BACKGROUND

Keeping language and culture alive has been important for every group of immigrants to Australia. The first Community Language school was started by German immigrants to South Australia in 1839 and by 1900 there were some 46 German schools in South Australia alone. The first Polish school was started in 1850; Hebrew schools began in 1865 and the first Greek community school was started in Sydney in 1896; the Chinese community began a primary school in 1910 in Surry Hills. It was the post World War II migration, however, that led to the rapid growth of Community Language Schools. By 1969 there were 79 Greek schools and many Italian, Croatian, Hungarian, Serbian and Spanish schools operating all over Australia. All communities have a history of schools started by parents and community members to pass on their language and culture to the next generation.

In the 1970s multilingualism and multiculturalism in Australia began to be recognised. In 1981 the Federal government established the Ethnic Schools Program which provided support for the more than 60 Community Languages spoken in Australian society. The schools grew rapidly and in 1986 funding was capped by the Federal Government. In 1992 the program was replaced by the Community Languages Schools Program. Funding was increased from $35 to $60 per student per year and responsibility for programs was devolved to the states.

PRESENT SITUATION

Over 100,000 students now attend Community Languages Schools learning one of over 60 languages. In NSW 33,000 students attend around 450 schools and are taught by about 2,000 teachers. There are also large numbers of similar schools in the UK, Europe and North America. In the US there is a large network of ‘heritage’ language schools, especially for Spanish and Chinese. Many students continue to study their heritage language at university in the US. In Britain the schools are called ‘complementary’ schools because they complement day schools. There are also systems in Canada and New Zealand, in Sweden, Germany and France. Wherever groups of immigrants have settled they have established community languages schools. Australia is one of the few countries in the world where these schools receive government funding.

GOALS OF THE SCHOOLS

The main aim of the schools in Australia has always been language and cultural maintenance. Typically, parents would realise early on that children were
switching to English and that the family needed support from outside to help maintain the language. As communities developed, the need to develop the new generations understanding of traditions and cultural practices also became important. Another reason was being able to communicate with relatives and others at community events and also when returning for visits to the countries of origin.

Changes in Community Languages

Australia is a multilingual country, with over 127 languages spoken on a daily basis. In NSW 25% of schools students come from a language background other than English. Despite the widespread use of languages, there is evidence that there is a high shift to English in the second generation. Typically, when young children start school, English replaces their home language especially in the written form. Young children in families speak to each other in English and often reply to their parents in English. In every language, there has developed a mixed form of the home language and English. In some communities, such as German and Dutch there is only 10% of maintenance in the second generation; in others such as Turkish, Vietnamese and Greek the level of maintenance is over 70%. In many older communities, the community languages may still be spoken by grandparents, but is not spoken much in the home or in the community. In some cases, it is only in the Community Language school that children have access to the language. In the past 10 years the numbers of students in NSW Community Languages Schools has fallen from 45,000 to 33,000. This trend is not one-way. The introduction of media from overseas, increased travel and migration have changed the situation in many communities.

Languages in general

Although Australia is a multilingual country and there have been many government policies supporting languages study there has been a serious decline in recent years. Despite multiple attempts to provide for language study at various levels through policy and funding, the uptake of languages among school-age children remains very low by international standards. For example, Australian young people spend less time studying languages than young people in all other OECD countries. In 2007, only 13.4% of Year 12 students graduated with a language other than English (LOTE), a drop from 40% in the 1960s (MCEETYA 2005). Across Australia, less than 2% of young people are studying more than one language, something which is the norm in most European and Asian countries (Eurydice 2005, Clyne 2005). In global terms, Australia is falling behind other countries where English is the national language. In the US, 44% of students study languages to Year 12 and in the UK just under 50% take a second language for the GCSE. Most worrying are the indications that maintenance of many home languages is under serious threat. Nearly 17% of Australians speak a language other than English at home, a figure rising to
31.4% in Sydney and 27.9% in Melbourne (Clyne et al 2004), but this resource is not being developed as children progress through schooling.

Role of Community Languages Schools

The Community Languages Schools play an important role in languages study in Australia as one of the main systems. The system complements the other ways in which community languages can be studied. These provisions vary from state to state since education is mainly the responsibility of individual states.

In NSW there is the Community Languages Program in government primary schools. XXX teachers are teaching xxxxx students in xxxxx languages as part of this program. There are also programs in non-government schools. In secondary schools students can study xxx languages for the Higher School Certificate and university entry. There are classes in community languages in many government and non-government schools. In NSW the Saturday School of Community Languages offers teaching to Year 12 of some 27 languages to 7,000 students.

Reasons for languages study

When many migrants started in Australia schools, they were often told to forget their home language and to speak English to their parents. We now know that maintaining and developing the home language has many, many benefits.

Research by Jim Cummins shows that young people who have the equivalent of one year’s education in their home language, can catch up to native speakers in English in four years or less. Children without strong home language skills can take seven years or more. Reading and writing skills transfer from the home language to second language. The better the home language, the less interference there is between that language and English.

Other research shows that children with two languages have better cognitive thinking skills. They can understand language better and have more developed metalinguistics and metacognitive thinking. Students with strong home language perform as well or better at school than monolingual students. Other benefits are social and vocational. Young people who have a good understanding of their cultural heritage, are more accepting of other cultures. They also have better intercultural understanding. There are also more career opportunities. The research nowadays is clear: having two or more languages is an advantage. In fact it is a prerequisite in today’s world. Almost 60% of the world’s population is bilingual.
**Issues for Community Languages Schools – Students**

Over 60% of students with community language backgrounds are now born in Australia. Schools are teaching second and third generation students for whom the home language may be mainly English. This was not the case in the 1960s when students were much more fluent in their home language. Now many children are learning their community language as a second not first language.

The young people now have complex identities and the goal of the schools as language and cultural maintenance is not so simple. This is particularly true of the major languages after English spoken in NSW: Arabic and Chinese. In both Arabic and Chinese schools (along with many others) students are learning a language which they may have had limited contact with outside the school. Chinese students may have English, Cantonese or one of the other dialects as home language and be learning Mandarin at school. Arabic-background students will have access to spoken dialect at home but will be acquiring the formal *al fus’ha* at school.

There is a wide range of fluency of students in any one class. In some communities children come with no community languages. Often parents in mixed marriages will send children along to develop the community language. Other students are recent migrants with high level spoken and written language skills.

Young people have many demands on their time. Community Languages Schools compete with sports and other activities. Nowadays many parents choose to send their children to tutoring or coaching colleges. Ensuring continuous attendance is a problem for schools.

**Issues - Teachers**

It is difficult for schools to maintain teaching staff when funding is so low. Many teachers are trained overseas but have qualifications which are not fully recognised in Australia. They also have not been supported with professional development in the Australian school system. Others have experience of the local system but report the need for professional development in formal aspects of the language they teach: this is particularly true of the new generation of teachers coming through.

**Issues - Curriculum and resources**

Many curriculum materials treat Australian students as native speakers of the language which they are not. The content of the materials does not reflect the realities of the students and they feel the standards are too high. There is a lack of resources and materials apart from these textbooks.
Some research shows that learning outcomes from Community Languages Schools in general are not high. On average students gain knowledge of letters and some words: numbers, colours and some vocabulary, some songs and games, but have low levels of formal spoken and written language skills after several years of study. Although there is a K-10 Languages Curriculum, it is not specific for languages although there are versions in several community languages. There are few support materials and the syllabus is not able to be implemented in most schools.

Issues - Status

Despite the improvement in the arrangements for use of school facilities, Community Languages Schools remain marginalised. Most day schools are not aware of Community Languages Schools.

The Future

In some communities learners only have access to the community language in the community languages school. We must be realistic about what schools can achieve if the only input they are getting is several hours a week. Students will not become native speakers. Secondly, we must acknowledge the impact of day schools on students. Often, children replace the home language with English. By the time they leave school they have shifted to English only and lost their home language. It is only when these students leave school and start their own families that they realise what they have lost.

The future is not so bleak. The developments in the media and in travel and in languages teaching in Australia and overseas mean that the status of bilingualism and the status of languages learning has to change.

Conclusion

Teachers in Community Languages Schools are carrying on a long tradition. They achieve remarkable outcomes in difficult conditions. Their mainly voluntary work has meant that generations of young people have valued their language and cultural heritage and have gained fluency and understanding that might not have been otherwise possible. Despite the difficulties, what the schools have achieved and continue to achieve is remarkable.

- Young children learn about and become proud of their community language background and cultural traditions. They continue this knowledge into second and third generations and pass them on to their children.
- Community languages schools are succeeding in reviving languages and cultures. Many families migrate to Australia without strong heritage language and cultural knowledge because these were lost in their
countries of origin. The schools are managing to revive songs, stories, dance and language for the children and also for adults.

- The Community Languages Schools manage to develop the love of learning in children and many go on to study their language and culture for the HSC and later in life.
- Children who are lucky enough to develop and maintain their language and cultural traditions are not realising the benefits for their careers both in Australia and internationally.

All of these benefits are achieved with minimum funding support but with maximum community support.

Reports on Community Languages Schools

Cardona, B., Noble, G. and di Biase B. 2008. Community Languages Matter: Challenges and Opportunities facing the Community Languages Program in NSW. University of Western Sydney: Penrith


Ken Cruickshank
PLANNING FOR TEACHING
READING 3

Why plan?

I work during the week; I have a family and I teach in the Community Languages school on the weekend. When do you expect me to plan? Why should I plan? When can I find the time? I see experienced teachers and they never write plans. I have been teaching for many years and don’t need to plan.

You may be thinking any of the above. This unit is about planning lessons and units of work and the first question to answer is why plan? Experienced teachers may not write down detailed lesson plans, but they do plan: thinking about their classes during the days before they teach. You can plan even in the bath!

Teaching community languages is not easy: you may have four or five different levels in your class; some of your students may lack motivation; your school has to compete with many other out-of-school activities. By planning your units and lessons you can actually cut down the amount of work you do. You will make your teaching more effective and the student learning becomes more enjoyable. Students will have a clearer idea of what they are learning and you can cater better for different groups of students. Finally, by planning, you can know what you have succeeded in teaching and so become more expert and more confident in your teaching. This reading will go through lesson and unit planning for Community Languages Schools.

Where to start?

You must start with your students. Language learners in Australia are generally not native speakers of the language; they do not have the same motivations for learning nor the same access to hearing and using the language. As part of the course you will have completed a survey about your students. You need to think answer certain questions to know where to start your planning. Once you know your students, teaching becomes so much easier. Many problems arise when we start planning from where we think our students should be instead of where they are. There are some of the questions to think about.

1. What are their levels of fluency in speaking/ listening/ reading and writing? They may have good listening but need to focus on speaking; they may have good spoken language but need to focus on reading/ writing.
2. What are their motivations for learning? They may attend because of their parents. The reasons for learning are important.
3. What are their hobbies and interests?
4. What is their family background and access to the language outside the school? Do they interact with grandparents? Do they have access to TV/ DVDs? Do they use only English with brothers and sisters? This information helps you know how much you can rely on the home for language support.
Next step

A number of years ago my husband asked me the question, ‘How do you program for your class?’ Originally a secondary teacher, and then a lecturer in teacher education, he was suddenly faced with teaching an undergraduate class on ‘How to Program’. This was not a trick question. He genuinely wanted to know. Without thinking I gave him the answer that every teacher believes is the one a lecturer wants to hear. ‘Oh well, I guess I start with aims and objectives.’

‘You actually start with aims and objectives?’ he asked incredulously? After a little thought I said, ‘Well, in fact, I don’t do it that way. I start with an idea, or a book, plan other activities around it, and through these I achieve the various objectives.’

I then went on to suggest some language, reading and writing activities off the top of my head that could be done with a book, and was almost in time for school that day. Thus enlightened my husband went off to discuss these ideas with other lecturers who knew much more about programming than he did, and from all reports he greatly impressed them with his insights and challenged some of their thinking.

Nicoll, V 1996 May I see your program please? PETA, Sydney.

Experienced teachers plan in many different ways. Choose which part of the jigsaw you follow.

You may start with a textbook which is fine because it saves a lot of work. Textbooks give you and your students a clear sense of what you achieve and learn and give direction to learning. It is difficult to find good textbooks for Australia: the language levels can be too high and the content or topics may not be suitable for students learning in Australia. You may have to choose books that are written for younger students and this is not good. Also, you need more – what does it mean when students complete Chapter 1? What can they actually do? Read on.

You might start from aspects of grammar or language to teach such as the past tense, plurals and so on, Again, this gives the lesson some structure and the learners can get a sense of achievement. The problem can be that the grammar is out of context and doesn’t flow over into speaking and writing. Too much grammar can be like a diet of muesli – we need to move beyond this. Students need to learn grammar in context and to use it for it to be worthwhile.
Teaching about cultural events and issues is important. Students always enjoy this and the cultural understanding builds a sense of identity and belonging…but we need more. Culture without the language is not enough. It is only one part of the jigsaw. Many teachers start from activities, games and songs that they want to do. Students are actively involved and they learn the language unconsciously.

