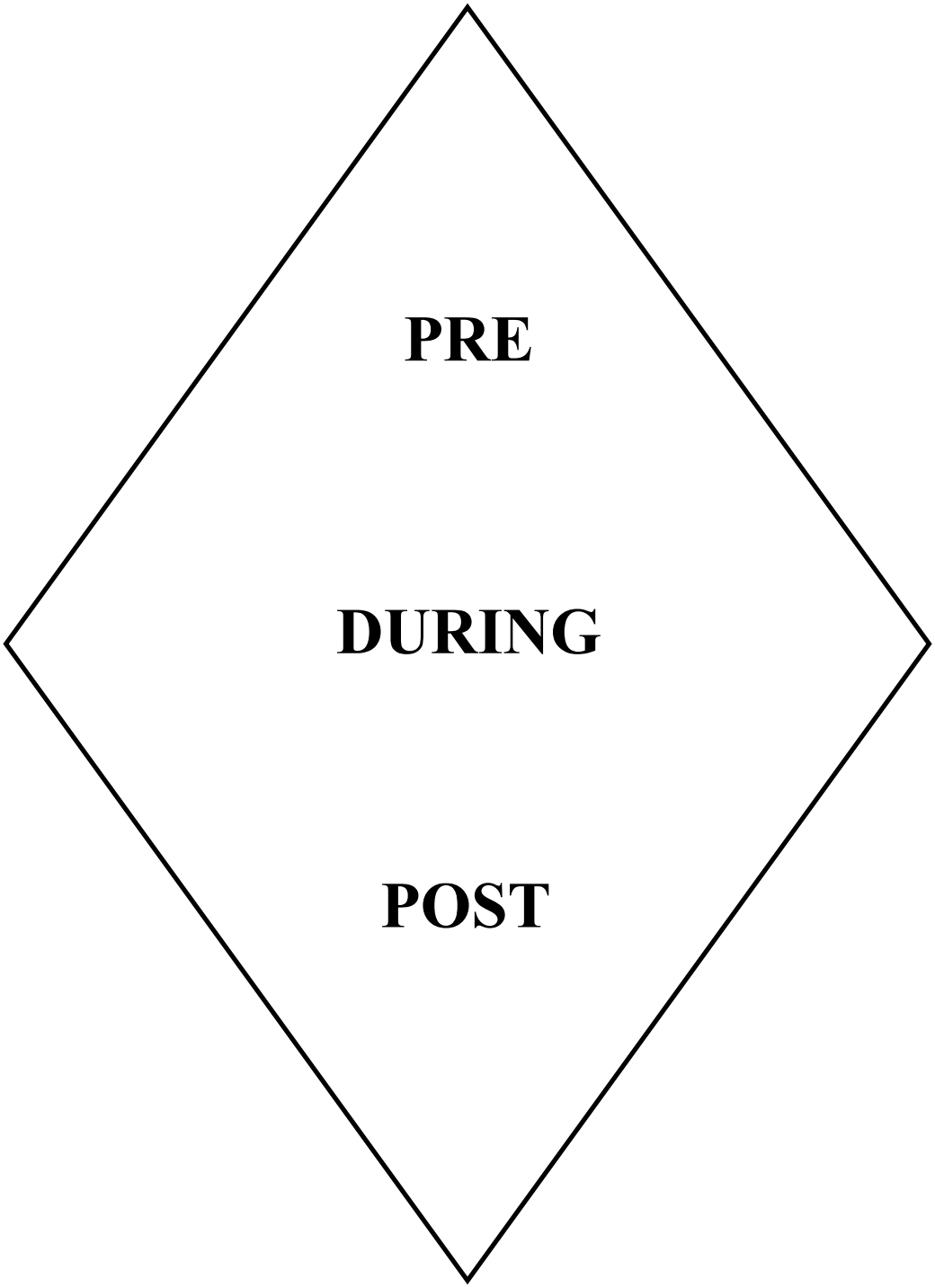
The first **"P"** in **PDP** refers to the **"PRE"** reading/listening stage in a lesson. This is the stage of the lesson **before** (i.e.: "PRE") the learners read or listen to the text. Activities in this stage attempt to do things such as: activating schema, assessing students' background knowledge, pre-learning the new and necessary vocabulary to understand the text, and generating students' interest in the topic. The purpose of doing these kinds of pre-reading/listening activities is to help set the learners up for a successful reading/listening.

