

Senior 4 ELA: EAL for Academic Success



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Strategies for Second Language Acquisition

The following list of strategies is suggested as a bank from which teachers may draw for explicit instruction and modelling. Not every strategy is useful for every context or learner, but individual students need to be aware of and able to use the most effective tools.

A. Language Learning Strategies

Cognitive

- listen for specific information
- learn routine patterns in content subjects, like science and mathematics
- imitate sounds and intonation patterns
- memorize new words by repeating them silently or aloud
- seek the precise subject-specific terminology to express meaning
- make personal dictionaries of everyday words and phrases as well as of specific subject-related and academic vocabulary
- experiment with new academic words and phrases
- use mental images to remember new information
- group together sets of things—vocabulary, structures—with similar characteristics, using graphic organizers like Venn Diagrams
- identify similarities and differences between various rhetorical patterns, for example, essay structure, in English and in first language
- look for patterns and relationships
- use previously acquired knowledge to facilitate a learning task
- associate new words or expressions with familiar ones, either in English or in first language
- find information, using print and online materials like dictionaries, textbooks and articles, and grammars
- use word maps, mind maps, diagrams, charts or other graphic representations to make information easier to understand and remember

- place new words and expressions in context to make them easier to remember
- use induction to generate rules governing language use
- seek opportunities outside of class to practise and observe
- perceive and note unknown words and expressions, noting also their context and function

Metacognitive

- make a plan in advance about how to approach different academic language learning tasks
- plan in advance to listen or read for key words
- monitor own understanding while listening or reading, and effectiveness and accuracy while writing or speaking
- monitor own speech and writing to check for persistent errors
- be aware of own strengths and weaknesses, identify own needs and goals, and organize strategies and procedures accordingly
- evaluate own performance or comprehension at end of a task
- keep a learning log
- know how strategies may enable coping with challenging academic texts containing unknown elements
- identify problems that might hinder successful completion of a task, and seek solutions

Social/Affective

- initiate and/or maintain interaction with others
- seek the assistance of a classmate or teacher to interpret academic texts
- work co-operatively with peers in small groups
- work with others to solve academic language and task problems and to get feedback on tasks

(continued)

Strategies for Second Language Acquisition (continued)

- participate in brainstorming and conferencing as prewriting and postwriting exercises
- repeat new words and expressions occurring in class discussions, and practise using them in appropriate academic contexts
- use positive self-talk to feel competent to do the assigned task as well as to reduce anxiety related to the task
- be willing to take risks and try unfamiliar tasks and approaches
- experiment with various forms of expression, and note their acceptance or non-acceptance by more experienced speakers
- participate in shared academic reading experiences
- understand that making mistakes is a natural part of language
- indicate lack of understanding verbally using the correct register for the situation
- ask for guidance when new and more specific vocabulary and expressions are needed
- invite others into discussions
- use the other speaker's words in subsequent discussion or debate
- use a simple word or words similar to the concept to convey, and invite correction (for example, warm dry wind from the Rockies for Chinook)
- acknowledge being spoken to

B. Language Use Strategies

Interactive

- repeat part of what someone has said to confirm mutual understanding
- summarize the point reached in a discussion to help focus the talk (for example, In other words, you mean/what we're saying is...)
- ask follow-up questions to check for understanding (for example, Am I making myself clear? Do you understand?)
- use suitable phrases to intervene in a classroom discussion (for example, I'd like to add to that point.)
- start again, using a different tactic, when communication breaks down (for example, What I meant to say is...)
- self-correct if errors lead to misunderstanding
- ask for confirmation that a form is correct (for example, Is that right?)
- ask for clarification, repetition, or examples to aid understanding
- interpret and assess verbal and non-verbal feedback from a conversation partner or audience member (for example, nodding head, looking puzzled)

Interpretive

- use gestures intonation and visual supports to aid comprehension
- make connections between academic texts on the one hand and prior knowledge and personal experience on the other
- use illustrations to aid reading comprehension in complex academic texts
- determine the purpose of listening in informal and academic situations
- look and listen for key words
- listen selectively based on purpose
- make predictions about what is expected to be heard or read, based on prior knowledge and personal experience
- use knowledge of the English sound-symbol system to aid in oral reading
- infer probable meanings of unknown words or expressions from contextual clues
- prepare questions or a guide to note down information found in various texts
- use key content words or discourse markers to follow an extended text
- reread several times to understand complex ideas
- summarize information gathered
- assess own information needs before listening, viewing, or rereading difficult/complex material

(continued)

Strategies for Second Language Acquisition (continued)

- use skimming and scanning to locate key information in texts

Productive

- mimic what the teacher says
- use a variety of resources to increase vocabulary
- use new vocabulary in context
- copy important information from lectures or the board
- use illustrations to provide detail when producing one's own texts
- use various techniques to explore ideas at the planning stage, such as brainstorming, graphic organizers, or keeping a log of ideas
- use knowledge of sentence patterns typical of various subject areas to form new sentences
- be aware of and use the writing process: prewriting (gathering ideas, planning the text, doing research, organizing the text), writing, revision (rereading, moving pieces of text, rewriting pieces of text), correction (grammar, spelling, punctuation), publication
- use a variety of resources to correct texts (for example, personal and commercial dictionaries, a thesaurus, editing and citing checklists)
- take notes when reading or listening to assist in producing own texts
- revise and correct final version of text
- apply grammar rules to improve accuracy at the correction stage

C. General Learning Strategies

Cognitive

- classify objects and ideas according to their attributes (for example, positive and negative aspects of El Nino)
- connect what is already known to what is being learned
- focus on and complete learning tasks

- record key words and concepts in abbreviated form—verbal, graphic, or numerical—to assist with the performance of learning task
- use mental images to remember new information
- distinguish between fact and opinion when using a variety of sources for information
- formulate key questions to guide research
- make inferences, and identify and justify the evidence on which these inferences are based
- use word maps, mind maps, diagrams, charts, or other graphic representations to make information easier to learn and remember
- seek information through a network of sources, including libraries, the Internet, videos, individuals, and agencies
- use previously acquired knowledge or skills to assist with new learning tasks
- use models

Metacognitive

- reflect on learning tasks with the guidance of a teacher
- reflect on individual thinking and learning process
- make choices about methods of learning
- discover how own efforts can affect learning
- rehearse and role-play before presentations, debates, discussions
- decide in advance to attend to the learning task
- divide an overall learning task into a number of subtasks
- make a plan in advance to approach a learning task
- identify own needs and interests
- keep a learning journal
- develop criteria for evaluating own work
- work with others, monitoring own learning

(continued)

Strategies for Second Language Acquisition (continued)

- take responsibility for planning, monitoring, and evaluating learning experiences
- manage the physical working environment

Social/Affective

- watch and copy the actions of successful students in educational settings
- seek help from others
- follow own natural curiosity and intrinsic motivation to learn
- participate in co-operative group learning tasks
- choose learning tasks that enhance understanding and enjoyment
- be encouraged to try, even though mistakes may be made
- take part in group decision-making processes
- use support strategies to help peers persevere at learning tasks (for example, offer encouragement, praise, ideas)
- take part in the group problem-solving process
- use positive self-talk to feel competent to do the task
- be willing to take risks and try unfamiliar task and approaches
- monitor own level of anxiety about learning tasks, and take measures to lower it if necessary (for example, deep-breathing, laughter)
- use social interaction skills to enhance group learning activities
- divide an overall complicated academic tasks into a number of sub-tasks
- develop criteria to evaluate own work
- take responsibility for planning, monitoring, and evaluating complex academic language learning tasks
- work with others to monitor own learning
- reflect on learning tasks with the guidance of the teacher
- reflect upon own thinking processes and methods of learning

- choose from learning options
- keep a learning journal (for example, math journals, reflective journals)
- discover how own efforts can effect learning
- choose from learning options
- decide in advance to attend to the learning task

Cognitive

- listen for specific information
- learn routine patterns for science and math
- imitate sound and intonation patterns
- memorize new words by repeating them silently or aloud
- seek the precise subject-specific terminology to express meaning
- repeat words or phrases in the course of performing a language task
- make personal dictionaries
- experiment with new academic words and phrases
- use mental images to remember new information
- group together sets of things—vocabulary, structures—with similar characteristics (Venn Diagrams)
- identify similarities and differences between various rhetorical patterns (for example, essay structure) in English and own language
- look for patterns and relationships
- use previously acquired knowledge to facilitate a learning task
- associate new words or expressions with familiar ones, either in English or in first language
- find information, using print and online reference materials like dictionaries, textbooks, and grammars

How to Create a Summary

I. What Is a Summary?

A summary is a brief restatement of the content of a piece of text expressed in one's own words. It should be an accurate report of what the author says, without comment. Most summaries are about one quarter to one third of the original length of the text.