However, sometimes students need explicit teaching; too many games and they will not take learning seriously. Another common starting point is themes or topics such as my family, shopping, food, celebrations and pets/animals. This is how units of work in many day school community languages programs are organised. Having a theme or topic is like having a coat hanger to put your clothes on – it gives a meaning to all the learning and students can be more interested in the subject matter.

There is one piece of the jigsaw missing – no matter where you work from. This is what you want the students to learn – the outcome of the unit or lesson.

So, what will your students know and be able to do after completing the chapter? What can they tell their parents that they learned? What will they be able to do with the grammar and language they learned? What will they have learned from their song or game?
Outcomes

Your outcome for your unit of work can be a real life outcome. If it is relevant and interesting for the students they will be much more motivated. Think of some of the examples below:

At the end of this unit students will be able to:

- describe to their grandparents what they have done during the week;
- tell their grandparents about an incident or event from school or sport;
- buy food (from shops where the home language is spoken) to make a dish for a class celebration or party;
- explain to their parents how to play a game or activity in the home language;
- prepare and give a short introduction of themselves for a community radio station;
- read a story to a younger brother or sister;

Sometimes the outcome could involve parents coming to the school:

- give a short talk to parents about differences in schooling in Australia and overseas;
- give a powerpoint presentation on sports they like;
- make and talk about a poster describing celebrations;
- watch and then tell the story of a movie in the home language;
- present and talk about a song they like.

All these outcomes have several things in common. They involve a performance or demonstration of what students have learned. They are interesting outcomes that will motivate students. They involve students working with each other and the teacher and they all involve the students learning a range of different language skills.

You also need outcomes for every lesson that you teach. Ask yourself, What do I want my students to learn? Why do I want students to learn these things? How can I best help students to learn these things? How will I know when students have learned what I want them to learn?

When teachers are new to teaching, the concentrate on what they are teaching more than what students are learning. Imagine you will ask your class at the end of the lesson, What did you learn today? Now, a general answer such as learn more words, improve reading or writing, is not good enough. It must be specific such as to be able to describe their favourite sport giving a reason why they like it…..to be able to describe an accident they had (using past tense)….to be able to read/ understand a short passage about New Year. So, the lesson outcome involves specific language/ vocabulary and being able to use this language in a specific context. ¹

Educational terms

So far we have been using terms such as unit of work and lesson and these need to be explained. The curriculum is everything that the students learn from your school: what you teach and what learning experiences students have. This includes the language, the values and concepts and ideas – everything. It covers what is specifically taught but also what students learn unconsciously from the school. Curriculum should include learning pride in their cultural background and language. The syllabus is a plan of action with outcomes and content, how students will be taught and assessed. There is a syllabus for every subject area in NSW schools – Science, Mathematics, English and Creative Arts. Although there are specific syllabuses for 27 languages for the Higher School Certificate, there is a generic Languages syllabus for Kindergarten to Year 10. This was developed by the Board of Studies in 2004. Although it does

¹ In this course we will not go into details about aims, objectives and outcomes, although this is required in many syllabuses. We decided the term outcome was the most useful for teaching.
not specify the language and learning experiences for each language, it has a framework that can be applied. You can see this syllabus on the website. 

From each syllabus, teachers and schools design their own programs for specific subjects. The program contains the rationale and aims from the syllabus but then chooses the outcomes, content and activities that are suited to the students in the class and school. The program shows how you will meet the needs of your students over a period of time.

In this course we are asking you to prepare a unit of work. This is a detailed plan of activities which are sequenced. Each unit of work has outcomes and suggested teaching and learning activities. The unit of work can last for a few lessons or a whole term, depending on how large your topic or learning focus is. From this unit of work you prepare a lesson plan for each week. The lesson plan is what you want students to learn in that forty minutes or hour that you have them. In this course we are asking you to observe and record lesson plans from the day school and to prepare some of your own. See the Handbook for details.

Curriculum (everything that is learned)

Syllabus (list of what to teach in subject usually set by government)

Program (choice of what to teach for your students)

Unit of work (teaching/learning activities over a period of time)

Lesson what (what you cover in one lesson)

Starting your lesson

Thirty years ago in Australia, starting a lesson was so easy. The students would be in the room seated in rows with their books out and ready to work. Teachers would come in and students would often stand for the teacher to say Good morning, and then they would get down to work. Nowadays, teachers have to do much more work! Research on teaching in mainstream classes has found that when teachers structure their lessons effectively, they:

* begin a lesson with a short review of previous learning,
* begin the lesson with a short statement of goals,
* present new material in short steps,
* give clear instructions and explanations,
* provide a high level of practice and participation for students,
* check for student understanding and obtain responses from all,
* provide systematic feedback and correction

A typical class would begin with the teacher greeting students individually and getting them settled and taking out their books. Once you make that eye contact with individual students, you have their attention. Often, the teacher might ask a more –active- student to help clean the board or get things for the lesson. Then the teacher will talk to the whole class and bring them together. This might be done by the teacher asking students to pay attention and look to the teacher and then the teacher will stop and wait until all students do this. The teacher might even walk around or speak quietly to students not paying attention.

Ways to open lessons include

* describing the goals of the lesson,
* state the information or skills students could learn,
* describe the links between what they will learn and real life needs,
* describe what students will be expected to do,
* begin activity without any explanation,
* point out links between this and previous lesson,
* tell students the activity and that they will enjoy it,
* do something to catch students' attention and interest,
* review previous lesson and preview lesson.

**Finding out and building background knowledge**

If you are an experienced teacher you will know that there are many ways to structure a lesson. The suggestions included here are based on the ways than many community language teachers structure their lessons.

**Picture elicitation.** You can start with a picture of the topic for the lesson. For example if the lesson is about buying fruit and vegetables, you would start with a picture of a fruit shop; a lesson on families might begin with a photograph of a family or a family tree. This picture can be blown up to A3 or it could be made into an overhead transparency. The teacher could ask students to look at the picture and think of what they can see. Plan your questions beforehand and even write them down and practise in front of the mirror. Some suggestions:

1. Ask broad questions. *What can you see? What is happening here? Not What is this called?*
2. Get many answers to one question. Do not say *Yes/ No* but when one student answers, not your head and look around the class. You can say *What else?* Reflect answers to other students. *Peter says this…what do you think Gina?*
3. If one student is doing all the answering, spread the question. *What about someone up the back? What about one of the boys?*
4. If students give you answers in English, repeat their answer in your community language.
5. Ask questions for deeper thinking. *What do you think he is feeling? What will happen next?*
6. Summarise at the end and write the words and phrases on the board.
7. Then teach the words/ phrases you want students to know that they have not identified.

**Consolidating vocabulary.** Once you have the words on the board, teach them. Practice pronunciation if this important by getting students to repeat after you three times as a class and then individuals. You could then play some games to practise the words. You could point to items in the picture and ask students. You could have a set of flashcards. When you show students they must tell you the name/ word. Remember that children need to see and use words many many times before they remember them.

**Body of the lesson**

**Teaching a dialogue.** If your students need to develop their spoken language, then you should teach them a dialogue about a specific situation. Ideally your dialogue should be not too long – about six lines – and it should be natural – not the language that you only read in textbooks. You should record the dialogue on cassette OR if you have another teacher in the class do it together. Follow these steps:

1. Introduce the dialogue – play it once and ask for a general understanding question.
2. Play dialogue a second time – ask more specific question
3. Show students written dialogue either on an overhead projector or in a handout.

AND THEN
4. Elicit first line, model and drill whole group several times and then individuals. For many languages it is best to practise repetition from the end of the sentence. For example: …apples….the apples….are the apples……much are the apples….how much are the apples. This makes the pronunciation more normal.

5. Follow the procedure with line 2

6. Pair practise lines 1 and 2

7. Repeat steps 4 to 6 with each set of lines

8. Divide the whole class in half and get one side to read one part and the other side to read the second;

9. Then divide students into pairs and get them to practise in pairs all at the same time;

10. Do memorising and other activities. You could for example have the dialogue written on the board. Get one pair of students to read it – then rub out a word or phrase and replace it with a line. Then get another pair to read. Keep this going until all you have on the board are lines;

**Practising.** You can then have a range of practise activities. If oyur class is missed ability then you could have four or five activities for different groups around the class. This is called work stations. You get each group to do an activity for 5 to 10 minutes and then get them to move on to the next one. Some examples are:

1. Flashcards. Have a set of flashcards and get the group of students to play a game such as concentration. Take turns in choosing a card. Do not show other students. By asking questions they must guess what your picture is. You can only answer yes or no.

2. Sequencing. You have a second dialogue recorded. You also have the dialogue cut into strips. Students must play the dialogue and put the strips in the correct order.

3. Cloze. Have a second dialogue recorded. You have a sheet with a conversation with some words missing. Talk with your partner and guess what the words might be. Then play the tape and write in the correct words. You can stop and replay the tape as much as you like.

4. Role play. Have some cards with instructions for students to be a special character. They must make up their own dialogue.

**Shared book reading**

Shared Reading is exactly what it sounds like - It is a time for sharing a story and reading together! Shared reading in our kindergarten classroom may include echo reading (students echoing the words after the teacher), choral reading (students reading at the same time as the teacher), or fill in the gap reading (teacher reading the majority of the text and then pausing for students to fill in and say rhyming words or other predictable words in the story). All of these ways of reading are ways to encourage early reading enjoyment and success with a high level of teacher support.

During shared reading, students focus on both the pictures and the text to make predictions and to generate meaning. Most shared readings begin with a 'picture walk' in which the teacher guides students through a preview of the story, asking questions to elicit words and phrases that are used in the text. The book is then read to students and predictions are checked against the text of the story. The book is revisited among several days. Further comprehension of the story takes place through questioning and discussion of each story (the author's choice of words and the illustrator's pictures), through acting out the story, making puppets and retelling boards, reviewing elements of the story (setting, characters, problem, solution), and putting pictures of events of the story in order.

Once students are familiar with the story, we also look more closely at the text. We mask certain letters and go on word hunts for small high frequency words such as I, the, to, etc. We also play with the sound of the text. Students might be asked to listen carefully to the story and be asked to round up all the rhyming words they hear or words that begin with a certain sound. We also frequently brainstorm other words that rhyme or begin with the same sound. They may be asked to determine the number of claps (syllables) in a word or the number of parts (sounds) in a word.
Sometimes, students will need to listen carefully to a word that is stretched out and put it together to figure out the word from the story.

Here are the steps to follow to use shared reading:

1. Select an interesting story with repetition or use a favourite story.
2. When introducing a new story, talk about
   * the title
   * the cover illustration, and
   * the kind of story.
3. Read the story to the group, tracking each word with a pointer as you read.
4. Reread the story as a group, encouraging everyone to join in "reading" certain words or phrases as they are able.
5. Use the book as the basis for class activities – teach the language structures, the vocabulary. An example of ideas can be seen on some of the many websites about the book by Eric Carle *The Very Hungry Caterpillar*.

http://www.teachingheart.net/veryhungrycaterpillar.html
http://www.dltk-teach.com/books/hungrycaterpillar/

**Closing the lesson**

The closure refers to the part of the lesson where learning is reinforced and where students reflect on what they have learned and prepare for further learning. Most common strategies are:

* summarising what has been covered,
* reviewing the key points of the lesson,
* relating lesson to course and lesson goals,
* showing how lesson relates to real life needs,
* praising students for accomplishment in lesson,
* making links to future lesson.
Some 60 per cent of the world’s population is bilingual or multilingual, speaking more than one language in their daily lives. Only a small percentage of these people learned their second language in school. Basically to be a citizen of today’s world you need more than one language to survive. Language teaching has a long history stretching back many hundreds of years. In Europe it was considered essential for educated people to learn Latin and Ancient Greek. Later on the educated classes also learnt French. Queen Elizabeth 1 had learned Latin, Greek, French, Spanish and German fluently by the age of 11.

With the introduction of compulsory schooling in most Western countries by the 1880s language teaching became much more widespread. In many English-speaking countries, students learned Latin and French with German as a third language. Students had to study a language in order to gain entry to university.