The **"D"** in **PDP** stands for the **"DURING"** reading/listening stage in a lesson. This is the stage of the lesson that happens **while** (i.e.: "DURING") the learners actually interact with (read/listen) the text. In this stage, learners are provided with several activities that allow them to have multiple exposures to the text. The activities are given to the learners before they read/listen. These activities should incorporate different reading/listening techniques. The purpose of providing learners with many chances to read/listen to the text with a variety of different activities is to improve their reading/listening skills and help them to comprehend the text (as this is the main purpose/objective of reading/listening). Activities in this stage are sequenced and scaffolded in such a manner that learners are provided with the support they need to fully understand a given text. Activities and tasks should be staged in a step-by-step manner from **general to specific**, **easy to difficult**, and **concrete to abstract**. By the end of this stage, students should be able to fully comprehend the text. Therefore, the last activity of this stage should be one in which students show a comprehensive understanding of the text.

The second **"P"** in **PDP** relates to the "**POST"** reading/listening stage in a lesson. This stage happens **after** (i.e.: "POST") the learners have read/listened to the text and have shown comprehension of it. The POST stage is not a necessary stage in a receptive skill lesson, i.e., the student learning objective is achieved at the end of the **DURING**. Thus, it is an extra stage – the "icing on the cake" so to speak. Activities in this stage focus on building/integrating other skills by using and expanding on the content/theme/topic of the text. POST stage activities also help the learners make sense of what they have learned. POST activities usually encourage learners to connect/apply the content/theme/topic to their lives and to personalize the content/theme/topic by allowing the learners to creatively use what they know and/or have learned.

The illustration on the following page depicts the PDP framework in the shape of a diamond. This shape represents the amount of time that should be used for each stage. The PRE and POST stages are the shortest and the DURING stage is the longest. This means that the DURING stage in the most important because it is the stage in which learners use the skill (i.e., reading/listening) which is the focus of the lesson.