II. Steps in Writing a Summary:

1. Read the article completely without making any notes. If it is difficult, you may want to skim first. Your goal is to decide what the writer is saying.
2. Try to state the authors' main point in one or two sentences. Look for the thesis statement and underline or highlight it. If the idea in the thesis does not match the idea in the sentence(s) you wrote, you must adjust your sentence(s) to reflect the thesis idea.
3. After you are certain that you understand the author's main purpose, reread the text, this time, thinking about writing a summary; highlighting, underlining, and making marginal comments as you read. Find the main ideas that support the thesis. Also, locate the main ideas in each paragraph as well as the supporting ones. Only highlight the important words and phrases, not complete sentences or large chunks of information. Look at transitional markers showing how the parts are connected.
4. Reread the article, identifying sections of thought. These may be single or multiple paragraphs.
5. In your own words, write a sentence or two summarizing each thought group. If this is difficult, try writing a summary sentence for each paragraph. Revise and delete any repetitions.
6. First :
 - Begin with the author, the article's title, and the main idea.
 - Next, write your summary sentences. They should be in the same order as the information in the article. Connect ideas with appropriate transition markers. Use recombination to compress ideas.
 - Occasional quotations may be used, as long as they are cited properly. Try to use your own words as much as possible.
 - Conclude with a final statement that reflects the author's position, not your own.
7. Revising:
 - Check to make sure that your summary reflects the ideas of the original article.
 - Check to see if you have made any omissions.
 - Does your summary flow smoothly?
 - Is it the correct length?
 - Have you ask a peer for his or her comments?
 - Can he or she understand the gist of the main article through your summary?
 - Have you made suggested and valid changes?
 - Have you edited for spelling, punctuation, and grammar errors, especially those you make often?

Skimming and Scanning for Academic Purposes

- Preview the article by skimming. Skimming means reading on the surface rather than in depth.
- To skim you should:
 - Read the title of the passage.
 - Read any subheadings or bolded words or phrases.
 - Examine any charts, maps, graphs, statistics, pictures, or other visuals attached to the written passage.
 - Read the whole first paragraph. It is the introduction and contains the thesis statement telling what the focus of the passage is.
 - Read the topic sentence of each paragraph. It is usually the first sentence of the paragraph. A topic sentence acts as a mini thesis statement for that paragraph.
 - Read the whole final paragraph. It is the conclusion and usually sums up the main points of the passage.
- Skimming helps you activate prior knowledge you might have on the topic and aids you in preparing mentally for what you will be reading in detail.
- Continue by scanning. Scanning means looking for specific information in a reading passage.
 - Do not read every word.
 - Do not even read for the main idea.
 - Run your eyes over the page looking for key terms. These are the words that will lead you to your purpose for reading.
- To be a good scanner:
 - You must know the key words to look for.
 - Know synonyms or examples that go with the key words in case the key words are not stated the way you expected.
 - Do not waste time reading everything; simply look for the key words.
- A person who wishes to be a successful reader:
 - works to improve his or her vocabulary
 - knows which unknown vocabulary words are important to the understanding of a passage and finds their meanings through the use of context clues, the knowledge of word families and affixes, by asking a group member or, if necessary, by using the dictionary
 - learns to summarize information in one or more sentences or in a short paragraph
 - can paraphrase a passage in his or her own words
 - focuses on improving reading speed by using a number of reading strategies and by practising
 - is a good skimmer and scanner

Skimming helps a reader preview an article. Scanning helps a reader find answers to questions and look for specific information. These strategies also help prepare students for in-depth readings.

Appendix 4

Note-Taking Symbols

| | | | |
|--------------------------|------|------------------------------|-----------|
| And | & | Is less than | < |
| At | @ | To increase/go up | ↑ |
| Century | c. | To decrease/go down | ↓ |
| Degree | ° | Therefore | ∴ |
| Leading to; resulting in | → | Because | b/c |
| Money | \$ | With | w/ |
| Nothing | ∅ | Without | w/o |
| Number | # | Within | w/i |
| Paragraph | ¶ | Man; men | ♂ |
| Parallel | // | Woman; women | ♀ |
| Per | / | For example | e.g. |
| Percent | % | That is; in other words | i.e. |
| Plus | + | Around, approximately, circa | ~ |
| Repeated words | “ “ | Approximately | ≈ |
| See note about this. | * | | → |
| This is important. | N.B. | Since 2000 | 2000 |
| Equals | = | In 2000 and earlier | ← 2000 |
| Doesn't equal | ≠ | | |
| Is greater/more than | > | | |

T-List Procedures

1. Choose an appropriate text. Try to find visuals to introduce the ideas of the text, and explain them by drawing out new vocabulary that will be necessary for the students to know as they listen to the reading.
2. Decide what types of words from the reading you want to want to exclude on the T-List. The idea is to omit the filler words usually left out of point-form notes. You should also create blanks for transition/connector words or certain vocabulary words on which you want to focus.
3. Rewrite the text on the T-List graphic. At the top on the left side above the T line, write “Main Ideas.” At the top on the right side above the T line, write “Supporting Details.” Underline the T line write the main topics on the left and the supporting details for each topic on the right, leaving out filler words and leaving blanks for the other types of words on which you want to focus.
4. Give the incomplete T-List to the students to be filled in while they are listening.
5. Read the article once rather slowly while students try to complete their T-Lists.
6. You may have to repeat the reading, but make sure to speed up to normal reading speed.
7. Once students are finished, you may have them check their answers with a partner if you like.
8. Go over the T-List with the class, filling in the blanks with a different coloured pen for visual clarity as the students tell you what is required.
9. Next, have students make suggestions about how to change their point-form answers to complete sentence answers. Record these suggestions in another, different coloured pen. Encourage students to make a number of suggestions for each sentence. Also encourage sentence combining through coordination, subordination, etc. Do this with just a few examples.
10. Have the students complete the rest of this activity on their own.
11. Finally, have the students write their version of the article using their notes.

How to Debate in Groups

As a class:

- discuss the structure and aims of a debate
- select the topic for debate

Small groups:

- compose a single sentence motion for the debate

As a class:

- choose the best motion
- select debating teams to include 6 (or an appropriate number of) members each
- choose 4 (or an appropriate number of) judges
- decide which team is the government and which is the opposition

Debating teams:

- determine main arguments to support their position
- record support for the main arguments
- predict key arguments the other side will make
- determine the order of speakers on their team
- formulate the content of the team's opening statements

(Important information should be recorded in point form on index cards to be used during the debates.)

Judges:

- formulate criteria for deciding which is the winning side
- predict key arguments to expect from both sides
- may listen in on planning sessions
- take notes during the debate

Teacher:

- flips a coin to see who will begin first
- times speakers carefully
- limits the first speaker to 3 minutes and others to 2 minutes
- ensures that teams take turns speaking
- allows students to take a minute between speakers to discuss next strategy

At the end of the debate, judges:

- present a summary of the debate to the class
- deliver their judgements and reasoning

How to Detect Bias

In some texts, the writer has an obvious bias that influences his or her attitudes toward a topic. It is necessary to be aware of bias when evaluating texts. Biased writing is subjective while factual writing is objective.

To determine bias, a reader must be aware of the differences between subjective and objective writing.

In subjective writing, the author

- expresses one specific point of view
- wishes to appeal to the reader on a personal level
- may make one-sided statements
- may express personal feelings and opinions
- may ask rhetorical questions
- may use emotionally charged language

In objective writing, the author

- appears to be neutral
- does not reveal personal feelings or opinions
- describes facts without including personal comments
- may state several points of view
- quotes the opinion of the author rather than his or her own

How to Evaluate a Website

Strategy 1: Identify the primary purpose.