**Grammar-Translation method**

The main teaching approach was called the Grammar-Translation approach. This began in Germany in the 1840s and spread to other countries. The main goal of this approach was to teach students to read the literature of a language. To do this they learned grammar rules and developed much knowledge about the language. They memorised much vocabulary and the concentrated on translating sentences and then whole texts from one language to the other. Reading and writing were the main focus and no real attention was given to listening and speaking. Many teachers could not or did not want to speak the language they were teaching. It was assumed that these skills were not as important and would develop later anyway. Vocabulary was based on the reading passages and was taught through bilingual word lists and rote memorising. It was very important for students to be accurate and get all translations correct. The typical grammar translation lesson would work as follows:

The teacher would explain in students’ first language the grammar rules and the vocabulary. The teacher would read out the vocabulary and explain the meaning in students’ first language. Students might repeat the words. The class would then do practice exercises. This could be translating sentences from one language to another applying the grammar rules. It could be reading a passage in the target language. The teacher would read the passage aloud and then explain word meanings as they went through. Students would then have to do comprehension questions on the passage. The grammar was taught in a systematic way.

This approach was the main one used in foreign language teaching between 1840 and 1940 and is still the main approach used today throughout the world. The good things about this approach were:
• students developed a good knowledge of the grammar and language;
• they developed strong skills in reading and writing;
• many gained confidence from knowing the rules and learning the vocabulary; language learning was a combination of small steps;
• this approach was often the only one possible where there were large class sizes, few resources and teachers who were not fluent in the language they were teaching.

The problems with this approach have been:

• students did not learn listening or speaking; after many years of study they could not speak or understand the language;
• for most students language learning was tedious with so much memorising of words and rules that had no real life purpose;

**Audiolingual and situational approaches**

There were many other ways that teachers used to teach languages. In the direct method, used in private language schools such as Berlitz schools, all teaching was in the target language and speaking and listening were the main focus.

In the United States, after World War II there developed the audiolingual approach in response to the need to train competent language users for work abroad. The focus was on learning language structures drawing on the work of linguists such as Fries (1945) and Bloomfield (1933). The teaching was based on the work of behavioural psychologists Skinner (1957) and Watson (1924) who saw language learning as the development of habits through repetition (stimulus/response). Textbooks presented macro-skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing, in a fixed order. Lessons often took place in language laboratories and focused on drilling and substitution exercises. Students learned dialogues and vocabulary around topics such as ‘In the restaurant’ or ‘At the beach’, topics which were graded according to grammar input. Spoken language was the focus and there was great emphasis on listening and speaking.

The typical lesson would involve the teacher presenting a picture of a situation, such as someone in a restaurant or catching a bus. The students would then hear a dialogue in the target language. They would have the language and vocabulary explained and they would then practise the dialogue many times until they memorised it. Students could then practise the dialogue with each other. Teachers also used drilling in which students repeated phrases to practise structures, such as *I am going to the cinema*...... *shops*.....*I am going to the shops*. There might then be some reading or writing activities based on the dialogue which practised grammar and vocabulary related to the topic. The thinking behind this approach was that students were ‘empty vessels’ which
needed to be filled up with the new language. If they could practise and learn these new habits and then come to understand the rules they would gain fluency.

The benefits of this approach were that:
- students for the first time learned to speak, use and understand language;
- the situations were often real life ones that they would encounter;

The problems with this approach were that:
- students often became bored with endless repetition and unrealistic situations;
- there was not enough work done on reading/ writing and grammar;
- the approach relied on language laboratories, tapes and textbooks which were expensive;
- students were only given a small range of spoken phrases and were unable to communicate in more difficult situations.

**Communicative Language Teaching**

In the 1950s and 1960s there was a lot of research into how young children learn language. They are not 'empty vessels' but are active learners. They make rules from what they hear and can produce language which they have never heard before. A better picture of language learning was like a computer system which needed to be activated. The linguist Noam Chomsky criticised the behaviourist approach which was behind the audiolingual approach, arguing that learners actively construct the target language system and have a 'language acquisition device' which develops listening skills given sufficient natural input. Second language learners develop their listening and speaking skills in the same way that children develop language in their first language. Stephen Krashen was one who applied Chomsky's insights to language teaching and learning, arguing for a natural approach. He claimed that 'comprehensible input', learning understanding what was said to them, was the most important way to develop language: more important than drilling, repetition and the conscious learning of grammar rules. Dell Hymes, an American sociolinguist, developed the term communicative competence to describe the way language knowledge and competence is developed through social interaction.

Paralleling this work in the US, was the development of communicative language teaching in Europe and the UK. The growth of the Common Market and the need for spoken fluency in a range of languages led the Council of Europe to propose a 'common core' of communicative language which all learners would be expected to acquire in the early stages of language learning. In this syllabus the functions for listening became a primary focus. At the same time, work in the UK by educationists such as Barnes and Britton and linguists such as Halliday emphasised the role of talk in learning. Primary and secondary education were reformed with a greater focus on classroom interaction. Listening
for meaning became a primary focus and different methods were developed to focus on this: total physical response/ TPR (Asher), the comprehension approach (Postovsky, Nord and Winitz), suggestopedia (Lazounov), structuro-global audiovisual SGAV (Guberina).

Communicative approaches were introduced in different ways and forms. In the early approaches there was much emphasis on functions and notions. Functions are the purposes of using language. For example, if we use language for suggesting, we can say Let’s go to the beach. How about going to the beach. Why don’t we go to the beach. It’s so hot today, I want to go to the beach. In traditional grammar these would be treated separately as questions, statements or even orders. In a functional approach we teach the range of real life language for the purpose. Important functions would be giving advice, giving opinions, making requests, describing past events. Arguing and disagreeing or agreeing. In many English ESL books such as Headway, each chapter has a theme such as meeting people and then the language for functions is presented through dialogues and stories. In some communicative approaches, the teacher was there to keep pairwork and groups going. In other approaches, teaching traditional grammar was still important and student interaction occurred at different parts of the lesson. In many countries now, language teaching is a task-based approach which is a type of communicative language teaching. For example, the ‘task’ might be ‘using transport’ and under this heading students have different problems and materials which they must discuss and work on together.

The thinking behind these approaches to second language learning was that if young children can learn their first language naturally through interaction with parents and others, why can’t second language learners learn the same way – more naturally. Since most bilingual people in the world learnt their second language naturally through communication, then we must look at how they did this and replicate it in the classroom.

This led to a revolution in the way language was taught and learned. Classroom interaction was now the key to learning. Students would be given input and then would have the chance to practise the language in pairs and small groups. A communicative language teaching lesson might involve the following. The teacher greets the class, asking students how they are in the target language. The teacher then introduces some pictures and students give the teacher words and phrases describing what they see. The students then in groups arrange the pictures in sequence to make a story. They try to tell this story in the target language to the teacher. The teacher then reads the students a book with the story in which the pictures occur. This is followed by games and pairwork in which students practise the language. Finally they get the chance to write their own stories.

The benefits of communicative language teaching have been:
• students are much more motivated and interested in learning. They gain much more confidence;
• the language they learn is for real life, relating to a range of natural situations;
• students develop a broad range of language through pairwork and group work. They feel confident in speaking in small groups and the amount of language they hear and use is much greater than in other methods;
• the learning situation reflects natural learning.

One criticism of natural and communicative approaches to language teaching has been that exposure to or immersion in language were seen as sufficient for the development of listening skills and that there was no need for explicit teaching. Another problem has been the attempted application of communicative approaches to exam-based traditional school systems with large class sizes and lack of resources. Language learning in exam-oriented systems still tends to focus more on more traditional grammar-translation approaches.

**Genre-based approaches**

More recently, language educators and writers have argued against any particular method because of the lack of research evidence supporting any one method and also because of the vast gap between the ‘theory’ of the methods and the ways they are implemented in ‘practice’. Nunan (1999) calls this a ‘post-method condition, where the focus is more on taking the teaching context into account. There is more general agreement on the need for principles which inform language teaching and taking an interactive approach. In such a situation teachers and institutions need to analyse and evaluate the role of listening in actual learning contexts.

In the 1980s there was a reaction to Communicative Language teaching. In Australia **genre-based** approaches, based on systemic functional grammar focused on more explicit teaching of language used in spoken and written contexts. The teaching approaches were based more on Vygotsky which involved modelling and scaffolding of language and tasks along with interaction between learners. Research into native speakers learning English found that they were not being taught the more formal language needed for school. Students needed to be given guidance in being able to produce reports, explanations, expositions, discussions and other text types. These researchers, Martin and Rothery, investigated the language needed to produce these reports. This approach led to a greater focus on more formal oral language and on reading and writing.

The approach developed the curriculum cycle as a model of teaching. This involves first building up student background knowledge through class discussion and activities and input. Then comes modelling in which the teacher presents the
text and accompanying language. The teacher then uses joint reconstruction to build the text with students which leads to independent reconstruction in which students produce the spoken or written texts by themselves. A typical lesson might involve students doing a class activity such as making a kite or cooking some food with the teacher. The language is introduced in this way. The teacher would then show the students explicitly the language. He/she would show pictures with written instructions showing how to make the kite or dish. Students would discuss and learn the language. The teacher would then lead the class in making a class *procedure* of instructions for making a similar dish or object. Students would then be able to work on their own text. This could be done orally or in writing or both.

The benefits of this approach are that:

- student learning is structured with greater focus on input and scaffolded steps in learning;
- the students work towards a real life outcome;
- grammar and language are grouped according to realistic purposes and situations.

One of the problems with this approach has been that there is too great a focus on writing with not enough on speaking and listening in some second language teaching contexts.

*Task-based approach*

**Task-based language teaching (TBLT)** has students using authentic language and doing meaningful tasks. Such tasks can include interviewing grandparents, giving a talk at a community event, giving instructions on how to cook their favourite dish. Assessment is based on completing the task rather than on 100% accuracy of language and vocabulary. This makes TBLT especially suitable for community languages schools. TBLT is a branch of [communicative language teaching](#) (CLT).

*Finding appropriate methodology*

The problem with languages teaching is that many resources are not adapted to the learners. The materials for many languages are based on teaching *native speakers* of the language and not for language learners in Australia who have different needs and levels of fluency. What is the best teaching method? Many researchers use the term *appropriate method* now, meaning that you need to take into account your teaching situation. For example:

- if you are teaching students without great motivation and high levels of proficiency then you need a communicative approach which will engage and interest them;
• if your students need to learn more formal language, reading and writing, then you could use a version of the genre-based approach.

In this course we will be focusing on task-based learning combined with a genre approach to writing. This is the approach now most commonly used in language teaching in mainstream and community languages schools.

Ken Cruickshank
TEACHING READING
READING 5

Background

Teaching reading and writing in community languages is very important. Without literacy, learners will not develop or maintain formal language; it will be harder for them to keep their spoken language skills. Children and young people who have basic literacy in their home language do much better academically at school; there is less interference between their home language and English; and they learn English and other languages more quickly and in more depth. Being able to read in their home language unlocks the language and culture of their parents and community. We know from research that when learners have good reading skills in their home language there are so many cognitive, social and academic benefits.

Now, the problem in for children growing up in Australia is that, although there is a need to keep their spoken home language, there is little need to maintain or learn reading and writing in their home language. English replaces the community language in nearly every function apart from religious and some communication. So children and learners can rightly ask why learn to read and write in my home language?

The second problem relates to this. Because learners see little need for reading and writing they become bored very quickly. The teaching materials for reading and writing are either too difficult or to childish for them. Teaching methods are often what we use for children learning the language as their first language not as their second.

All of this means that the outcomes from Community Languages Schools can be very low. One study in community language schools carried out by NLLIA found that after an average of five years study in community language schools:

- no students in the sample could read newspapers, magazines letters from relatives in their home language;
- reading from school was related only to doing homework (writing/ memorising sentences) or religious texts;
- students could only read letters and random words (even after 10 years’ study;
- the boredom of learning to read/ write was the main reason for dropping out of the school. Students stayed in the schools on average only eight months.

These are the challenges. In this reading we will look at some solutions to these problems. Firstly, we will look at how students learn to read in a second language. We will examine the process of reading – what goes on in our brains when we read. As teachers we need to know this. We will then consider the real-life purposes for reading in Australia and how teachers can make reading more relevant. Finally we will discuss practical ways to teach beginners, intermediate and advanced students of different ages.

Learning to read

What are your earliest memories of learning to read? If you are over 30, your memories may be of lessons at school where the teachers taught you the alphabet. You may have learned different letters and then words. Once you learned the words you may then have gone on to the teacher writing sentences on the board or reading through readers. If you learned in Australia your readers may have had sentences such as The cat sat on the mat, here you practised reading the
same sounds in simple words. In the beginning you would read aloud, often with the whole class in choral reading. As you became a better reader you would learn to read silently. If you are under 30 you may have experienced different teaching at school. Perhaps your teacher read you stories and you listened and learned. You may have been able to choose books to look at and try picking out words and guessing the story. You may have learned to read from stories. Whatever our school experiences were, they are often the way that we then teach young students.