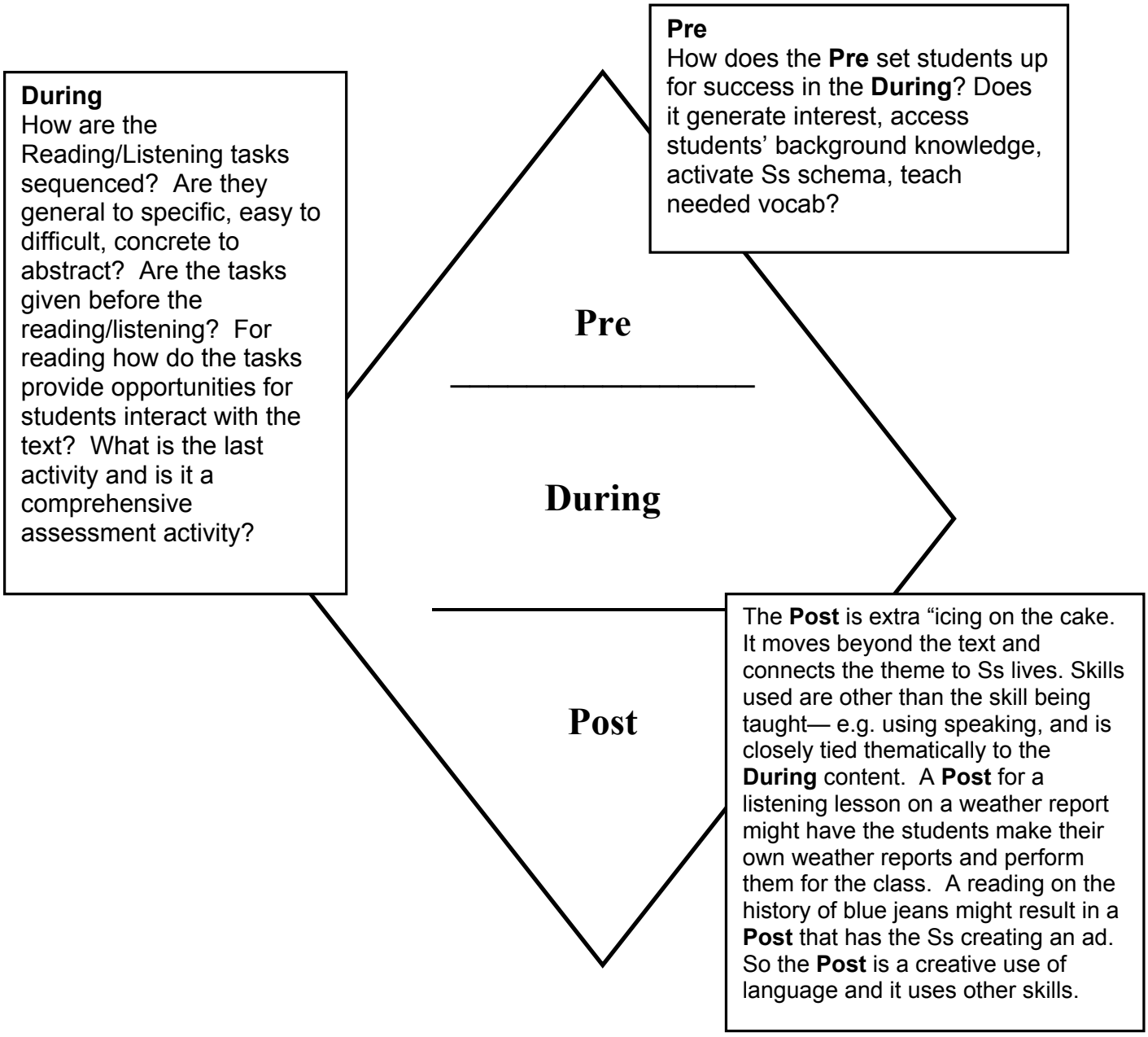
PDP Framework



PDP analysis

Questions to think about after teaching a listening/reading lesson:
What in the lesson contributed to the success/failure of the achievement of the student learning objective (SLO)?

State if the SLO was met or not and why you think so—what evidence do you have? Then state what in each of the lesson parts—Pre and During stages in a PDP--led to the SLO being met or not met in the last task in the During.



Teaching listening

WHY LISTEN?

- to engage in social rituals
- to exchange information
- to exert control
- to share feelings
- to enjoy yourself

WHAT ARE SOME OF THE MOST COMMON LISTENING SITUATIONS?

- listening to live conversations
- listening to announcements (at airports, railway stations, bus stations, etc)
- listening to/watching the news, the weather forecast on the radio/TV
- listening to the radio/watching TV for entertainment watching a play/movie
- listening to records (songs, etc)
- following a lesson (at school)
- attending a lecture
- listening on the telephone
- following instructions
- listening to someone giving a speech/a public address

WHAT SHOULD TEACHER'S OBJECTIVES INCLUDE?

- exposing students to a range of listening experiences
- making listening ***purposeful*** for the students
- helping students understand what listening entails and how they might approach it
- building up students' confidence in their own listening ability

HOW DOES ONE SUCCEED WITH LISTENING WORK?

1) Make sure instructions are clear; students have to understand very clearly what they are expected to do.
2) Make sure that each time a listening text is heard, even for the second or third time, the students have a specific ***purpose*** for listening; give them a task.
3) Do plenty of pre-listening work.
4) Encourage students not to worry if they don't understand every word;; a task can be completed even when they miss some of the words.
5) Never use a recorded listening text without having listened to it yourself.
6) Test equipment beforehand.

Listening guidelines

Skill: *LISTENING*

Definition: Listening is actively making meaning from verbal input.

What listening involves:

- getting clues from the environment: facial expressions, gestures, background noise, the setting, the people
- using one's background knowledge about the setting, topic and language (pronunciation and grammar) to make inferences and predictions
- distinguishing which words and groups of words are important and carry the meaning
- understanding and interpreting the meaning of those words and groups of words (which includes pronunciation, colloquial vocabulary, ungrammatical utterances, redundancy)
- usually, some kind of response

A good listening lesson:

1) Has pre-listening activities.
   These should help students use their background knowledge about the setting, topic and language associated with them so that they can anticipate and predict what they will hear.