Is the site

- an informational site?
- a promotional site?
- an educational site?
- an e-commerce site?
- a portal site, which is meant to act a jumping-off point for other sites on the Internet?

Look at the site’s “domain”—the last part of the URL, or the uniform resource locator. This might help you figure out the site’s purpose.

Some common domains:

| <i>Domain</i> | <i>Type of Site</i> |
|---------------|---------------------------------|
| .com | commercial, for-profit company |
| .edu | post-secondary educational site |
| .org | non-profit institute |
| .gov | government agency |
| .net | Internet-related network |
| .ca | Canada |

Strategy 2: Navigate through the site.

- It should be simple to navigate through the web pages of a site.
- Are the navigation tools—buttons, scroll-bars, etc.—found in the same place on each page?
- Is it clear what is a link and what is not?
- Are common elements or colours found on every page? A well-designed website makes it clear to the browser on each page that he or she is still on the same website.

- Can you always reach the home page?
- Is contact information provided on every page?
- Is a link to a site map available at all times?
- Do you ever have to go through more than two links to reach the information you are looking for?
- Has the website creator provided you with helpful navigation tools such as a site-search option?

Strategy 3: Consider the quality of the content.

- Look for tools that make locating information easy. One such feature is a list of Frequently Asked Questions (FAQ). When a site has this feature it suggests that the web designer has tried to anticipate the kinds of questions users may have.
- Determine the quantity and quality of the links. Useful, well-chosen links show that the web creator or owner is knowledgeable in his or her area of expertise.
- Assess the information on the site itself. Is it accurate? It is authoritative? Has it been researched and well developed? Is there a list of “further readings”?
- Does the site indicate how current the information is? Is there an indication of when the page was last updated?
- Is the information presented in a professional manner? Are the pages loaded with or free from grammatical and spelling errors? Do the graphics and animations load quickly? Is the page attractive or unappealing to look at?

Verbs Used in Academic Tasks across the Curriculum

| | | | | |
|-------------|---------------------------|-------------|------------|--------------|
| Administer | Copy | Express | Notice | Rotate |
| Agree | Create | Extend | Observe | Search for |
| Allow | Explore | Extrapolate | Obtain | Select |
| Alter | Express | Evaluate | Organize | Separate |
| Alternate | Demonstrate | Find | Outline | Set up |
| Analyze | Debate (the resolution) | Finish | Perform | Show |
| Apply | Deduce | Formulate | Permit | Simplify |
| Approximate | Decode | Gather | Persist | Sketch |
| Arrange | Decrease | Generalize | Place | Solve |
| Assess | Define | Graph | Plot | Specify |
| Associate | Derive | Group | Practice | State |
| Assume | Describe | Hypothesize | Precede | Sterilize |
| Attach | Design | Identify | Predict | Study |
| Attempt | Detect | Imagine | Prepare | Substantiate |
| Base | Determine | Immerse | Present | Substitute |
| Build | Develop | Increase | Prevent | Suggest |
| Calculate | Devise | Indicate | Probe | Summarize |
| Categorize | Dilute | Induce | Produce | Survey |
| Centre | Disagree | Inhibit | Prove | Test |
| Chart | Discard | Inquire | Rank | Trace |
| Check | Dismantle | Interpret | Rate | Transmit |
| Choose | Distinguish between/among | Investigate | Recall | Use |
| Classify | Distribute | Justify | Record | Utilize |
| Clear (off) | Dissolve | Label | Refer to | Vary |
| Comment on | Drain | Limit | Reflect | Verify |
| Compare | Draw | List | Reflect on | View |
| Complete | Employ | Locate | Refute | Write |
| Compose | Enhance | Magnify | Reinforce | |
| Compress | Equate | Mark | Relate | |
| Conclude | Estimate | Mark off | Repeat | |
| Conduct | Examine | Measure | Report | |
| Confirm | Exclude | Minimize | Represent | |
| Connect | Expand | Mix | Research | |
| Consider | Explain | Modify | Retrace | |
| Construct | | Monitor | Review | |
| Contrast | | Note | Rewrite | |

Response Prompts

I wonder why...

I am concerned about...

I don't understand...

I would like to ask the author/speaker/producer...

Something that bothers me is...

I was surprised (angry, unhappy, moved)...

I want to know more about...

I predict...

I learned...

I would like to find...

What would happen if...

One thing I didn't expect was...

We must follow up by...

I think the purpose of this article (report, discussion, interview, etc.) is...

In order to really understand the concept (idea, proposal, etc.)...

My response/reaction to is...

A connection I see is...

To begin planning for this activity...



How to Analyze Editorial Cartoons

Editorial cartoons are a form of satire. They convey, through exaggeration or caricature and few or no words, relevant information about a complex topic.

Their purpose is to affect how people think or feel about issues.

Strategy 1: Use prior knowledge to identify the subject.

- Editorial cartoons only work because the viewer understands what is being discussed. This means keeping up with current events, trends, and world issues.
- Common subjects of editorial cartoons:
 - political, entertainment, and sports figures
 - public affairs or political decisions
 - important and controversial world issues
 - social customs, fashions, or habits

Strategy 2: Look for symbolism and other literary techniques.

- Editorial cartoons can deal with either specific ideas or general issues. Often the cartoonist will use symbolism to make the issue appeal to a larger audience. Objects in the cartoon can stand for countries, political groups, attitudes toward war, poverty, personality traits, and so on. Note, especially, any objects that are exaggerated. These are often symbolic objects.
- The cartoonist may also use irony to say one thing while meaning the exact opposite of what the words or visual imply. It is necessary to examine the words and visuals together. This type of humour is used by the cartoonist to get a message across more effectively than if it were directly stated or preached.
- Juxtaposition puts the object of the cartoon in a surprising or unexpected position that will make a serious point in a humorous way.

Strategy 3: Read the caption and any text.

- If there are words, they are there for a purpose and, therefore, important.

Strategy 4: Consider all the elements together

Ask yourself:

- What do the drawing, words, and caption mean when considered together?
- What point is being made about the object of criticism or subject of comment?
- Did the cartoonist achieve his or her goal? Did I laugh? Did the cartoon make me think? Were my opinions and/or feelings influenced in any way?

Presentation Evaluation Rubric

| | 5 Superior | 4 At Standard | 3 At Standard | 2 Needs Improvement | 1 Needs Improvement |
|---|---------------|------------------|------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| Information is accurate and thorough. | | | | | |
| English grammar and spelling are accurate. | | | | | |
| Vocabulary used is appropriate to the topic and sports in general. | | | | | |
| The poster is attractive in terms of neatness, layout, and design. | | | | | |
| The presenter is able to speak about the material fluently and with accurate pronunciation. | | | | | |

Preparing Interview Questions: A Student's Guide

One source of up-to-date information can be obtained through an interview. An interview will go well if you do some research and prepare well ahead of time. You will want to record the interview or videotape it so that you can analyze it later.

General strategies for preparing your questions:

1. Make sure your questions are clearly phrased and will get the answers you want. Try to anticipate what the interviewee might say and think of ways you can redirect, restate, or expand the questions if you do not get the desired response the first time. Have your partner check your questions. You may want to practise on him or her.
2. Avoid closed questions to which the interviewee can simply answer "Yes" or "No."
3. Phrase the questions so that your respondent is free to answer in his or her own way. Don't begin with phrases like "Don't you think...".
4. Avoid questions that are so vague the person may not know how to answer or to which the person's response may be just as vague as the question. For example, rather than asking, "Was life difficult in the past?", you could try the following ideas. You might ask, "What were the difficulties about living in the past?" To narrow the focus you could ask, "What were the three most memorable difficulties about life in the past?" This type of question forces your respondent to make the judgements and evaluations you need for your writing.
5. Don't ask things you can find out for yourself. Interview time should be used well.
6. You may want to give your interviewee a list of your questions beforehand. It is sometimes difficult for elderly people to think on the spur of the moment.