This is only half of the story! We forget that nearly all children come to school with experiences already in learning to read – we call this emergent literacy. Have you watched any young children learn to read in Australia – your own children or the children of friends? Consider the following:

- when young children go out with their parents, they see print everywhere. We know that all two year olds can recognise the M in the MacDonald’s sign. Many children can recognise the names of shops such as butchers’ and cake shops. They do this first by seeing the food and then by learning the shape of the name before they can recognise the letters. Often young children can recognise the names of railway stations.
- young children often learn to read their own names
- young children see their parents and brothers and sisters reading letters, newspapers, internet and books. They know how important it is to be a reader and often try to imitate adults in ‘acting’ as if they are reading.
- Children are often read to by parents and older brothers and sisters. In the beginning they listen to the story and look at the pictures. After a while you notice that they memorise the story and join in the reading of their favourite book. Then the children try to take the book and read the story themselves. Of course their story reading is what they remember. However, something very strange occurs – the more they ‘read’ the closer their story comes to the original. They realise that if the text on the page is short, then their story must be shorter. They start to recognise some words and point to them. Then they start to recognise some beginning letters. It is almost like they are learning to read from first memorising and then picking out words and letters.

Many young children start school with understandings of reading gained from home. They know the purposes of reading and how important it is. They can generally read quite a few words and often many letters. They can read print in their environment. In fact, learning to read at school is only building on this existing knowledge.

This is the story of learning to read in English in Australia. What about learning to read in the home language? Young children will generally not have the same foundation. If we teach them the traditional way, with letters and words at school, we are teaching them without a foundation of understanding. We must give them the early learning that they missed out on at the school. Young children need that experience of being read to in the home language, of playing with words and signs – the same experiences that they have had in English. You will read more about what this means later in the reading. There is a big debate going on in the media at present on how to teach reading. Many writers are arguing that children must learn through phonics and sounds. Other writers argue that children learn through experiences. In this reading we argue that they need both, but that we must make sure that all learning to read is done in a context that is enjoyable and engaging for children.

What is reading?

Write a sentence defining what reading is. It sounds very simple but it is a very complex question. Below are some answers given by children. The researcher found that children who were better readers answered that reading was understanding meaning or messages; children who were not good readers answered that reading was understanding letters and sounds.

*Reading is understanding letters and the sounds they make.*
Reading is understanding words.
Reading is understanding the grammar and structures of a language.
Reading is understanding messages in print.

Of course, reading involves understanding letters and sounds, but if children do not see reading as understanding messages and meaning, then they have no real reason or purpose to read!

How we read

Try the following activity on your family or friends. Let them see each set of numbers/letters for just a few seconds, just long enough to read. The aim of this task is to see what is more important in reading: what our eyes see or what our brain is doing to interpret what we see.

1. 6 7 4 9 5 3 8 6 4 7 9 0 1 2
2. zqrdsfdeomslp
3. 75SBR5QNL31FPR
4. TRANSLATION
5. PRAFANIZINGLY
6. Can you read this?

You will notice that most people can only remember five or six numbers or letters. Our brain cannot cope with more than this number of unknown symbols, letters of words. Now if reading is just decoding what we see, then we would only be able to read 20 to 30 words a minute, when we can read many many more. Why?

Answers to number three start to provide a clue. Some people remember more numbers/letters because they think of car number plates. This helps them understand and remember. Of course TRANSLATION is easy. Why? This is because our brain has background knowledge. Seeing the letters triggers this background knowledge which makes it possible to read. You can see this in the next word. Most readers will read the first four letters correctly, and then the last five, but they make mistakes in the middle of this word. Why? This is because

5. Differences with the text usually occur in the middle. This shows that when reading the reader first tries to decode the initial letters. When it is obvious that the word is not 'English' the eyes scan for known information. This is the ending 'ingly' which is grammatically 'English'. Finally with this base the middle of the word is attempted. Research shows that we do not read letter by letter or word by word. Our eyes scan a text for meaning. Reading is more than decoding. It must be getting meaning. It is background knowledge that interacts with what we see.

Give the text below to friend or family and let them read it for a minute. Then ask them to write down what they remember reading. You will notice some very interesting things.

A man was building a boat in his basement. When he had finished the boat he discovered it was too big to get through the door. So he had to take the boat a part to get it out. He should of planned ahead.

Many reader will substitute 'garage' for basement, because we do not have basements in Australia and if you were building a boat it would be in the garage. Many readers will write the sentence correctly, not repeating the word 'the' because our knowledge of grammar corrects the text. Many readers will also substitute words like 'found' or 'realised' for 'discovered' because these words are linked in meaning in our brain and we read for meaning. The mistakes we make are not mistakes but a sign that our brain is making sense of what we read. As good readers we expect to find meaning. The text triggers a network of meaning in our mind and this, mixed with the visual information gives us meaning. It is so unconscious that we cannot separate what was 'seen' and what was 'remembered'. Reading comes as much from the mind as from the eye. This
means that if the teacher can trigger the students' background knowledge before the reading, then students will understand what they are reading. The final 'test' is for you. Read the following text and see what meaning you can make of it.

The procedure is actually quite simple. First you arrange things into different groups. Of course, one pile may be sufficient, depending on how much there is to do. If you have to go somewhere else due to lack of facilities that is the next step, otherwise you are pretty well set. It is important not to overdo things. That is, it is better to do too few things at once than too many. In the short run this may not seem important, but complications can easily arise. A mistake can be expensive as well. At first the whole procedure will seem complicated. Soon, however, it will become just another facet of life. It is difficult to see any end to the necessity for this task in the immediate future, but one can never tell. After the procedure is completed, one arranges the materials into different groups again. Then they can be put in their appropriate places. Eventually they can be used once more, and the whole cycle will then have to be repeated. However, that is a part of life.

Now read it again thinking of the title, Doing the washing. This text was given to a large sample of US college students. Without knowing the title there was 3% recall of information. When given the title 'washing' there was 97% recall of information. When you read it knowing the title you have a picture in your mind of the washing machine and imagine doing the washing on the weekend.

Reading is not just understanding the letters and words and decoding them. Reading is also knowing the grammar of the language and having background knowledge about the words and the topic of the text. These three areas of knowledge are called the cueing systems. The fluent reader uses all three cueing systems at the same time to get meanings.


**Graphophonic Cues** - these are cues from our knowledge of print, the way the words look, the relationships between sounds and letters in words. When students learn to read they learn the relationship between graphemes and phonemes, between letters and sounds. If they are reading in character languages such as Chinese, they must learn the meaning parts of the character.

For Example - 'I like reading I have many b__s at home.' We know the word is probably books because we read the initial 'b'.

**Semantic Cues** - these are cues from our knowledge of the subject - of words and meanings. Semantic cues depend on our knowledge of words; which words go together (eg hot dog); which words have many meanings, which words have similar or opposite meanings. Read the following example

*I like reading. I have many ...... at my house.*

The word 'reading' tells us the missing words could be books, magazines or newspapers something we read. Semantic knowledge is not just knowing the dictionary definition of a word, but knowing all its meanings and where it is used.

**Syntactic Cues** These are the cues from our knowledge of the structure and patterns of language. Good readers know word order and word endings. They have a good understanding of the grammar of English. Read the following example.

*I like reading. I have many ___ in my house.* We know the missing word is a Noun and that it is plural because of our knowledge of the grammar of English.

It is very difficult for students to read language they do not know.

**Theories of Reading**

Reading is a complex process and there are many theories to explain it. Teachers need to understand the theories and to have a theory of reading as the basis for their teaching. Without theory, the teaching of reading just becomes a set of meaningless activities. Theories give the reason for doing things and ways to improve teaching.

**Bottom-up theories of reading**

These theories of reading were important up until the 1970’s. These theories have the following features in common:

• During reading, every letter and word on the page is processed in the mind. Reading happens in a series of stages. First letters are read and then letters are put into words or syllables. and next words are pronounced either aloud or quietly. Finally words are read in order to get meaning. The best way to learn to read is first to learn the alphabet and then actual words. Once readers know all the letters and sounds they can read words and sentences.

Phonemes ...... Pronouncing Words ...... Understanding sentences ........ Meaning

The typical reading lesson would involve lots of word drilling, flash cards and reading aloud. Researchers have found evidence to disprove these theories. Firstly, good readers read so quickly that it is impossible for them to read every letter or word. It takes the brain 1/3 second to process each letter. At this rate we would read 50 words a minute. However, good readers read 250 words a minute. This means that readers only read some words on a page. Secondly readers do not need to pronounce words to read them. Finally, all good readers make mistakes. These mistakes are natural and do not stop the understanding of the meaning. Obviously, the bottom-up theories were not correct.
Top down theories These theories have been important in teaching reading since 1970. They describe the reading process as predicting the meaning of the text. The reader focuses on key words to confirm these predictions. If the prediction is not correct, the reader goes back, reprocesses, and gets the better meaning. Being able to read depends on the readers’ background knowledge. The theories are based on how children learn to talk - the researchers argue that learning to read is the same as learning to talk. Two researchers, Smith and Goodman argued for the three cueing systems. They found that much of the reading process occurs in the brain. It is not just the eyes doing the work, They developed the following model of reading.

Predicting meaning reading words/ checking letters/
from background knowledge ……sentences …………words as necessary ….. getting meaning

These theories are called top-down because they begin with the meaning and the work of the mind - the big picture first. Researchers found evidence for these theories in the behaviour of fluent readers by analysing their mistakes. Reading lessons based on this approach include prediction and discussion activities concentrating on the meaning of the text. These theories have been criticised because studies of poor readers have found that they rely too much on the prediction skills and do not have word and letter recognition skills.

Interactive theories These approaches include both top-down and bottom-up. An interactive model means that readers can be taught to use strategies flexibly. They choose the best strategy for reading the texts. To become fluent readers, students need to have both good prediction skills and cueing systems but also good skills at decoding letters and words. There are implications of this approach for teaching. Firstly, the purpose of reading is to understand meaning not pronunciation or reading aloud. Secondly, readers need good prediction skills to understand meaning. Therefore there needs to be discussion and activities before reading in order to build up and activate background knowledge. Reading can be improved by activities and games which develop the three cueing systems - knowledge of vocabulary of language and graphemes. Finally, reading develops naturally, as speaking does. Therefore readers need to read a wide variety of story forms and to read frequently.

Teaching Beginners

Shared Book Reading
(from Renata Natoli)
Shared Reading may be conducted in many ways, depending on the needs of the students and the teaching outcomes determined by the teacher. There are three stages in Shared Reading: Before, During and After the reading. Each stage serves a different purpose.

Before Here the teacher introduces the story, talking about the cover, the title and the title page. It’s a good time to engage the students in what they see on the cover, what they think the story might be about (predicting from title and pictures). Picture walk through the book, pointing out specific characters, actions or events, asking probing questions. Your aim is to engage students in thinking about the pictures and story, but you don’t want to tell the story at this point.

During Read the text as naturally as possible, using appropriate intonation. You will be phrased and fluent during the reading but you may want to slow down the reading a little, so your students can process the story and may be even join in. Stop from time to time to comment on what might develop next in the story. Get students to make predictions about what is happening. As you read on you might ask students to confirm their predictions “Were you right?”

After
Take students back to the point of making predictions (at word or story level) and ask them how they knew their prediction was right/not quite correct.

**Subsequent Readings** The first reading is for enjoyment. Read the same book again, this time get the students to join in. Read again and students point/ share reading in groups/ read out repetitive parts or characters practice in silent reading and encouragement to read by themselves.

**Using pictures**

1. The teacher can copy large pictures that relate to the text. These are then cut into pieces and used as a grouping activity. Students must find the others in their group by describing, not showing their piece of the picture. Once in groups they can try and make up a story about their picture.

2. The teacher shows a large picture of the topic of the text, such as *the Lion and the Mouse*. Students must individually brainstorm all the words and phrases in English or their first language the picture makes them think of. In groups they compare and share onto one large piece of paper. The whole class then discusses these words. English translations are added as needed. When the terms are collated on the board the teacher leads a discussion on categorising the terms. When suitable headings are developed the groups then transfer their own terms to another sheet under the headings. Teacher can ask questions also about feelings such as *how does the mouse feel?* (see appendix 1)

3. The teacher makes an overhead transparency of a picture relevant to the text. The picture is gradually revealed and the class is encouraged to guess the contents. This story is about being different and being left out by others (see appendix 2)

4. The teacher had a large picture relating to the reading text. Students must ask questions (yes/no) to find out what is in the picture. You can do this activity as a competition in teams with each team asking a question in turn.

*Does it have an animal in it?*
*Is there a person?*
*Can you see trees?*

Using pictures and talking is the best way to build up to reading.