2) Allows students to know the kind of text and purpose for listening in advance.

3) Gives students a purpose for listening, which can include one or more of the following:
   - to get *general* information (e.g. how many movies are playing)
   - to get *specific* information (e.g. what time the movies are playing)
   - to accomplish a task (e.g. to decide which movie to go to)

4) Requires some kind of response from the listener such as taking notes, answering questions, making a group decision.

5) Uses appropriate material:
   - the topic is of interest or value to the students
   - it is at the right level
   - it offers environmental clues, when possible
   - the is visible, when possible
   - it is authentic, when possible

6) Gives students more than one chance to listen, each time with a different purpose.

7) Has follow up activities which include the other skills.

Typical materials:

Authentic: radio broadcasts, recordings (e.g. of movie times, airport announcements), videos of TV shows or movies, lectures, phone conversations
Semi-authentic: unrehearsed tapes; role plays with native speakers who speak at normal speed
Prepared: commercially prepared tapes and videos

Typical *pre-listening* activities:
pictures to activate background knowledge; TPR (Total Physical Response); brainstorming what students know about the topic with a word map; showing realia related to the topic such as a menu or a movie schedule

Typical *during-listening* activities:
identify specific words; figure out relationship by listening to tone of voice; listen for specific intonation (statement question); raise hand when hearing certain words; listen to background noise to establish setting and topic; doing a task such as filling out a form, following a map or taking an order; making a decision based on the information; cloze passages; detecting mistakes; guessing; note-taking from a lecture

Typical *post-listening* activities:
Interviewing native speakers; calling for information (e.g. travel agency, movie theatre, car rental agency, restaurant); reading and/or writing about the topic; discussing the topic; listening to another example

Recommended resources:

Ur, P. (1984). *Teaching Listening Comprehension*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dunkel, P. (1996). *Advanced and Intermediate Listening Comprehension*. Heinle & Heinle.

Reading guidelines

Skill: READING

Definition: Reading is actively making meaning from written input.

What reading involves:

- basic literacy; that is, decoding letters to understand words.
- getting clues from text: layout, headings, illustrations.
- using ones' background knowledge about the topic, type of written material (e.g. letter, want ad, poem) and language (vocabulary and grammar) in order to make inferences and predictions.
- using appropriate strategies depending on the type of material and one's purpose in reading it (e.g. scanning the phone book for a number, reading the recipe in detail, skimming a newspaper article).

A good reading lesson:

1. has pre-reading activities to prepare and motivate students to
    - use their background knowledge.
    - anticipate what they will read so they will be successful
    - decide on a reading strategy
2. helps students practice reading skills.
3. helps them learn new vocabulary and information in the L2.
4. uses appropriate material:
    - the topic is of interest or value to the students,
    - it is at the right level, and
    - it is authentic, when possible
5. gives students reading tasks, which can include one or more of the following:
    - to get general information (e.g. how many movies are playing).
    - to get specific information (e.g. what time the movies are playing).
    - to accomplish a task (e.g. to decide which movie to go to).
6. requires some kind of response from the reader such as taking notes, answering questions, and/or making a group decision
7. gives students an opportunity and reason to read the text more than once.
8. there are follow up activities which include the other skills.

Typical *pre-reading* activities:

<u>At the level of basic literacy</u>: matching capital letters with lower case letters, or first letter with a picture; picking out words in the same category (e.g. food); sight words; phonics; connecting spoken language that students know with the corresponding written form; ordering pictures for left-right orientation of English script.

Beginners: teacher elicits what students know about the topic; students brainstorm word maps around the topic; students use a dictionary to look up the meaning of key vocabulary from the text and then put them into categories; students look at and discuss pictures related to the text; students look at headings, layout, and pictures and make predictions about the text.

Intermediate/advanced: above activities; students generate questions they hope the text will answer; students write about what they know about the topic; students answer questions about the text.