During the interview:

1. Ask your questions one at a time. Make sure the question is understood. Rephrase, explain, and/or exemplify, if necessary.
2. Listen carefully and take brief notes. (If you are recording the interview you will be able to expand on your notes later. Do this as soon as you can after the interview so that it will be fresh in your mind.)
3. If you are planning to quote, make certain that you record the person's words exactly. Ask the person's permission to use the quotation. Read the quotation back to the person to make sure it is accurate.
4. You will have to cross-reference any facts you learned with reliable sources.

Etiquette concerns:

Make sure to conduct yourself in a professional and polite manner. Call ahead of time to set up your appointment; introduce yourself and explain the purpose of your interview. Try to accommodate your respondent, as he or she is doing you a favour. Make sure he or she is comfortable with your questions. Ask if you can have permission to record the interview. Arrive on time for the interview. Do not overstay your welcome. After the interview, call or write to the interviewee to thank him or her for his or her valuable information and time.

If you have to check information or if you have questions after the interview has been conducted, you may call the interviewee, but only once.

Tips for Wording and Ordering Survey Questions

1. State the purpose of the survey.
2. Ask demographic questions if you wish to look for correspondences between groups.
3. Use simple and precise language and keep the questionnaire short.
4. Be sure that all questions are relevant to your purpose.
5. Avoid response categories that overlap.
6. Be sure that all categories are exhaustive, or leave space for “other.”
7. Avoid loaded questions and built-in assumptions (e.g., Are you in favour of increasing the driving age to 18 to reduce traffic fatalities among teenagers?)
8. Be consistent in formatting questions.
9. Sequence questions logically, beginning with general questions and moving to specific questions.
10. Be sure that the questionnaire is neat, attractive, and free of errors.

Tone Vocabulary

Positive tone/attitude words

lighthearted
hopeful
confident
cheery
amused

elated
complimentary
passionate
exuberant
enthusiastic

optimistic
loving
sympathetic
compassionate
proud

Negative tone/attitude words

Anger:

angry
disgusted
outraged
furious

wrathful
bitter
irritated
indignant

threatening
accusing
condemnatory
inflammatory

Humour/Irony/Sarcasm:

scornful
disdainful
contemptuous
sarcastic
cynical
condescending
critical
facetious

patronizing
satiric
sardonic
mock-heroic
bantering
irreverent
mock-serious
taunting

insolent
pompous
ironic
flippant
whimsical
amused

Sorrow/Fear/Worry:

somber
elegaic
melancholic
sad
disturbed
mournful

solemn
serious
apprehensive
concerned
fearful
despairing

gloomy
sober
foreboding
hopeless
staid
resigned

Neutral tone/attitude words

formal
objective
incredulous
nostalgic
ceremonial
candid
shocked
reminiscent
restrained

clinical
baffled
sentimental
detached
objective
disbelieving
questioning
urgent
instructive

matter-of-fact
admonitory
learned
factual
didactic
informative
authoritative

How to Write a TQT (Text Questioning Technique) Lesson

1. Pick your topic. Decide what your content objectives for the lesson will be.
2. Find a suitable text or create one of your own.
3. Find a good supporting visual or more than one if possible, to promote pre-activity discussion.
4. Write your questions from the text. Vary the kinds of questions you use, if possible, so that students will have to respond in different ways. To begin, use exact wording from the text in your questions and make sure you ask them in the order in which the answers occur. Ask a reasonable number of questions and make sure they require short answers. Remember, students have to listen as they write their answers. Ask questions with a number of parts (a, b, c, etc.) whenever possible in order to provide students with the opportunity to sentence combine and use more complex structures. (You may make your questions more difficult as you students progress.)
5. Develop brainstorming questions (to be used in the activation) around your visual, drawing out vocabulary the students will need in order to answer the questions about the text. Exploit your visual to develop both BICS and CALP where possible.
6. Look at your brainstorming questions, your text, your text questions and the answers you expect; then choose your language objectives for the lesson. Are there certain structures, vocabulary items, discourse features, language functions, etc. that jump out of the text itself, the brainstorming or text questions, or the answers? Zero in on these.
7. As you think through the development of your lesson, decide where you can incorporate the teaching of learning strategies.

Evaluating Ads

Strategy 1: Determine what first attracted your attention.

- The caption or slogan?
- The models or setting?
- The text?
- The brand name?
- The logo?

Strategy 2: Focus on the visual appeal.

Reacting to the ad visually:

- What was your first response to the ad?
- What are the colours in the ad? Do they seem to have been chosen to affect mood or do they have something to do with the product?
- What mood or feelings did the ad evoke? Did it shock you? Surprise you? Anger you? Make you anxious? Make you feel happy? Give you pleasure?
- Look at the models. Are they celebrities? Everyday people? Attractive people? Why?
- What are the models doing? Is their pose casual or is it meant to suggest a certain lifestyle?

Strategy 3: Consider the text and the claims that it makes.

Reacting to the print and the message:

- Is any of the text larger? Smaller? Why? (Usually, the message that is supposed to attract the target audience is written in larger type. This is called the “hook line.” It often asks an interesting question or plays on words. It is like the hook in an essay and is meant to grab the reader’s attention.)
- Find any words that limit the claim or detract from the product. These are called “qualifiers” in ads. They may use modals like “may,” “should,” “could” or expressions like “some” or “they say,” etc. (What are the qualifiers in a cigarette ad?)

Strategy 4: Consider the subtext.

- Look at the other messages suggested by the ad.
- What does it say about values and beliefs of our society?
- According to the ad, what does society consider important?
- What does the good life look like? How do we attain happiness?
- Does the ad reflect reality? Do you agree with the values presented in the ad?

Creating a Photo (Visual) Paragraph, Essay, or Report

This task is a good one for practising the language functions of describing, explaining, and sequencing. It can also be used for comparing/contrasting and showing cause/effect.

- Decide on a topic that can be presented visually through pictures, images, charts, collages, graphs, maps, and/or another form of graphic.
- Plan what you want to describe or explain about the topic through your visuals.
- Collect, take, or create pictures that are appropriate. You may want to use Internet pictures and/or a digital camera. You also may scan photos.
- Organize your visuals on paper or in a computer file.
- Add maps, charts, statistics, etc. to your photos, pictures, or visual creations.
- Survey your pictures and support documents and decide if they present the information you intended to present.
- Remember to consider content as well as the quality of visuals you are presenting.

Writing Activity:

- Form groups of two.
- View each other's visuals.
- Decide what the organizational pattern of presentation of material is.
- Think carefully about the message the creator is trying to share.
- Create a graphic organizer that is appropriate for the organizational structure and write point-form notes about what you view and understand.
- Discuss your notes with the creator of the visual essay/paragraph.
- Formulate and produce a written piece that presents the visual information you have viewed.

Sort and Predict Graphic Organizer

Read the list of words on the left and sort them into four different categories by placing them in the boxes. For the words that you are unsure of, predict which category each would belong to. When selecting categories, try to make the fourth category different than any category that the rest of the class would think of. Use your creativity; be original! You may use **one** word in more than one category.

| | | |
|--|----------|----------|
| | 1. _____ | 2. _____ |
| | 3. _____ | 4. _____ |

How to Write and Use a DIT Lesson

The Dictated Instructions Technique from the Foresee Approach can be used whenever there are instructions as part of an activity.

1. Choose a set of instructions you want to use for a listening and grammar activity. The directions for the procedures section of a science experiment work well.
2. Write out the directions so they begin with an imperative form of verb.
3. Remove all the imperatives and replace them with blanks.
4. Choose one other grammar structure you want to practise, like prepositions, for example, and remove these also, replacing them with blanks. You may choose to remove vocabulary words on which you plan to focus.
5. Dictate the instructions and have the students fill in the blanks with the appropriate words.
6. When they are done, check to make sure they are correct.
7. Focus on the words you left out and have the students review the uses for these parts of speech.
8. If you used the exercise to write up the directions for the procedures of an experiment, you can then teach students how to change their directions from imperative to passive voice, past tense, as they write up the procedures section of the completed experiment.

How to Express Numbers in Written Work

The following rules may be helpful when you must use numbers in your work.