**Using words and phrases**

1. The teacher chooses five key words from the story and asks students to develop their own story. These words, the students are told, occur in the story. The students must make up their own using the words given. If the story is the *lion and the mouse*, then the teacher could write on the board the words LION MOUSE SCARED and HELP

2. The students are shown the title and asked to brainstorm all the words or phrases they think they might meet in the story. They are then asked to write a one line summary of the text they predict.

**Sequencing**

1. Sentence sequencing. Cut up sentences that the students have composed and get the students to sequence the sentence. You can give each student a word on a card and they must stand in the correct order to make a sentence.

*My name is Youssef and I like soccer.*
2. Students could be given a set of pictures to sequence to make a story. The teacher and students then read the story and students check that they have the correct sequence. Finally students could be given sentences that they must match to each picture to reconstruct the story.

**Sentence pairs**

This is a short story broken up into sentence parts. Each student must read out sentence beginnings and the partner must read out the end. They then sequence to make the coherent story. *(see appendix 3)*

**Steps**

1. Show students the picture and see if they can guess what the story might be about. Elicit some questions about what the wolf wants to do and which animal is more clever.
2. Divide students into pairs and if necessary place a barrier between them so that they cannot see each others worksheet.
3. Explain the purpose of the task and then model a sentence of two with a student.
4. Distribute A and B sheets to each pair. Allow about five minutes to complete the task.
5. Circulate and check students answers. Ask what was easy/difficult and how they completed it.
6. You could get students to cut sentence sections, join them and then sequence the text.

**Flash cards**

Make a set of flash cards of pictures and words. You can use these in many different ways.

1. You can have a set of labels that students must attach to objects around the room – *desk, board, window etc.* You can play games where the teacher or students change these onto the wrong objects and other students must place them on the correct object.
2. Concentration games – the teacher shows and object and students must choose the card with the correct name.

**Word bingo**

The teacher writes on the board all the words that the students have learned during the lesson (no more than 12). Students must choose eight words and write these in the squares of their bingo sheet. When the students are ready the teacher reads out a definition or description of each word. For example if the word is *apple*, the teacher could say, *it is a fruit which is green or red and it is good for your teeth.* Students with this word on their bingo chart must cross it out. The winner is the first student to cross out all the words. You can group students in pairs to do this task if they are very beginning readers. *(see Appendix 4)*

**Highlighting**

This activity teaches students how to read for specific information. It gives a purpose of reading and skimming and scanning text. Give students three highlighters each and then give them copy of the text to read – it could be a story, song or other type of text. Ask students to highlight information such as dates, numbers or important pieces of information. If you are using the story about the *Lion and the Mouse* you could get them to highlight all the times they see the words *lion*. Then you could get them to highlight all the words that tell you what the lion did or what the lion looked like. They could then highlight the word *mouse* in a different colour and repeat the activity. The activity can also have a more grammatical focus - by asking for example the highlighting of all past tense verbs.

Another variation is to get students to underline individually any words they don't know in the passage. Then in pairs they must combine and explain any of these words they know. Finally in a
group of four discuss their underlined words and highlight maybe four or five to ask the class. In this way students share and explain word knowledge.

Charts / grids

Charts/ grids are really useful reading/ writing tools for community languages teachers as they are simple to prepare and have many ways they can be used. With your group, choose four students and complete the grid (see Handout 5). Project this on the whiteboard and use laminated cards. Once this is completed ask participants for ways you could use the chart as a reading activity with students. Some suggestions are:

1. Teacher/ participants ask each other questions. *Who likes… Whose favourite show is….*
2. Teacher/ participants make up descriptions. *I am thinking of someone who…..*
3. Cards are taken off and participants must come up and match card to person

Next step is to give handout 2 with the barrier game. In discussion ask participants what other follow up activities could be done. Ask also how to adapt it to their own unit of work.

Progressive cloze

Have the reading text of the story, song or dialogue written on the board. Rub out one or two words and replace these with a dash ____ Then ask students to read out the text, remembering the missing words. Repeat this until students can remember the whole text.

Open cloze

This is the opposite. Put a series of dashes on the board with most of the words replaced by dashes. Students in teams must try and guess the missing words. The winning team can read/ tell you the whole passage.

*Italy ____ _____ _____ 60 _____ _____ ____ _____ _______ _______ _______ _______ _______ Roma.*

*Italy has a population of 60 million people and the capital city is Roma.*

Tasks for more advanced readers

Brainstorm

*Description.* This is a brainstorm using a picture to predict the genre/text type and vocabulary. The reading text is a ‘whodunnit’ story about a mystery murder. By using this picture students will develop motivation along with the expectations of the structure of the text.

*Steps*

1. Teacher reveals slowly an overhead transparency (see handout 6) of the scene, asking students to call out words or phrases of things that they see. These words are written on the board.
2. Students are then given a picture in pairs and asked to work out what has happened. They are given a few minutes to concoct their story.
3. Group students in fours to recount and share stories.
4. Teacher then asks groups to share their stories. Whole class decision on which ones were best.

*See Handout 6*
Cloze

Description. Cloze was developed in the 1950s and is commonly used in schools to develop students’ reading comprehension. Research indicates, however, that cloze done individually is ineffective in either teaching or testing comprehension. One study showed that discussion is more effective than cloze. In many instances it becomes a mechanical activity (especially when words are given) which serves to keep students quiet rather than engaged. It is only when cloze is combined with discussion that it becomes effective. Cloze involves leaving out words in a text and getting students to guess and fill in missing words.

Steps
1. Show students the picture and build class prediction of content of story.
2. Distribute text to students and ask them to individually fill in missing words in pencil. If they are unsure of what is missing they should keep going.
3. Group students in pairs or threes and get them to discuss answers and agree on the best word.
4. Teacher-led whole class discussion of words. Teachers writes possible answers on the board and class decides which one/s are acceptable.
5. Students continue reading rest of text and complete final comprehension task.

Variations:
The traditional use of cloze is to omit every fifth to twelfth word. More proficient readers can have more omissions and teachers can have different levels of cloze for more and less proficient readers. For ESL students it is often useful to omit specific types of words such as nouns, verbs, articles or adjectives. There are many variations for less proficient readers. The first letter of each missing word could be provided: the d______ was working in the hospital. Words could be replaced with drawings (See handouts 1 and 7)

Jigsaw reading

Description (see handout 8)
Jigsaw reading or listening is a way to develop comprehension and motivation through interaction. Why is it that we use writing as a way to consolidate comprehension rather than speaking. It is only when we tell others about what we are reading that we often understand the text. This task focuses on the stories of three new migrants to Australia.

Steps
1. Explain the purpose and challenge of the task. Distribute the three readings to students making sure that the numbers are as equal as possible. Give students several minutes to read and then group them in pairs or three with similar text to answer the first set of questions.
2. Number students in each group. Then remind them that they will have to recount the story of their person to others in their group without looking at the text. Then in their group they must answer together the true/ false questions.
3. Organise jigsaw groups and complete the task.
4. Teacher-led discussion of answers. Get students to reflection what they learned and what was easy/ difficult in the task.

Variations and comments:
Jigsaw works well with all types of texts. Factual texts can be broken into paragraphs – for example types of animals, food classes, character descriptions. Story texts can be broken into three or four sections. A science text could be divided into different topics. A history topic could have different sources or points of view. The first task is best to involve completing a chart. The
final task is best to involve true/ false questions which need the information from all texts – ie it must be done collaboratively.

Appendix 1
The Donkey and the Wolf

STUDENT A

* Then the donkey kicked and knocked the wolf unconscious when she saw the wolf creeping up to attack her.
* The donkey started to limp

the thorn will stick in your throat and kill you.”

* So the wolf put his mouth on the donkey’s foot

STUDENT B

and ran off laughing and laughing.

and told the wolf she had a thorn in her foot

* “If you eat me,

* Once a donkey was resting in a field

to pull out the thorn.
### STUDENT A

<table>
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<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>SPORT</th>
<th>FOOD</th>
<th>TV SHOW</th>
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<td>Cricket</td>
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<td>Footy Show</td>
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<td>Tim</td>
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<td>Rock</td>
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### STUDENT B

<table>
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<tr>
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<td>Kate</td>
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<td>The Simpsons</td>
<td>Rap</td>
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<td>Alex</td>
<td></td>
<td>Hamburgers</td>
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<td>Anything to dance to</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tim</td>
<td>League</td>
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<td>House</td>
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The Lion and the Mouse

A lion was sleeping in his den. A mouse ran into the ...............  It ran up onto the lion’s head and ............... on its nose. The lion woke up. It was very ............... It grabbed the mouse with its might ...............  

‘How dare you wake me up. I’ll ............... you for this,’ roared the lion. The mouse was very ............... It said:

‘Please don’t eat me. Please let me ......  I did not mean to wake you up. If you let me go, maybe one day I will be able to ............... you.’

When the lion heard this, it ...............  It thought it was a great joke. How would a ............... little mouse help the King of Beasts? But he let the little mouse go free and the mouse ............... As fast as he could out of the den.

A few days later, the mouse was looking for food. It came upon the lion caught up in a big net. The net was a trap set by hunters. The mouse chewed and chewed and chewed. Soon the small hole was big enough for the lion to put its paw through. Soon the lion had two paws free. The mouse kept chewing and chewing through the net, and soon the lion was free from the trap/ ‘There,’ said the mouse, ‘that’s how a little mouse can help a great lion.’

Here are five summaries of the story. Only one summary is the same the story. Find the summary that fits the story best. Say what is wrong with the other four summaries.

1. The story is about a mouse who proved that he was a strong as a stupid lion.
2. The story is about a cunning lion who promised to help a mouse but did not.
3. The story is about a clever mouse who helped some hunters trap a lion.
4. This story is about a clever mouse who helps a lion to get out of a trap.
5. This is a story about a clever mouse who gets his own back on a cruel lion.
Handout 8
Read your extract to answer the following questions.

1. Why did he/she come to Australia?
2. What does he/she do?
3. Find one thing that he/she likes about Australia, and one thing he/she doesn’t like so much.

There are many Japanese companies in Sydney and many Japanese families now live here. Kimiko Kinoshita Wood came to Australia as a bride six years ago. ‘There is much more freedom for women here,’ she says. ‘It is sometimes difficult for Japanese women to adjust.’ For Kimiko, the change was easy because she is a translator and speaks fluent English. Also, she has an Australian husband. ‘Attitudes to women are very different,’ she says. ‘Japanese wives come to Australia and after a while they find that they can have a life of their own outside the home. They don’t have that kind of freedom in Japan.’ In Japan it is unusual to see men doing the shopping with their wives, helping in the house, or babysitting. But Kimiko’s husband, John, a shipping engineer, happily takes an equal load with the children. John says that Japanese husbands soon adapt to Australia, and seem to relax more with their families.

Education is one thing that worries Kimiko. In Japan, children go to school six days a week and work much harder than Australian children. Another complaint is that the shops don’t have many clothes for small women.

Look at the following statements about the three people. Which are true? Which are false?

a. Japanese men find it hard to relax in Australia because their wives are so busy all the time.
b. Xavier thinks the Australians dress well.
c. Kimiko and Margaretha both have Australian husbands.
d. Both Xavier and Margaretha have a good opinion of Australian men.
e. Kimiko met her husband in Japan but Margaretha met her husband in Australia.
f. They all enjoy shopping in Australia. They have no complaints about Australian shops.
g. Both Xavier and Margaretha have complaints about the design of Australian houses.
h. Generally they all seem happy living in Australia.
Read your extract to answer the following questions.

1. Why did he/she come to Australia?
2. What does he/she do?
3. Find one thing that he/she likes about Australia, and one thing he/she doesn’t like so much.

When Xavier Dupont came to Australia his friends in Paris said he’d hate it. However, Xavier, a 26 year-old chef, says that they were wrong.

‘French people imagine that Australia is a hot dry country where everybody dresses badly, there are kangaroos in the streets and the food is the worst on the planet. I don’t agree.’

Xavier insists that the Australians look good because they don’t follow fashion too seriously. He enjoys shopping in Australia because there is so much fresh food. He particularly likes the fish and fruit markets.

However, he has some complaints. He thinks that Australian men don’t show enough appreciation of women. Also, he doesn’t like Australian bathrooms where you stand or sit in the bath to have a shower. Last of all, he feels shops and restaurants close far too early.

Look at the following statements about the three people. Which are true? Which are false?

q. Japanese men find it hard to relax in Australia because their wives are so busy all the time.

r. Xavier thinks the Australians dress well.

s. Kimiko and Margaretha both have Australian husbands.

r. Both Xavier and Margaretha have a good opinion of Australian men.

u. Kimiko met her husband in Japan but Margaretha met her husband in Australia.

v. They all enjoy shopping in Australia. They have no complaints about Australian shops.

w. Both Xavier and Margaretha have complaints about the design of Australian houses.

x. Generally they all seem happy living in Australia.
Read your extract to answer the following questions.