Typical *during-reding* activities:
Students read for specific information; read and retell to a partner (variation: use rods to retell); read text in jigsaw groups and then discuss; match text to pictures; accomplish a task based on the reading (e.g. filling out a form, deciding what to order); play concentration games with new vocabulary; complete sentences form the text; reorder scrambled sentences into paragraphs and then check against original text; make up their own comprehension questions and quiz classmates; make an outline of what they read; show through pictures, graphs, or lists what was in the text.

Typical *post-reading* activities:
Are activities that ask the students to move beyond the text they read by writing a response to the text; discussing the text; listening to something related to the text; making up new endings; telling what happened before the text started.

Recommended resources:

Grellet, Francoise (1981). *Developing Reading Skills.* Cambridge University Press.

Day, R. (1993). *New Ways in Teaching Reading.* TESOL Press.

Silberstein, Sandra (1994). *Techniques in Teaching Reading*. Oxford University Press.

Pre-During-Post framework
for receptive skills lessons

PRE

Goals

- prepare student for listening/reading by contextualizing and/or personalizing to both make it more accessible and more realistic as it is less common to find oneself listening/reading to something totally our of context
- involve students in specific topic
- activate prior knowledge
- provide purpose for listening

Activity Types

- discussion of what they see in the visual or the task
- prediction questions to discuss what they can expect to hear
- questions to activate prior/background/own knowledge of topic
- introduce or elicit general topic through key vocabulary introduction/activation
- matching
- categorizing
- rating
- listing
- adding own known related vocabulary
- discussing own relationship with vocabulary items
- finding items in a visual or graphic organizer (for example the K & W sections of a K/W/L Chart
- fill-in-the-blanks with vocabulary words
- answering questions using vocabulary
- matching questions and responses (e.g. formulaic language, such as greetings, telephone language, talking about opinions, etc.)
- ordering, ranking or sequencing
- write sentences about visual or own information or using given vocabulary words
- finding or producing antonyms/synonyms
- making inferences/deductions from picture to sue vocabulary
- interact personally with the new/activated vocabulary
- completing a chart or table
- “Talk About Yourself” using given phrases and/or vocabulary at a lower level
- rating something
- choosing what applies to you from a list and then discussing it
- listing/brainstorming words that apply to given categories
- discussion questions
- create a picture dictionary
- vocabulary games like charades, taboo, pictionary

DURING

Goals

To comprehend the text through multiple exposures; from general to specific information, easy to difficult tasks and concrete to abstract concepts in order to:

- complete a task
- get new information
- learn something about themselves
- further develop language skills (especially lexis, but also pronunciation and grammar awareness)
- develop strategies for listening/reading more effectively

Examples of tasks for multiple listening and reading

First Listening/Reading (Usually in terms of main ideas, theme and/or topic)

Listening/Reading for:	***Example activities:***
- gist - purpose: to persuade, to apologize to invite, ask permission - main idea - attitudes/emotions: positive, negative, warm, angry - key words - acceptance or refusal of an id3ea or invitation - permission granted or refused opinions: good/bad, useful/worthless, lovely/dirty, convenient - time references: past, present, future, completed, incomplete, - preferences - agreement and disagreement with own previously stated ideas - agreement and disagreement between speakers - general time: season, period of the day (evening or morning) - context or setting (outside, move theater, restaurant, home, office, school) - likes and dislikes - identify speech act: greeting, toast, introduction - interest level of speaker/listener for topic listening for tense/aspect/time	- ordering/numbering items of main ideas - making a list of main or significant events - reading or listening for the mood, feeling or tone of the text or passage - fill in the blanks for main ideas such as in an outline where the details are provided but not the main ideas - ranking the importance of the main ideas or significant events - select the correct response such as what's the best title for this passage - multiple choice - label pictures, graph, or graphic organizer - matching picture with description - matching two general pieces of information - checking off relevant information from a text or picture - writing summary statements - (possible but rare) true/false of significant plot events or main ideas