1. Use numerals in dates, street numbers, room numbers, sums of money, telephone numbers, temperature readings, page numbers, numbered sections and chapters in books, statistics, and with a.m. and p.m. to record time.
2. Measurements are always expressed as numerals (e.g., The field was 10 m long.).
3. Numbers containing a decimal are written as numerals.
4. In English, we do not begin sentences with numerals. Either use words or rearrange the sentence (e.g., Fifty-four people attended the “how to stop smoking” session.).
5. Counted numbers can be expressed in writing if they consist of one word (e.g., The 100 m race was one of two he could choose.).
6. With large numbers, a part of the number can be written out to avoid a string of zeroes (e.g., The cost of the fleet of hydrogen cell fueled buses was 10.2 million dollars.).
7. In English, we usually use commas between hundreds and thousands, between hundred thousands and millions, etc. It is also acceptable to simply leave a space where the comma would be. (e.g., 1,000 OR 1 000; 2,363,428 OR 2 363 428).
8. A digit must precede a decimal (e.g., He ran the race in 0.9 seconds.).
9. Numbers below 101 are usually spelled out. Compound numbers between twenty-one and ninety-nine are hyphenated.
10. Round numbers over 101 are usually spelled out (e.g., Two hundred messages; one thousand viruses).
11. Do not use full metric terms with numerals; use the accepted abbreviations (e.g., The average person walks 3.3 km each day.).
12. Do not use a period after a metric abbreviation unless it is at the end of a sentence (e.g., The car can go 100 km without having to refuel.).
13. Use a hyphen between the numeral and a symbol when they are used to modify a noun (e.g., I am going on a 10-k walk to support breast cancer research.).
14. Use decimals rather than fractions in metric units (e.g., The cell phone is 10.45 cm long.).

Solving Math Word Problems

- Form groups of four.
- Turn on your tape recorders when you are ready to start.
- In your groups, carefully read over the math word problems for this unit. (Read out loud.)
- Talk among yourselves in English to make sure you know what each question is asking.
- If you are not sure, ask your teacher for direction and help.
- Record any new words in your personal dictionary.
- Once you are certain about the meanings of the word problems, work together to solve each problem.
- Talk yourselves through the problem, discussing each step you will take.
- If there are several ways to solve the problem, discuss each one.
- Follow these steps for each problem.
- When you are finished, turn off the tape recorder.

Mathematics Questions

Sports

1) Josephine has been throwing the discus since she was 12 years old. She has been able to determine that the path of the discus follows the shape of a parabola, depending upon her release angle. If she releases the discus at an angle of 40 degrees it follows a path described by the equation $h = -0.2 d^2 + 60d$.

Determine the maximum height of the discus.

Determine how long it takes the discus to get to the maximum height. Determine the maximum distance that the discus travels. If Josephine changes the launch angle to 41 degrees, the discus follows a path described by the equation $h = -0.3 d^2 + 70d$. Which launch angle gives her a greater distance and by how much?

2) Alfred decides that he would like build up his muscle strength. He measures the size of his biceps and finds them to be 88 mm. He starts a workout schedule and measures the increase in size of his biceps every day. At the end of the first day he finds that his biceps have grown 2 mm. At the end of the second day he measures his biceps and finds that they have grown by 1 mm. If the increase in size of his biceps continues at a rate of $\frac{1}{2}$ the previous days increase, determine the maximum size that his biceps will reach.

3) Mr. I. M. Fast is a sprinter and is in training for the Olympics for the country of Neutrality. His time for the 100 m is 12.4 seconds on June 1, 2003. On September 1, 2003 his coach determines that he can now run the 100 m in 11.8 seconds. At this rate, how long will it take for him to reduce his time to the world record (students can research the world record for the 100 m to determine what that record is)? On what date will he be able to run the 100 m in 8 seconds? Is this possible? Why or why not?

4) The amount of energy, E , measured in kilocalories per gram molecule, needed to transport a substance from the outside of a living cell to the inside of that cell is given by

where C_1 represents the concentration of the substance outside the cell and C_2 represents the concentration inside the cell. If the

$$E = 1.4 \log_{10} \frac{C_2}{C_1}$$

concentration of a substance inside a cell is twice the concentration outside it, find the energy needed to transport the substance into the cell.

Environment

1) The Environmental Protection Agency has measured the level of pollutants found in Ross Lake in Flin Flon, Manitoba. They found that there were 350 parts per million in 2000. Three years later, they found that there were 280 parts per million. Fish can be introduced into the lake when the level reaches 120 parts per million. Determine the year when fish may be introduced into the lake.

2) Contamination of the environment with Strontium-90 from nuclear fall-out can pose very serious health hazards because its chemistry is similar to that of calcium. The half-life of strontium-90 is 28.8 years. If it gets into grass and hay, it can be incorporated into cow's milk along with calcium, and is then passed on to humans where it will lodge in the bones. Since its half-life is so long, it can cause radiation damage that can lead to cancer. Set up a function of time that gives the amount of strontium-90 at any time t .

- How long will it be before there is only 10% of an original amount of strontium-80 remaining?
- What percent of an original amount will remain after five years?
- Without using a calculator, determine how long it will be before only 25% of an original amount of strontium-90 is remaining.

3) The University of Manitoba has hired David Suzuki to give a speech on how to deal with climate change. The members of the organizing committee have been given the task of selling tickets. The prices of presold tickets have been set at \$15.00 for adults and \$7.50 for high school and university students. The committee has projected sales of 13 000 tickets. The organizer of the event wants to determine how many of each ticket are likely going to be sold. In order to do this, the number of presold tickets is going to be used. The committee members have a meeting, and it is established that they have not been keeping track of the number of each kind of ticket

(continued)

Mathematics Questions (continued)

has been sold. The tickets are identical until the seller punches a hole in the ticket. They don't remember how many holes they have punched, but they know that they have sold 548 tickets for \$7380. Using the presold tickets as an estimate, determine the total revenue from each kind of ticket that is likely going to be generated and the total revenue from all tickets.

Technology

1) A planet revolves around the earth following the path of an ellipse described by

$$\frac{(x-2)^2}{64} + \frac{(y+3)^2}{49} = 1$$

The position of the earth is located at the centre of the ellipse. Determine the shortest distance that an astronaut has to travel in order to intercept the planet.

2) At Cape Canaveral, a rocket takes off and travels 1.5 m in the 1st second, 4.5 m in the 2nd second, and 13.5 m during the 3rd second. How far will the rocket have traveled after 30 seconds? During the 10th second, determine the distance traveled by the rocket.

Health

1) The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that smoking kills one person every 10 seconds. Determine how many people will die as a result of smoking after:

- d) 1 minute
- e) 1 hour
- f) 1 day
- g) 1 year

2) Health Canada predicts that approximately 45 000 Canadians will die due to smoking this year. Of these, more than 300 non-smokers will die of lung cancer, and 700 non-smokers will die of coronary heart disease caused by exposure due to second-hand smoke. Non-smokers comprise what percentage of the total deaths due to smoking?

3) Using the data found at www.statcan.ca/english/Pgdb/health07a.htm answer the following questions:

- a) Which province(s) has/have a greater percentage of female smokers?
- b) For all of Canada, which age group has the highest percentage of smokers?
- c) For all of Canada, which province has the highest percentage of smokers in the age group:
 - i. 12 - 14
 - ii. 15 - 19
 - iii. 20 - 34
 - iv. 35 - 44
 - v. 45 - 64
 - vi. 65 and over

4) Cobalt-60, which has a half-life of 4.6 years, is extensively used in medical radiology. The amount left at any time is given by

$$A(t) = A_0 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{\frac{t}{4.6}}$$

where A_0 represents the initial amount and t , the time in years.

- a) What fraction of the initial amount will remain after
 - i. 9.6 years?
 - ii. 12 years and 6 months?
- b) How long will it take until there is only 10% of the original amount remaining?

Global Village

1) Scientists at the Virology Lab in Winnipeg, Manitoba are studying a new strain of bacteria. They have determined that an initial population of 20 bacteria will grow to 100 in 70 days. Determine what the doubling period is of the bacteria. Determine the length of time it will take the bacteria to grow to 100 000.