1. Why did he/she come to Australia?
2. What does he/she do?
3. Find one thing that he/she likes about Australia, and one thing he/she doesn’t like so much.

In Australia, Margaretha can be a full-time housewife, at home with her four children. This, she says, is unusual in her native Norway because almost all Norwegian women go out to work, partly because there are so many childcare centres. It is also unusual in Norway to have more than two children.

Margaretha, who is 43, met her Australian husband, Noel, a university professor, while she was learning English in Sydney.

'I find Australian people friendly', she says. 'New neighbours invite you in for coffee, introduce their children, and take you shopping. The men are more courteous and romantic than Norwegian men.'

However she doesn’t like everything. She thinks Australian houses are not built well – even modern houses have a lot of draughts. Also, there is too much litter on the streets and on the sides of the freeways. She likes the fresh Australian food, but she did not like meat pies. Now she is addicted to them and has them all the time.

Look at the following statements about the three people. Which are true? Which are false?

a. Japanese men find it hard to relax in Australia because their wives are so busy all the time.

b. Xavier thinks the Australians dress well.

c. Kimiko and Margaretha both have Australian husbands.

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g. Both Xavier and Margaretha have complaints about the design of Australian houses.

h. Generally they all seem happy living in Australia.
5.1 What is spoken language?

This seems a funny question to ask – language is language. But for many years, linguists only considered written language as being the proper form of the language and thought that spoken language was an inferior form of the language. This attitude exists not only in English, but in many other languages. In Arabic, people value al fus’ha, the formal written language and often look down on spoken forms as dialect. In Chinese, it is written Mandarin that is valued and the spoken dialects such as Cantonese, Hokkien, Hakka and others are seen as less valuable. This led to attitudes in many languages that you must teach written language first and that spoken language will develop later. People thought that it was not the right thing to teaching spoken language in the classroom.

When linguists started studying spoken language they found that speech has its own grammar, vocabulary and rules and is just as ‘logical’ as written language, It is not a matter of better or worse, of right or wrong but what is appropriate in different situations.

If a teacher or librarian said to a student Your observance of silence in this context is greatly appreciated, we would think they were crazy or being sarcastic. If we wrote a sign on the wall Be quiet! We would think it quite rude. Different language is appropriate for speech and writing.

In English, there is a big difference between written and spoken language. In the first text below, a woman is telling her friend about her boyfriend’s reaction to her hairdo.

**Text 1**
so he goes...why did you do?...I tell him... I got sick of straight hair.. that's all....he laughs....that's all...what about the red colour...well ..I go… it's none of your business...you're not my father... anyway I like it...you know...

We could make this much more formal or written:

**Text 2**
The result of the visit to the hairdresser for a haircut and a red tint was a rather unpleasant altercation with her boyfriend.

Look at the differences. The spoken text has lots of short phrases, many verbs and is quite colloquial. The written version has one sentence and many more nouns and only one verb. This is because in spoken language we try harder to get meaning across – we repeat ourselves and speak in shorter bursts to make it easier to follow. What is the point of this?

In every language there are many differences between spoken and written language. Students overseas usually start school fluent in spoken language. In Australia many learners are not fluent in the spoken community language and need to be taught this before they read and write. In languages such as Maltese, Italian, Polish and increasingly in Chinese and other languages, schools need to teach spoken language. Therefore they must teach speaking and listening and they must teach real life language – not the written language of the textbooks that no one uses. The best language to teach is the spoken language teachers can write down from daily life or that used on the TV and internet.
How important is spoken language?

For many community languages, the focus is more on formal written language. Many students come to the schools with a background from home where they have developed spoken language in communication with their parents. Generally older children have strong community language – when younger children come along, they tend to speak with each other in English. Many teachers in Chinese and Arabic language schools then want to focus on written rather than spoken language. There is a problem here though. How can we learn words and language only from the written form? There is evidence that to really learn a word, you need to come across it 16 times. To learn words and language it is not enough just to see them written – they need to be heard and spoken as well. In other words, the way to the written language is through the spoken language. Just as young children learn to read and write through speaking, in Community Languages schools, teachers need to move from teaching listening and speaking to reading and writing. It is a mistake to start with the written form. Children cannot read or write ahead of what they can understand or say. We must teach reading and writing through speaking and listening. We must not devalue the language students bring to school because the spoken forms they have fill all functions in everyday life. We need to extend their language to formal spoken and then to written forms so that they are completely fluent in all levels of the language.

How does spoken language develop?

Spoken language develops in stages. Young children start with one and two words and then speak in longer stretches. Young children in English start with the present tense; then they acquire the simple past tenses such as went, did and regular past tenses such as walked and talked. You can see their learning by their mistakes. Sometimes they say I goed/ I wented. They learn the present continuous gradually – I going … and then I am going. Every aspect of language in every language develops gradually. It takes native speakers at least eight years to learn their first language. Now we know that learning a second language follows the same steps. Many students in community languages schools are learning their language as a second language and will follow the same steps as native speakers but later and more slowly.

What does this mean for teaching? Firstly, mistakes are natural; secondly, do not focus on children learning one part of grammar perfectly before moving on to the next part. It takes many years to learn some areas of the language well – and your students may not be ready for it. Think about some of the steps that learners follow in acquiring your community language.

One example of this is how learners acquire pronunciation or how they learn tones in tonal languages such as Vietnamese, Chinese and Thai. Young children in English cannot pronounce th correctly until they are about eight years old. They acquire it gradually in different contexts. Parent do not sit three year olds down to make th them learn perfectly before doing the next sound. Young children learning Chinese and Vietnamese acquire tones very gradually – they ‘approximate’ which means that as they become more proficiency they get closer to the correct forms. This is the same with second language learners. They need time to gain correct pronunciation and intonation.

What spoken language do we teach?

So, if it is not possible to teach each bit of grammar perfectly before going on to the next – what do we teach? Look at young children. When a child says to a parent, Daddy I go toilet? The parent might answer Oh, do you want to go to the toilet? Rephrasing with the correct version. The answer is the same in community language schools – we provide students with input in context. Sometimes this is explicit, sometimes it is just in talk to them – and we let them develop in a lot of areas at the same time.
We can try and recreate the more natural situations in the classroom. We use spoken language to communicate ideas and feelings and to achieve goals. What are some of the functions of and contexts for the spoken community language in Australia?

In many families, children need to communicate with grandparents; they need their community language for community events, for religious reasons in churches and mosques; they need it to understand TV, films, songs and music; they need it sometimes with parents; they definitely need it if they are going overseas.

There has been a lot of recent research into text types of spoken language; how spoken language is organised to achieve certain goals. Whenever we have interactions that occur regularly, we use similar steps and similar grammar in the interaction. Try the following task.

You are listening to someone in your house speaking on the phone. You are nearby or in the next room and you can tell immediately who they are speaking to what they are speaking about and almost what will happen next in the conversation. Now, how can you do this, even though you cannot hear the other part of the conversation.

The answer is that if it occurs regularly, the conversation will follow certain steps. You know who is on the other end from the greeting and the tone of voice, even the way of saying ‘hello’ in your language. You can then guess what topics of conversation will be discussed; you tell how close/how distant they are from each other.

Similarly, you can imagine so many social situations – buying things in shops or in the local markets; telling stories or anecdotes; giving a speech or presentation; visiting relatives. This research has become the basis of much teaching of English. The K-6 English syllabus; the teaching of ESL to adults and teenagers are all based on this idea of text types in spoken English. Examples of possible outcomes are:

*Can respond to complex spoken instructions*
*Can deliver a short oral presentation*
*Can give a short oral recount.*

Think of the last one. What topic students give an oral recount about in your community language? Telling about something that happened at school or at sport? Telling about a historical event? Talking about a holiday? Who could they give it to? Parents/ grandparents/ other students? How could they give this recount? On powerpoint? On a poster? Recorded on video or audiocassette? By telephone? Face to face? Over a community radio station? Finally what language do they need to know? Which verbs? Which nouns and adjectives? And so on. Having such real life outcomes that involve some performance or demonstration of what they know, will motivate students and will also connect all the language they need to learn in a natural way.

### 5.2 Teacher Language

There is much evidence that 70 per cent of time in all classrooms is taken up by teacher talk. In the next two sections we will discuss how to make teacher talk more effective and also how to increase the talk students do and the work they do.

**Community Language or English?**

Now that many students are Australian born and are dominant in English, teachers are faced with the problem of whether they use English in the classroom or not. If they use the community language, students may not understand; if they use English, students will not learn the community language. A recent survey of 500 teachers of Chinese in Australia found that with beginners
teachers said that they used Chinese 65% of the time but in fact used it only 10%. Even with older students teachers reported using Chinese 80% of the time, but in fact, used it only 50% of the time. There are three general findings from the research

1. Balance of English/community language depends on students’ age and level. Beginner students will need more English; advanced students must have more Community Language use.

2. Avoid constant translation as it makes students rely on English only. So for example, if you say something in the community language and then translate into English – students will always wait for the English

There should be times when English is used and times when the community language is used. With lesson introductions and greetings you should get into the routine of using only the community language; when you are using discipline and controlling the class, you will find that you must use the students’ strongest language. If this is English, then use English because the main aim here is to keep control. If you are explaining a difficult concept or idea or word, you could use the students’ stronger language; it might take five seconds to explain what will take five minutes in the weaker language.

Forman (2008) found that there were specific times when the students’ stronger language should be used in class (if this is English).

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<th>Cognitive</th>
<th>Affective</th>
<th>Pedagogic</th>
<th>Interpersonal</th>
<th>Comprehensibility</th>
<th>Inclusivity</th>
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<td>Classroom atmosphere</td>
<td>time-effectiveness</td>
<td>to explain L2 vocabulary, grammar, usage, culture</td>
<td>to facilitate easy, “natural” interaction amongst students and with teacher</td>
<td>to make good use of limited classroom time</td>
<td>to ensure that all students can participate</td>
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<tr>
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It is good if you can also plan times in the class when students need to use the community language.

Whole class discuss or talking about pictures – sometimes when students give answers, you can rephrase these in the community language

Telling stories – you should tell stories and give lots of input using the community language; if you use gestures and pictures students will understand

Activities – if you are doing special games or activities, have a rule that it is community language only at these times. For example if students are discussing something in their groups, you can get them to report to the whole class in the community language

Make a set of class rules which include when to use the community language and when English is acceptable. Then you can have prizes for students who keep this rule.

There is not right or wrong and no easy answer. You must be constantly aware for yourself to keep using the community language. You must know family situations where parents have given up and switch to English with their children. You must keep times in your lessons where students must hear and use the community language.
Teacher talk

Teacher can do much to foster student talk in the community language, but often we close down the talk by having answers to questions in our head. This is called the known-answer-question. Look at the following:

Teacher: What’s happening in this picture? What can you see?
Student: Boy happy… Coat..
Teacher: No, what is happening? What is he doing?
Students: (Silence)

Teacher: What did you do on the weekend?
Student: My sister, he take me to zoo.
Teacher: No, she took me to the zoo.
Student: Yes, we go zoo.
Teacher: No, she took me.
Student: Yes, we go..
Teacher: No, you must say she
Student: she

In both cases the teachers had words in their head and instead of opening up talk they closed it down. What could they have done?

Model and paraphrase When students give answers that are not correct, then give them positive feedback and model the correct phrase. Oh she took you to the zoo. That’s interesting – what happened?
Ask open questions and rephrase questions Yes, the boy’s happy. Why is he happy? What’s he doing?
Get many answers from one question When one student answers, nod your head but do not speak. Force yourself to look around the class for more answers.
Reflect answers Yes, that’s good. What do you think about what Peter just said?

A good idea is to record yourself when you are running a whole class discussion. The first time you hear yourself you will be shocked at how much you speak but do not be disheartened. As teachers we must teach ourselves not to speak too much sometimes.

5.3 Teaching listening

If you have learned a second language when you were older, you will understand that listening is not easy. Remember the stress you felt when people spoke to you quickly; remember the first time you managed to use a telephone. The research shows that there are several factors which make listening difficult or easy. The first set of factors relate to the speaker/s. It is much easier to understand one speaker than many; taking part in a conversation with four or five people is much harder than talking with a friend. The type of accent also makes a big difference as does the speed of the speakers. The second factors relate to listeners. What is their role? If you are listening to someone who is your boss or who you are not confident with, listening becomes much harder. If you are interested in the subject, listening becomes easier. If you are expected to respond, the listening becomes more difficult – easy listening is often listening to a story just for enjoyment. The next set of factors relate to the content – the grammar, the vocabulary and the listeners’ background knowledge. Finally there is the support – if there are pictures of diagrams, listening becomes easier.
From the research an important feature that helps listening is background knowledge. Remember your understanding the telephone conversation because of background knowledge? Research shows that 20% of time should be spent building student prediction and knowledge of what they will listen to. The term used for this background knowledge is the word schema. A schema is the way that knowledge is organised in our memory. If you think of a word like happiness, you will also remember many words and pictures related to this word. Our mind organises information in these schemata. Think of the two following sentences:

The waitress broke the bottle on the ship.
The queen broke the bottle on the ship.