Listening/Reading for Specific Information

Listening/Reading for more - detail - reasons - affect - tone - implications - inference - examples - determine meaning of vocabulary, phrases from context - identify intonation or stress - determine meaning from intonation or stress distinguish between yes/no and information questions - identify specific parts of speech: prepositions, verb tense, adjective forms, negative prefixes, tag questions - determine meaning of specific parts of speech - recognize spelling or numbers - identify specifics: names, body parts, cities, foods, colors, clothing items, times, jobs, etc. order events - decipher rapid or reduced speech	Example activities: - filling in cloze - ordering/numbering items - fill in the blanks - ranking - true/false - select the correct response - multiple choice - fill in graph, or graphic organizer label pictures or parts of pictures - matching two pieces of information checking off relevant information from a text or picture - listening for specific words - writing short answers - using context to define new words - short answer - matching - acting out what is happening in the text - labeling - write out (words, numbers, phrases) - check off what you hear or read - list - mark stress or intonation - apply punctuation to tape script - correct errors - changing easy vocabulary words to more difficult vocabulary words that mean the same thing

A list of Comprehensive Assessment Activities: Appropriate for achievement of SLO

- Summary and/or Retelling
- Sequencing sentences to complete a summary
- Sequencing pictures
- Using pictures to retell the text
- Synthesis such as making inferences, drawing conclusion or reading/listening between the lines
- Application of new knowledge; e.g. using what they have learned to identify the technique being used
- Detailed Questions → Detailed questions cover the “who,” “what,” “where,” “when,” “why” and “how” of the story or text.
- Discussion and/or Debate

POST Listening/Reading
Goals
- to personalize the TL/Topic/Theme; to expand on the content of the listening or reading text through practical use
- to develop language by integrating listening/reading with other skills

Activity Types
- discussion or writing on the topic or the ideas (e.g. agreeing or disagreeing, comparing, reacting)
- perform a role-play (e.g. the author of the text and talk show host, a character or person in the text and student in the class, made up characters related to the topic but not found in the text
- writing with attention to form and function (e.g. copy the genre of the reading using another topic, revise the text with a different point-of-view, create a different ending or write an expansion of the text, write a letter related to the text, create a move/book or product related to the text.
- listening to a song or watching a video clip that relate to the text and making comparisons in speaking or writing.
- making a poster
- doing any of the above with attention on the lexis and grammar introduced in the text, and with attention to pronunciation if speaking.

Pre-During-Post Checklist

Use this form to check your lesson plans

Clear Learning objectives

Definition: Receptive lessons are ones in which the main learning objective involves the students demonstrating that they have understood a text which would normally be challenging for them because of its language, style, or organization.

❑ uses observable verbs describing student behavior

❑ uses the following pattern in writing the SWBAT:

> by the end of the lesson, student will be able to (SWBAT) … (complete receptive task X) while working with text Y (using …) so that they can then do post text activity Z (speaking or writing).

PRE stage – Students become familiar with the topic, the language and essential vocabulary they will use during the lesson.

❑ Activates schema through use of visuals, topic-related discussion, prediction **in a learner-centered way.**

❑ Provides background and situation related to the text in an interactive and **in a learner-centered way.**

❑ Pre-teaches or introduces key vocabulary and language structures related to the text **in a learner-centered way.**

DURING stage – Students interact directly with the text a number of times, each time with a specific purpose that leads the students to gradually gain a more detailed understanding of the text.

❑ Provides multiple opportunities for student to hear/read the text.

❑ Each listening/reading has an interactive task requiring some kind of response from the students **and students check with peers before responding to the teacher.**

❑ Tasks move from general to specific understanding. From getting the gist/main idea to looking for specific, discrete pieces of information/individual words.

❑ Allows time for students to check comprehension, as questions, clarify vocabulary and move toward deeper understanding of the text.

POST Stage – Students' understanding of the text is reinforced through expanding on the text or personalizing the topic using other language skill areas (speaking or writing).

❑ Requires students to be creative and to expand on the text or personalize the topic using other skills **in a learner-centered way.**

❑ Allows students to reinforce the new vocabulary words/language structures using other skills **in a learner-centered way.**

SLO formula for receptive skill lessons:

By the end of the lesson, SWBAT demonstrate their understanding/comprehension of the _____ (text/passage/story/dialog/conversation/article/etc.), _____ (title of text) **BY** _____ (comprehensive assessment activity)

Example:

By the end of the lesson, SWBAT demonstrate their understanding of the conversation, *"Problems at the Airport"* **BY** describing the inferred conclusions about what each speaker will do.