(continued)

Mathematics Questions (continued)

2) In 1995, the world population was 5.8 million people. According to the United Nation's forecast, the population will grow to 8.0 billion by 2025. Suppose this prediction were true. What is the average annual growth rate?

3) At the University of Manitoba in a class of students studying first year calculus, the students sit in rows. Each row contains 10 desks. Students are creatures of habit, and once they sit in a particular row, they tend to continue sitting in the same row class after class. Sitting in the second row of desks, there are five students from Hong Kong, three students from Germany, and two students from India. Determine the number of ways of arranging these ten students in the row if:

- a) the students of the same nationality must sit together
- b) the students from India must sit at the left end of the row
- c) the German students cannot sit together

APPENDIX 24: TEACHING AND LEARNING ESL IN THE SENIOR YEARS

This section explores some important ideas and resources for reflecting on and planning for teaching and learning in the ESL classroom.

Reflections on Effective ESL Instruction

The Role of the Teacher

The teacher is the key to success in the ESL classroom. Effective teaching demands a broad range of teacher knowledge and skills, both in ESL and in second language pedagogy. In addition, teachers of ESL for academic purposes must be proficient speakers of English, must have a good understanding of cultural processes and North American secondary and post-secondary environments, and must possess a strong background in a variety of second language teaching, reading, and writing methodologies. Furthermore, teachers will benefit from experience, professional development, and expertise in

- responding to diversity in the classroom and using multilevel groupings
- co-operative learning and student-centred learning
- multi-media and computer-assisted learning
- resource-based language learning

Teachers should continue to engage in professional development in order to maintain or improve their proficiency in ESL programming and keep their teaching skills current.

The classroom climate created by the teacher cannot be overemphasized. Students will respond positively to an encouraging teacher and a warm, supportive, and accepting learning environment. Clear expectations and strong classroom management skills are necessary to allow students to perform to their potential.

Student Motivation

When students value their learning, believe they can succeed, and feel in control of the learning process, they develop motivation or the desire to learn. Teachers can foster students' motivation to learn by

- instilling in each student a belief that he or she can learn
- helping students become aware of their own learning processes, and teaching them strategies for monitoring and enhancing these processes
- assigning tasks and materials of appropriate difficulty, and making sure that students receive the necessary instruction, modeling, and guided practice to be successful

- communicating assessment processes clearly so that students understand the criteria by which progress and achievement are measured
- helping students set realistic goals to enhance their learning
- helping students celebrate their own and classmates' learning progress and achievements within the school community and the broader community
- ensuring that instruction is embedded in meaningful learning events and experiences
- modeling personal enjoyment of English language learning, and communicating the value of learning another language for later success in the world beyond the classroom
- involving students in the choice of themes, topics, resources, and activities around which learning experiences will take place, to foster a sense of ownership
- creating inclusive, risk-free classroom communities where curiosity is fostered and active involvement in the learning process is valued and shared
- providing uninterrupted time for sustained engagement with appropriate English print and non-print resources
- providing collaborative learning experiences that enable students to exchange ideas and perspectives, develop a sense of purpose, and build a sense of community

Modes of Communication

Because of the focus on using language to communicate in specific contexts with a particular purpose or task in mind, three modes of communication are used to organize some of the specific learning outcomes rather than the traditional language arts (reading, writing, listening, speaking, viewing, and representing).

Interaction is most often direct, face-to-face oral communication. It can also take the form of written communication between individuals using a medium such as email where the exchange of information is immediate. It is characterized principally by the opportunity to negotiate meaning actively. Negotiating meaning involves working to make oneself understood and to understand others. Interactive communication generally requires more speed but less accuracy than the other two modes.

Interpretation is receptive communication of oral and written messages in contexts where the listener or reader is not in direct contact with the creator of the message. While there is no opportunity to ask for clarification, there is sometimes the possibility of rereading or listening again, consulting references, or figuring out meaning in other ways. Reading and listening will sometimes involve **viewing** and interpreting visual elements such as illustrations in books or moving images in television and film. Interpretation goes beyond a literal comprehension to include an understanding of some of the unspoken or unwritten meaning intended by the author or speaker.

Production is communication of oral and written messages in contexts where the audience is not in personal contact with the speaker or writer, or in situations of one-to-many communication (e.g., a lecture or a performance where there is no opportunity for the listener to interact with the speaker). Oral and written presentations will sometimes be enhanced by **representing** the meaning visually, using pictures, diagrams, models, drama techniques, or other non-verbal forms of communication. Greater knowledge of the language and culture is required to ensure that communication is successful because the participants cannot directly negotiate meaning.

Three Types of Language Learning

As students actively use the language arts, they engage in three kinds of language learning:

- **Students learn language:** Language learning is a social process that begins in infancy and continues through life. Language-rich environments enhance and accelerate the learning process.
- **Students learn through language:** As students listen, read, or view, they focus primarily on making meaning. Students use language to increase their knowledge of the world.
- **Students learn about language:** Knowledge of how language works is a subject and a discipline in itself and is fundamental to effective communication.

These three kinds of language learning are integrated in the classroom. Students may engage in learning tasks principally to make sense of the world. In the process of learning through language, however, their facility with language and their knowledge about language increases.

Developing Language Competence

Language competence is a broad term which includes not only knowledge about the language, but also the ability to use that knowledge to interpret and produce meaningful texts appropriate to the situation in which they are used. Language competence is best developed in the context of activities or tasks where the language is used for real purposes—in other words, in practical applications. Tasks involve students in understanding, manipulating, producing, or interacting in English while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. Activities or tasks will be chosen based on the needs, interests, and experiences of students. The vocabulary, grammar structures, text forms, and social conventions necessary to carry out the task will be taught, practised, and assessed as students are involved in various aspects of the task itself, not in isolation.

Teaching the Form of the Language

Teaching the form of a second language has been the topic of much discussion but there is still a need for more research to clarify many issues that remain unresolved. However, we can make the following observations with some certainty:

- Exposing students to the language without explicitly teaching its structures and formal properties is not enough to enable most students to become fluent.
- Teaching grammar through exercises that are unrelated to meaningful communication will not help students improve their language competence.
- Activities or tasks which focus on the form of the language should take up a relatively small part of the overall class time. The majority of classroom time should be spent on communicative activities, in other words, on activities where the focus is on meaning.
- Students cannot be expected to master a particular structure after a single lesson on it. They need to be exposed to the structure repeatedly, in a variety of situations, and have the opportunity to use it over an extended period of time before it will be learned.

How does the teacher decide when to introduce specific structures or forms? In a program that takes a task-based or content-based approach, the choice of grammar structures or forms to work on explicitly is based on the immediate needs of the students. In other words, students learn about the structures and forms they will need to use in order to carry out the task that is the focus of the lesson. This way of ordering the teaching of grammar requires a careful analysis of the tasks the students will work on to determine which structures are essential and in which context they will be used. With careful planning, the teacher can ensure that specific points are revisited regularly in a variety of contexts.

An effective method of raising the students' consciousness of particular structures or rules is to help them discover the rule themselves. Once they are aware of the structure, they will be more likely to notice it in texts they are working with and thus have their learning reinforced. Grammatical problem-solving activities can be used to help students discover patterns from a number of examples of correct and incorrect sentences. If students work in pairs or small groups and are able to do the activity in English, they will also be getting an opportunity to use the language in an authentic situation, in this case to learn something new. Even if students do the activity in English and are guided by the teacher, they will still benefit from the analysis.

Structural exercises can be effective tools for teaching grammar provided they meet certain criteria:

- Sentences used for the exercises should be taken directly from students' own productions or from texts they are using in their communicative activities.
- Understanding the meaning of the sentence should be necessary in order to do the exercise.
- Students should have the opportunity to use the structure they have just analyzed to accomplish the task that is the focus of the lesson.