The grammar of these two is the same but the meaning is totally different – we have different pictures or schema. What does this mean for teaching? It means that when you are getting students to understand your community language you do not need to shift to English. Instead you must focus on building their background knowledge or activating their schema. In the following sections you will read examples of how to do this.

5.4 Student Talk

In the 1970s there was a dramatic change in language teaching with the introduction of Community Language Teaching in Europe and the US. This approach was based on interaction between students as a key to learning in the classroom. Students need the chance to listen and talk with their peers. This gives them the opportunity to get comprehensible input and to practise giving comprehensible output. Research into pair and groupwork has shown that students develop a range of language that they do not develop in teacher-fronted classes.

Problems with student talk

There have been several criticisms of interaction and communicative language teaching. Kramsch (1993) and others have criticised it because it runs counter to many students preferred learning styles. They say that it is culturally inappropriate for many students and physically impossible to implement in many classrooms. This criticism is quite true. Many students, used to different ways of learning do not see interaction as real learning and actually learn better using more 'traditional' methods. However, in community language classes it will work well because this is what students are used to in their day schools.

The second main criticism of communicative language teaching has been that it is based on grammar games that are not integrated into any curriculum or related to any real learning. This has been particularly true of English teaching overseas. Communicative activities are not games but are different ways of presenting material. They should not be tacked on to the beginning and end of lessons but integrated with content and concept teaching.

The third criticism of interactive teaching has been that it is unstructured and makes classroom management difficult. In these groups students often feel lost and do not participate. For language learning to take place there needs to be a structure and a goal in all tasks. It is true that when you do pair and group work there will be more noise, but in the end classroom management becomes easier because students are more engaged and more motivated to learn. After you do an activity once or twice students learn the routines and become better behaved.
Organising your class for pair work

The first type of activities are called Information Gap, Barrier Games or Communicative Activities. They involve generally Student A and Student B with different sets of information. Students must talk and share information to complete the activity. The activities replicate everyday speech in the community language as students have to get their message across, clarify, ask and answer questions.

1. The first time pair work is done try following these steps. Firstly explain to students that they will be doing an activity to practice X or so that you can see how well they know Y (giving purpose). Then divide class into pairs. For younger students get them sitting back to back - for older students use backs as dividers to have them sitting opposite. Explain that the aim of the activity is to help each other, but they must not show each other their sheets. Next choose one of the more able students and demonstrate the first part of the activity. Finally distribute sheets. If pairs have finished before others have some activity for them. At the completion of the task ask students what they found difficult or easy and what they learnt from it.

2. For classes with wide language level differences prepare different levels of tasks. For groups unused or unwilling for this type of task get them to to pairwork in pairs ..that is 2 As and 2Bs. This takes the stress off talking. For beginner classes also get student As together and student BS together so that they can prepare what to say before they break up into pairs. If there are uneven numbers have one group of three. For large classes the whole lass can act as Student A with the teacher as Student B

1. Explain purpose of task. This task is to see what you know about ..... Don’t call it a game.
2. Give a challenge for task. I want to see which pair can …
3. Give instructions and model with a good student
4. Divide class into pairs or small groups
5. Distribute work sheets
6. Check all students are on task. Ensure no short cuts are being taken. Have extra task for early finishers.
7. Optional – jot down any language mistakes being made or good examples and discuss with class
8. Evaluate: What did you learn from that? What was easy? What was difficult?

Picture Differences (see handout 1)

The students have pictures with 4 or 5 differences which they must identify by describing. This activity focuses on the language of description. The picture can be from the topic being studied or from the book being read. In this way students develop the vocabulary of the subject. Model this activity with one of the participants. Then divide them into pairs – get them to set up a barrier between them or to sit back to back and then ask them to complete the activity. After five minutes ask participants to show each other even if they have not finished.

What would you need to teach beforehand to students? What activity could you follow this with?
The aim of this activity is for students to give each other clues to help complete the crossword. Explain that the purpose of the activity is to help each other, taking turns in giving clues to help complete the crossword. Each partner will get either across answers or down answers. They must not show each other, but instead ask questions.

Give a crossword to a good student and demonstrate the activity. Explain that student A asks ‘What is one across?’ Student B must give a clue. The clue must not contain any part of the answer. If the answer is ‘teacher’ Student B cannot say ‘someone who teaches’. On your handout sheet it is a good idea to put the rules. Include clues such as You must give clues such as

- ‘It is someone who....
- It looks like

Explain that each student can ask as many questions or give as many clues as they like. The language used is questioning, clarifying and categorising. Students learn the language of turn taking and of giving descriptions.

For beginners you may need to give time in making up clues. Group all student As and all Bs together for five minutes and help them work out clues. You can also put students in pairs - 2 As with 2 Bs. You can also get students to place a barrier between them to avoid ‘cheating’. It is also important to stress the learning that is going on. At the end discuss the activity and what they learned. The activity also assists the teacher assessing what students know. This activity can be used during a unit of work but not at the beginning. Students should have already been exposed to the vocabulary.

**Sentence pairs** (see handout 3)

This activity develops the use of conversational English. It practise pronunciation and improves comprehension skills. It is best used with beginners. Students would need to have been exposed to all the phrases beforehand with plenty of practice in pronunciation.

Explain the purpose of the activity to give them practice in everyday phrases and to improve pronunciation. Show the steps of the activity on an OHP and even demonstrate the first step yourself.

Then distribute strips and get students to practise and memorise. If the class is too large or noisy only allow questioners to circulate.

When students have found a ‘match’ they come to the board and write their phrases up. Finally the class as a whole checks and comments on the sentences and offers alternatives. They could also practise pronunciation.

Reading and writing activities could follow. Each pair could be give the set of strips to sequence. They could also be given only the questions or answers and asked to make up their own ‘matches’.

This activity could be used as a revision...even in a subject area.

- What’s the coldest planet?
- I’m not sure, but I think it’s Pluto.
- Do you know which planet is the hottest?
- Hmm...could be Mercury.

The activity breaks students into pairs . It is an ‘ice breaker’.

**Find someone who ....** (see handout 4)

This is a good ice breaker or revision activity. It practises questioning.

Distribute sheets and tell students that they must circulate and find a different person that fits each category. Then they write that person’s name down. When the sheet is completed they return to their seat. This can be used for revision of content knowledge.
Find someone who:

- has the same favourite colour as you
- was born in the same month.
- can speak another language.
- has a hobby or interest in common with you
- can pronounce your surname perfectly

Find someone who:

- Remembers three words we learned last week.
- Can tell you how to make souvlaki
- Know when Chinese New Year is

**Matrix** (see handout 5)

Distribute number matrix to each participant. Explain that each partner will have a set of flashcards. One partner must choose and place six cards on numbers and then discuss with their partner without giving the name of the object. Eg. *It is shiny and round and you can eat it..* Model with a participant. To play these activities with cards or flashcards you do not need a matrix. You could get the set of cards and place them upside down. One student chooses a card and the other/s have 10 questions to guess what it is. Only yes/no can be given as answers.

**Running dictation** see handout 6

You can organise pair work in any way. This activity involves one student running to a text on the wall, memorising segments and then dictating it to others in the team. Take short passages and attach them around the walls with blu-tak. Try and place each pairs’ texts an equal distance from where they are sitting. Then organise participants in pairs and explain that one in each pair is the ‘runner’. That person must run to their dictation, remember as much as possible and then run back and whisper what they have seen to their partner to write down. They can run back and forth as much as necessary. The winner is the first pair to complete the text correctly. As a follow up you can give each group the four sections and get them to sequence the story OR get groups to read out the story and ask the class to agree on a sequence.

**Interviews** see handout 7

Sharing real information is the most authentic type of pair work. This can be done by making up interview formats with students taking it in turns to ask each other questions. The first interview is a simple likes and dislikes with pictures. The second one involves much more language.

**Enquiry and elimination** see handout 8

Explain that there are so many games that can be done with flash cards. Participants have already tried the matrix. This activity is a simple enquiry and elimination activity. Participants in groups of three or four each get EITHER a large picture OR a set of flashcards. Participants take turns in choosing something from the picture or picking a card. Other participants must ask yes/no questions to guess what the person is thinking of. You can limit the questions allowed to be asked. (use flashcards from Handout 3)

**Faces** see handout 9

With large classes the information gap can be between teacher and class. Have a piece of butchers’ paper prepared with an oval face on it. Ask one of the participants to draw you with a texta: to add your features. The picture must then be attached on a board/project where participants can see it but you cannot. The class must then give you instructions on how to draw
the picture on the whiteboard. Once complete, distribute blank faces to participants and do this as pairwork.

**Giving instructions**

Blindfold yourself. Class must give instructions/ directions on how to get from one side of class to complete some task like picking up a book from the other side of the classroom. Then divide students in pairs and repeat the task with all pairs doing it simultaneously. Variations can include making objects, drawing or following sets of instructions ..... eg go to the window, open it, walk to the board, write your name and then hop back to your desk.

**To think about**

1. How useful was each activity?
2. What problems would you have with your students?
3. What activity could you do before/ after this?
4. What language was practised?
5. How could you do it with mixed ability class?
6. How could you do this with beginners? What balance of English and community language?
7. How could you do this with advanced students or older students?
8. What you do if students tried to cheat?

**Group activities/ collaborative**

Another type of activity is when you divide students into threes or fours and give them the same information and asking them to discuss and complete an activity. A variation on this is called **Think/ Pair/ Share**, when you ask students to do a task individually, then group them in pairs and finally join two pairs together in a group of four to reach agreement. Following are some examples.

**Dictogloss** see handout 10

Dictogloss is a good listening task that makes students listen for meaning. Show students an overhead transparency of the picture. Get them to predict what the picture is about, giving any words they can think of. Gradually reveal the transparency and then ask students to write down what they think the text might be about. Show the title and ask for more ideas.

Explain to students that they are going to hear a text at normal speed to help their listening. They must listen and then they will be given a chance to write down as best they can what they heard. They will hear the text three times and then will have to reconstruct the passage with their friends.

Read the text at normal speed. Students cannot write during the reading. At the end of first reading get students to jot down any words or prases they heard. Read the text a second time and let students copy down notes after the reading. Let students compare with the person next to them. . At this stage they can change or add words to their text. Read the text a final time and then give students five minutes to write down what they remember. Group students in threes or fours and give each group a piece of butcher's paper or OHP. Each group must reconstruct the story as closely to the original as possible. Have each group pin their paper to the wall. One person from each group should read their version to the class. The class then compares the versions. Finally, show the original text and compare. Sometimes it is better not to show the original.
The dictogloss forces students to listen for meaning. Discuss the benefits of the task at the end. It is also good for grammar practice – students must discuss and decide on articles, verbs, prepositions and all the small grammar words. The best dictoglosses are the ones that you compose yourself. A dictogloss can be the summary of a unit of work or film or book you are going to study – it can also come at the end of a unit.

On Christmas Eve, Suzanne and her mother were flying back to their home. Suddenly there was a storm and the plane crashed. Suzanne was the only survivor. She walked for ten days through the South American jungle. Finally she reached a village where she found help.

Low level students can be given three easy sentences.

My name is Mei Ling. I live in Beijing and I like playing basketball.

Rank ordering see Handout 11

Students are given a list of objects or items and asked to rank or prioritise them according to some criteria. The task can be open (where it depends on personal beliefs or opinions) or closed (where the ranking depends on a factual order). ‘The Flood’ is an example of an open task. A task asking students to estimate and prioritise the size or speed of a set of animals would be an example of a closed task. This type of activity is easy to adapt to different subject areas. The language produced includes stating opinions, justifying, agreeing and disagreeing, providing evidence and giving anecdotes. This organization is normally called think/pair/share. Students first decide on their ranking individually and write it down. They then combine with a partner and agree on a ranking. Pairs then combine and agree on a final ranking. What are the benefits of such a grouping? Ways to adapt this to a Community Language Classroom? Suggest a few and then ask participants – ranking sports they like, favourite foods, classmates’ families from biggest to smallest, famous people, favourite cultural events. Even if students do not have much fluency, they can discuss in English but write the words in community language and report to class in community language.

Sequencing see Handout 12

This activity involves students sequencing picture, words in a sentence, sentences in a story, paragraphs in a story or even lines of a poem. It can be collaborative (where students are given all pieces in a group) or information gap (where each student has a part of the whole and must communicate) The activity can be done standing up and bodily sequencing or quietly in pairs or groups sitting at the desks. It can be related to many other activities. The sequencing activity is appropriate to many subject areas. The sequence can be a time one (as in History) a process or a recipe, or a text where the language itself gives indications of sequence. The language arising is giving instructions, phrases of time and place and repetition of target language. Divide students into groups. Give each student one of the pictures below and tell them that they must not show other students their pictures. They must ask about and tell each other about the pictures so that they can put them in the right order to make a story.
One minute talks handout 13

This is just a short activity that 'breaks' the ice and gets students talking. Divide class into groups of three or four. Explain the task which is that each participant will choose a topic from the pile. The participant then has to talk for one minute without stopping on this topic. Model this activity first by getting a participant to give you a topic. Then number participants in groups 1, 2, 3. Distribute topics and get participants to choose. Then start with participant one. Time perhaps only 40 seconds for first speaker. OR
Find some interesting pictures of people from magazines or newspapers. Give one picture to each group. Ask students to talk about the person in the picture - name, age, personality, likes, dislikes, problems, job, interests and so on. Swap the pictures amongst the groups. When everyone has seen at least two pictures, talk together about what each group thought.

Brainstorming see handout 14

Brainstorming is when students 'storm' or search their brains for ideas. Brainstorming can be used for many purposes. It does not matter if the ideas are exactly correct. The purpose is get the ideas flowing and to revise past learning. Brainstorming is especially useful to get students thinking about vocabulary needed for a conversation. It is also useful to get students predict what people might say in a conversation. Brainstorming may take the form of a game, especially with beginners. You can brainstorm from:

- a picture
- a word or group of words
- a magazine headline
- an object
- a recorded sound
- a recorded part of a conversation eg the beginning
- a scene from a video recording.
Students write down all the words or phrases that this brings to mind in pairs. They can then combine and share with another pair. The teacher then collects these on the board. Once they are displayed on the board there is a teacher led discussion on how similar words can be combined. The class then comes up with a list of heading to group the words. Finally groups return to make an ordered structured overview based on the heading agreed to by the class. This activity developed a schematic structure for students to work from. It leads to the discussion of vocabulary and meanings and some hypothesising.

**Teaching songs**

Songs are really good to teach. Many students have learned language by singing. Try the following steps.

1. Introduce the song with pictures and background information, even a music video. Build up background knowledge and vocabulary.
2. Introduce the text without the music. You can do this with a cloze activity leaving out only a few words each stanza. Go through and discuss the meaning of the text explaining any unknown words and get students to guess the missing words.
3. Play the song getting students to listen and guess the missing word/s. You may need to play it twice or more.
4. Then teach the written text. Get students to repeat the text. Drill pronunciation from the end of the line.
5. Play a memory game to help them memorise…. Progressive cloze.

(by John Lennon)
Imagine there's no …………
It's easy if you try
Nowhere below us
Above only ……
Imagine all the …………
Living for today...

Imagine there's no …………
It isn't hard to do
Nothing to kill or …. for
And no religion too
Imagine all the people
Living life in …………

6. Finally play the song and get students to sing along.

**What to use as listening texts**

Videos are an important part of language teaching. Teachers can make use of visual support to practise top-down strategies by contextualising what students hear and making inferences about what they do not hear clearly. There are many types of video that are useful: TV drama or sitcom, advertisement, film trailer, music video, cartoon, weather forecast, interview, talk show, documentary or game show. If you are using a feature film, remember the following:

- choose an interesting or exciting film;
- choose one with a less complicated plot;
- be aware of cultural bias and difficulty and also the worldview presented by the film;
- listen to the dialogue and go for simple and realistic;
- break the film into key manageable segments and teach these using pre-listening and post-listening tasks. Leave the full viewing of the feature film until you have completed all work on the film.
Songs are useful because they are short, contain repetition and rely on simple natural language. Songs can also be recounts or narratives or can address social issues. Suggestions:

- choose singers with clear diction;
- use familiar songs when teaching higher order listening such as critical listening;
- use unfamiliar songs when teaching listening for detail;
- ask students for ideas;
- avoid most rap-music and songs with inappropriate language and content;

Poems and short stories are good ideas for listening tasks. In choosing texts:

- select those appropriate to your learners’ age group with themes that are relevant;
- select texts that are structurally simple – this is listening not reading or grammar;
- be aware of the cultural load. Often it is good to choose stories or texts from the students’ own background language and culture.

CDRoms combine video, sound, animation and text giving your students a way to control their language input. CDRoms usually have interactive texts and are better for listening for gist and detail rather than listening for inferencing. When you plan activities around CDRoms make sure that they keep students on task. Give students time also to familiarize themselves with the CDRom.

The internet is the latest source of authentic materials as many websites have audio and video materials. The BBC World Service, for example, has a wide variety of programs in both written and audio form. [http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/index.shtml](http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/index.shtml) One useful source of materials is the five minute bulletin available every hour. You can get your students to search the web for their own programs, something they can also do outside class. For this you can set students semi-structured tasks such as getting down the main points from the program.

Teachers should always be familiar with the materials they are teaching and to be prepared to spend time evaluating and preparing tasks to accompany the materials. In community languages schools there are often few resources, but remember that the teacher is the best resource. You can give regular talks to your students about:

- a member of your family;
- a friend or someone you have met;
- something you like doing;
- a place you know or have known;
- your childhood;
- a happy/unhappy/frighting/amusing/surprising experience;
- something which you are proud of;
- a film or play you have seen/an article or book you have read;
- stories or anecdotes you have heard or read.

Teachers should aim to give most teacher talk (classroom instructions, social chat, praise, as well as some content instruction and explanation) in the target language to develop students’ listening.

**Avoiding problems**

If you have not used communicative activities before, there will be some factors that you need to think about.

- Your students may take a little time to get used to these activities and this may affect how they participate. For example, they may be shy about speaking in front of each other. They may be worried about making mistakes. Or, they may be reluctant to express their real opinions or feelings in a classroom activity.
• Like your students, it will take you a little time to get used to communicative activities. For example, it will probably take you longer to prepare your lessons at first. And, it will probably mean that there is more activity in your classroom.

• Your students may take some time to be successful in communicative activities. They may have a lot of passive knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, but they have probably not had much practice in using this passive knowledge in real communication situations. They will need a lot of support and encouragement at first.

• You are likely to have certain restrictions on what you can do. For example, you may have to use a particular textbook, or prepare students for a particular examination.

• Some communicative activities may ask students to say or do things which conflict with students’ cultural attitudes to communication. You will need to think carefully about this. It may mean you do not use these activities. Or, you might decide to use them to focus on cultural differences and to highlight the way English speakers communicate.

For all these reasons, you will probably need to introduce the approach gradually, and in combination with your current approach.

• Tell your students why you are using these new communicative activities.

• Introduce one type of activity at a time. For example, at the beginning, you might just do preparation activities for set textbook activities. Gradually, you could extend these to include some pre-communicative and then some communicative activities.

• Make one lesson a week communicative at first, and then gradually extend the approach to other lessons.

• Adapt and extend some of the activities in the set textbooks, so that they are more communicative.

• Begin with the type of activities in this reading, and then gradually think of your own. Base them on your own experience of learning language.
Half a crossword: food and drink

This crossword is only half finished. Your partner also has a crossword that is only half finished. Take turns to ask each other about the words you do not have, e.g. What's 2 across?, What's 4 down? Answer by giving an explanation of the word. All the words are connected with food and drink.

Before you start, look at the words in your crossword and think of how you are going to explain them.
Half a crossword: food and drink

This crossword is only half finished. Your partner also has a crossword that is only half finished. Take turns to ask each other about the words you do not have, e.g., What's 1 down?, What's 9 across? Answer by giving an explanation of the word. All the words are connected with food and drink.
You have the beginnings of some sentences and the end of other sentences. You must read out your sentence *beginnings* (starting with *) and see if you partner can tell you the end. You partner will read out beginnings and you must find the *end.* Then place your sentences on the table and put them in the correct order to make the story.

**The Donkey and the Wolf**

**STUDENT A**

* Then the donkey kicked and knocked the wolf unconscious when she saw the wolf creeping up to attack her.

* The donkey started to limp

the thorn will stick in your throat and kill you.”

* So the wolf put his mouth on the donkey’s foot

**STUDENT B**

and ran off laughing and laughing.

and told the wolf she had a thorn in her foot

* “If you eat me,

* Once a donkey was resting in a field
to pull out the thorn.
**Handout 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Find someone who</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>has a birthday in the same month as you</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shares a character trait or two with you</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>likes at least one TV program the same as you</td>
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<tr>
<td>lives near you</td>
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<tr>
<td>has travelled overseas in the past three years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>likes studying their language</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**OR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Find someone who</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Likes coming to xxx school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did the homework for this week</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can remember what we studied last week</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knows how to say xxx in xxxx</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Can tell a story in ......</td>
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<tr>
<td>Can ........</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
A rich man lost his wallet. He said that he would give a reward to anyone who found it. There was $100 in his wallet and so the rich man said, ‘If anyone finds the wallet and brings it to me I will give them $50.’

A poor man found the wallet and took it to the rich man. The rich man did not want to give the $50 and so he said ‘When I lost my wallet there was a diamond in it. Give me back my diamond and then you get your reward.’

The poor man knew the rich man was not telling the truth. The two men went to a judge to see if she could settle the argument. When the judge heard what the poor man said she told the rich man, ‘You say there was a diamond in your wallet.’

‘Well there was no diamond in this wallet and so this wallet cannot be yours. This poor man can keep the wallet until the own is found.’ When he heard this, the rich man stopped arguing and gave the poor man his $50.
## Daily life

Find out about your partner's daily life. Ask him/her questions and mark the answer with a cross (X). If you find out more information, write it in the last column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ask your partner</th>
<th>Yes always</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>No never</th>
<th>Extra information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you ...</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get up before 8 o'clock?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have coffee for breakfast?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wear jeans?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>read a newspaper?</td>
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<tr>
<td>phone friends?</td>
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<tr>
<td>come here by bus?</td>
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<tr>
<td>have lunch in a restaurant?</td>
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<tr>
<td>feel tired in the evening?</td>
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<tr>
<td>read in bed?</td>
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<tr>
<td>go to sleep after midnight?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Now tell the class about your partner.

He/she always ...  He/she sometimes ...
He/she often ...  He/she never ...
Likes and Dislikes

Simple Present Tense: do/don't, does/doesn't

Before Using the Survey Grid

1 Points to remember

1 Add ‘s’ or ‘es’ to the end of the verb when using she, he, it or a name.
   e.g. Huong likes ice cream.
2 And is used to join two positives. Or is used to join two negatives.
   e.g. Dung likes new houses and small cars. Hector doesn’t like ice cream or chocolate.
3 In the negative, use doesn’t with he, she, it or a name.
4 The short answers to Do you like …? questions are Yes, I do or No, I don’t.

2 Making questions

Which questions would you ask to get answers to the following?
Write your questions in pencil.
Your teacher will correct them before you begin to fill in the survey.

ice cream?    Do
chocolate?    __________
the government? __________
old houses or new houses? __________
big cars or small cars? __________
3. Completing the survey grid

Record the student's answers in note form. Use single words, not full sentences.

Fill in the survey by asking five students your questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Likes and Dislikes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Small cars
- Big cars
- New houses
- Old houses
- Government
- Chocolate
- Ice cream
- Name
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHAT IF?</th>
<th>Partner 1</th>
<th>Partner 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What would you do if you won $10 million in the lottery?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What would you do if polygamy was compulsory and each woman had to have two husbands (at least)?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What would you do if you had your teens over again?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close your eyes. Where would you like to be now?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What ability/skill would you like to have that you don't have now?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you were a bird or animal what would you be?</td>
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The river that flows through the town where you live is in flood. Your house is situated in a low-lying area and the head of the local State Emergency Service has ordered you to leave. You have enough time to save three items in the house from the following list (or from your own ideas) Which items would you save and in which order?

<table>
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<th>Item</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>your personal papers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>photograph album</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clothes and jewellery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>piano</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>priceless painting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>box of money hidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your pet cat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>favourite item of furniture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>large box of food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your cassette player and TV set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your books</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. ...............................................

2. ...............................................

3. ...............................................

Sorry! You live in a shared household. You must agree with your partner what items you will take. State your preferences and reasons and see if you agree. (Note - if you agree on an item it applies to both of you)

1. ...............................................

2. ...............................................

3. ...............................................

Sorry! We forgot the rest of your household. Discuss now with everyone at your table!

1. ...............................................

2. ...............................................

3. .............................................
Stop thief!
### Handout 13 One minute talks

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<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<td>My family</td>
<td>Food and cooking</td>
<td>What I like doing in my spare time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>Music</td>
<td>Shopping</td>
</tr>
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<td>C</td>
<td>If I won $1 million</td>
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<td>Housework and washing</td>
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