Teaching Oral Production

Oral production activities are distinct from activities where there is interaction (and the possibility of negotiation of meaning) between individuals. Although they are not interactive, they must still be communicative. This means that they will have the following characteristics:

- The topic is interesting and/or relevant to the students.
- The student producing the text has a real purpose (e.g., sharing factual information, expressing a personal opinion).
- The text is presented to a real audience (a person or persons other than a teacher who is listening for the sole purpose of teaching and assessing the student).
- Real communication takes place; in other words, the audience does not already know what the speaker is telling them.
- The students presenting the text usually have an opportunity to plan and prepare what they are going to say beforehand and to rehearse their presentation. For this reason, greater accuracy, better pronunciation and intonation, and greater fluency can be expected than in interactive situations.

Developing Interactive Fluency

Research has shown that students need more than comprehensible input to learn a second language. They also need output; in other words, they need opportunities to interact with others and to try to make themselves understood, if they are to develop accuracy and fluency. Producing language helps learners to notice gaps in their knowledge and then to try to find the correct form, in order to be understood.

Studies have also shown that nearly two-thirds of the talking that goes on in classrooms is done by the teacher. This is rather alarming when we know that interaction is essential for learning a language. If the teacher controls dialogue by asking questions of one student at a time, each individual student will have very little opportunity to try out new vocabulary and structures. Students must have the opportunity to interact in English in authentic situations as much as possible.

Face-to-face interaction is different from other situations (e.g., reading a story, writing a letter, listening to a song, speaking to a group) in that negotiation of meaning is possible. The speaker knows more or less immediately whether or not their message has been understood. The conversational partner may indicate lack of understanding, ask for clarification, or simply respond, thinking they have understood. This back and forth process continues until a mutual understanding has been reached.

However, interactive activities, if they are to be effective, cannot be left to chance. They must be carefully planned and structured. Here are some suggestions:

- By using co-operative mixed-level groups, the teacher provides students with many opportunities to express themselves, to use the language in communicative situations, and to test their ability to get their message across. It is important to teach and assess co-operative skills related to using the English language in co-operative groups.
- Students can be taught strategies for making themselves understood, without having recourse to their first or other languages when they do not know or cannot remember a word or phrase. Strategies include using gestures, synonyms, paraphrasing, looking at word lists posted in the classroom, and so on.
- Students often need to be encouraged to be a little more precise, a little more accurate. However, in interactive activities the focus should remain on the meaning the student is trying to convey. It is possible to respond to the message and yet push students to improve their language. If they are using a general word, for example, respond to what they are saying while at the same time using a more precise word. If they make a mistake in grammar or pronunciation, respond to the content (the meaning) of their message, but incorporate the correct structure or pronunciation into your response. If the idea is vague or very general, ask students to provide more details, justify their opinion, or be more precise.
- Students can learn to use similar techniques in their interactions with their fellow students. This involves strategies like asking questions to get more information or a clearer answer, indicating when one has not understood, or repeating what was said in a different way to check for understanding.
- None of these suggestions will work unless the classroom provides a safe environment for students, an environment where they know they can make mistakes without being ridiculed or punished. Students need to understand that taking risks (trying out new vocabulary and structures, using language that they are not quite sure of, trying to say things they want to say but have not yet learned fully) and making the inevitable mistakes are part of the process of effective language learning.

Teaching Written Interpretation

Advanced ESL learners in the Senior Years have the advantage that they already know how to read in their first language and can transfer many of their skills and strategies to the task of reading English, their second or additional language. The writing system may be different, but students already understand that a written text has a message and that it is made up of individual words. They know that they don't always have to understand every word, they can read ahead and come back, or they can just guess at the meaning of words they don't know, and so on.

Written texts used in the early stages of learning English should have the following characteristics:

- They are as authentic as possible. (Authentic means they were written for speakers of English and not for second language learners.)
- Syntax is simple, sentences are short, and texts are also short or made up of short sections.
- High frequency vocabulary is used.
- The meaning is clarified by the use of illustrations and other contextual clues.
- The topic is familiar to the student.
- The content is interesting and/or relevant to the student.

However, as students become more proficient, the written texts to which they are exposed can more closely resemble the normal language of a native speaker with fewer visual supports. In order for students to continue to learn, input should always be just a little beyond their current capabilities. Students in the advanced stages of ESL acquisition need exposure to texts in the subject (content) areas that are likely to be encountered in Senior 4 and post-secondary settings.

The term “written interpretation” is a reminder that the objective of reading is to interpret the meaning of the text. Activities such as reading aloud, while they have their place in the second language classroom, are more suited to practising good pronunciation or learning the correlation between sounds and spelling than to developing comprehension.

Teaching Written Production

Research on teaching writing shows that student achievement is higher when the teaching approach emphasizes writing as a **process**, rather than writing as a **product**.

In the traditional **product-oriented approach**, form and correctness are the focus of attention. The teacher provides drills on specific skills, makes many of the major decisions for the students (e.g., topic, length, what form the text will take), and is the only audience. Students are asked to concentrate on following rules, to work alone, and to constantly pay attention to technical matters such as grammar and spelling. They usually write only one version of the text, which the teacher corrects. Because no one else will read the writing, students often pay little attention to the teacher's comments.

Research has clearly shown that a concentration on grammar actually slows students' development as writers because the insistence on correctness reduces their willingness to experiment and invent. Grammar instruction that relates directly to students' writing, and is in response to their needs, is effective in improving writing.

The experience of classroom teachers and research conducted during recent years shows that a **process-oriented approach** to teaching writing is more successful. In this approach, students are led through a series of stages in their writing and gradually learn to use this process independently.

Strategic Learning and ESL

Fostering strategic learning in the English language classroom is essential for ensuring effective and lifelong learning. To develop high levels of language skills, including literacy, students need instruction in the strategies that skillful learners use in approaching language tasks. Students need to be taught learning strategies through demonstration, explicit instruction, guided practice, and independent practice with feedback and support. Therefore, students in *Senior 4 ESL for Academic Success* are encouraged to acquire and apply a wide range of strategies to enhance their learning and their ability to communicate effectively.

Strategies are systematic and conscious plans, actions, and thoughts that learners select and adapt to each task. Strategies are often described as knowing what to do, how to do it, when to do it, and why it is useful. The importance of learning strategies in this course is evident by the fact that general learning outcomes 6-8 are specifically focused on metacognitive, cognitive, and social and affective learning strategies. (An alternative delineation is language learning strategies, language use strategies, and general learning strategies, all of which would be further broken down into metacognitive, cognitive, and social and affective strategies.)

Language learning strategies refer to actions taken by learners to enhance their own language learning. These strategies are subdivided into three categories: **cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective**.

- **Cognitive language learning strategies** operate directly on the language. These include such strategies as using different techniques for remembering new words and phrases, deducing grammar rules or applying previously learned rules, guessing at the meaning of unknown words, and using a variety of ways to organize new information and link the new information to previously learned language.
- **Metacognitive language learning strategies** are higher-order skills that students use to manage their own learning. These include planning for their language learning, monitoring their own language learning, and evaluating their success in language learning.
- **Social language learning strategies** are actions learners take that involve interactions with native speakers of the English language or interactions with other learners of English in order to assist or enhance their own language learning. For example, asking another student for help to understand a text written in English, or asking a native speaker for an unknown vocabulary item would be social language learning strategies.

- **Affective language learning strategies** are methods students use to regulate their emotions, motivation, and attitudes to make themselves more conducive to learning. Language use strategies are actions taken to enhance communication. These strategies are often used with no intention of trying to acquire language, but instead with the intention of improving communication. The language use strategies in The Common Curriculum Framework for ESL for Academic Success are organized according to the three communicative modes: **interaction, interpretation, and production.**

General learning strategies refer to actions taken by learners to enhance their own general learning. As with language learning strategies, general learning strategies are divided into three sub-categories: **cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective.** There is a distinctive similarity between language learning strategies and general learning strategies; the determining difference, however, is whether the purpose of the application of the specific strategy is the learning of the language or of other concepts. Often, the other concepts include subject-area concepts, such as social studies or health concepts.

The strategies that students choose depend on the task they are engaged in as well as on other factors, such as their preferred learning style, personality, age, attitude, and cultural background. Strategies that work well for one person may not be effective for another person or may not be suitable in a different situation. For this reason, it is not particularly useful to say that students should be able to use specific strategies at a particular grade level. The goal is to help students become more active, more self-directed, more autonomous, and more expert in choosing the strategies that work best for them. Effective language learners tend to use more strategies and to apply them in a more appropriate fashion than less effective learners. A global list of strategies that will benefit students can be found in the **Appendices** of this document.

Strategies should be introduced as they are needed. When strategies are introduced and explained in terms of their value to the learner and are demonstrated and practised over time, they can produce long-lasting, significant improvements in the students' ability to construct meaning, acquire language, and achieve the *Senior 4 ESL for Academic Success* learning outcomes. All students benefit from strategic instruction, but individual students need varying degrees of support in learning and using strategies.

Inclusive Teaching Approaches

Every classroom is a diverse classroom. Students bring with them a rich array of cultural backgrounds, learning styles, personal interests, and characteristics. It is important for teachers to consider the needs of all the learners in the classroom. The charts that follow provide an overview of points to consider, and useful strategies for adapting instruction for diverse students.

Balanced Instruction

Planning for balance while ensuring for sufficient instruction and practice in all the outcomes defined for this course is a particularly challenging task. Teachers strive to incorporate a variety of instructional strategies and teaching and learning activities in their classrooms. This includes varying instructional groupings and methods to meet the learning needs of a wide range of students.

Teachers also strive to ensure balance in their delivery of the curricular learning outcomes. They are attentive to the need for integrating the eight general learning outcomes to achieve balanced instruction. They are careful to provide instruction in linguistic elements, such as grammar or vocabulary, within the context of concrete applications.

Themes, integrated units, and learning sequences provide opportunities for explicit instruction in many learning outcomes. Instructional activities such as mini-lessons are necessary to introduce, develop, or reinforce particular skills. In every planning decision, reflective teachers ask:

- What is an appropriate balance for my students?
- Am I achieving that balance in my classroom, both in the short term and the long term?
- Is my instruction helping students to achieve the appropriate learning outcomes?

Teachers strive for balance in their classrooms. A communicative approach requires the teacher to be a guide and a language model. One of the main functions of the teacher is to discover or invent ways of encouraging students to communicate meaningfully with each other. Instead of actively directing and controlling all activities, the teacher will set up conditions for meaningful practice, and then take on roles such as observer, facilitator, resource person, catalyst, challenger, and encourager.

Adaptation Strategies

“Differentiating the curriculum” refers to adjustments in content, teaching strategies, expectations of student mastery, and scope and sequence. Students work at different paces. Gifted students are more likely to develop study and production skills, experience success, and feel challenged by instruction that encourages learners to master information more quickly. For more detailed information and resources on differentiated instruction, see *Success for All Learners*, Manitoba Education and Training (1996).

Strategies for the Second Language Classroom


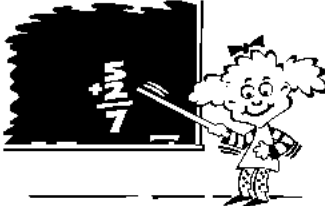
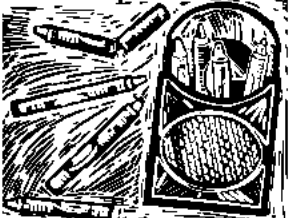

Suggested student adaptation strategies for the second language classroom may include, but are not limited to, the following:

- researching and discussing cultural issues/perspectives in more depth
- posing questions that involve inferencing and focusing on complex cross-curricular themes or global problems
- explaining reasons for taking a certain position or making a specific decision, both orally and in writing, in the target language
- creating texts in various forms, etc., showing multicultural perspectives of a specific theme or having a futuristic twist
- being held accountable for additional listening comprehension tasks
- creating experiences and performances that reflect the results of research, interviews, or surveys in the target language
- retelling a story or experience from other content areas in the target language
- writing editorials, letters, etc. to target language newspapers in Canada
- emailing articles, commentaries, reviews, etc. to target-culture schools, publications, organizations, newspapers, or magazines
- being given assignments involving more sophisticated computer research and reporting in the target language
- receiving handouts, information for web searches, etc. in the target language
- processing a greater volume of any given print material
- being given the option of independent second language projects of choice

Additional Adaptations





In the following pages, several charts outline strategies for adapting learning activities to accommodate students with diverse talents, exceptionally able students, and students with specific learning needs. Teachers may wish to refer to these during their instructional planning and as a check to be sure that they are using inclusive classroom practices.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR STUDENTS WITH DIVERSE TALENTS

| Intelligence | Students learn best by: | Planning questions for teachers | Learning activities |
|---|---|--|---|
| <p style="text-align: center;">Linguistic</p> <p style="text-align: center;">ABCDEFGHIJKLM</p>  | Verbalizing, hearing, and seeing words | How can I use the spoken or written word? | Creative writing Formal speech Humour or telling jokes Impromptu speaking Journal or diary keeping Oral debate Poetry Storytelling Words—used in reading, writing, speaking |
| <p style="text-align: center;">Logical-Mathematical</p>  | Conceptualizing it, quantifying it, thinking critically about it | How can I bring in numbers, calculations, logic, classifications, or critical-thinking skills? | Abstract symbols, formulas Calculation Counting Deciphering codes Finding patterns Forcing relationships Graphic organizers Number sequences Outlining Problem solving Syllogisms |
| <p style="text-align: center;">Spatial</p>  | Drawing it, sketching it, visualizing it | How can I use visual aids, visualization, colour, art, or metaphor? | Active imagination Colour schemes Designs and patterns Drawing guided imagery Mind mapping Painting pictures Pretending Sculpture/models |
| <p style="text-align: center;">Bodily-Kinesthetic</p>  | Dancing it, building a model of it, doing a hands-on activity related to it | How can I involve the whole body or use hands-on experience? | Body language Dancing—folk or creative Drama/acting Inventing Martial arts Mime Physical gestures Physical exercises Playing sports and games Role-playing |

Adapted from the *Nebraska K-12 Foreign Language Frameworks*, 1996, as cited in the *New Jersey World Curriculum Framework*, 1999.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR STUDENTS WITH DIVERSE TALENTS

| Intelligence | Students learn best by: | Planning questions for teachers | Learning activities |
|---|---|---|--|
| Musical  | Singing it, chanting it, finding music that illustrates it, putting on background music while learning it | How can I bring in music or environmental sounds, or set key points in a rhythmic or melodic framework? | Creating music Environment sounds Humming Listening to music Music performance Music composition, creation Percussion vibrations Rhythmic patterns Singing Tonal patterns Vocal sounds and tones |
| Interpersonal  | Working on it with another person or group of people | How can I engage students in peer-sharing, co-operative learning, or large-group simulation? | Collaboration skills Co-operating Co-operative learning Empathy practices Giving feedback Group projects Intuiting others' feelings Listening Person-to-person communication Receiving feedback Sensing others' motives Talking to others Teamwork/division of labour |
| Intrapersonal  | Relating it to a personal feeling or inner experience | How can I evoke personal feelings or memories, or give students choices? | Being alone Complex guided imagery "Centering" practices Emotional processing Focusing/concentration skills Higher-order reasoning "Know thyself" practices Metacognition techniques Mindfulness practices Silent reflection methods Telling about feelings Telling about thinking Thinking strategies |
| Naturalist-Physical World  | Observing it, classifying it, appreciating it | How can I relate the student's learning to the physical world? | Discovering, uncovering Observing, watching Forecasting, predicting Planting Comparing Displaying Sorting and classifying Photographing Building environments |

Adapted from the *Nebraska K-12 Foreign Language Frameworks*, 1996, as cited in the *New Jersey World Curriculum Framework*, 1999.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR STUDENTS WITH DIVERSE TALENTS

Multiple Intelligences Grid of Ideas

| MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES GRID OF IDEAS The Olympic Games or Games of Life | | | | | | | |
|---|------------------|--------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------|--------------|
| Verbal | Logical | Spatial | Bodily | Musical | Interpersonal | Intrapersonal | Naturalist |
| Biographies | Graphic arts | Greek architecture | Fitness | National songs | Teamwork | Individual achievement | Nutrition |
| Writing about heroes | Biochemistry | Pottery | Sports | Raps | Co-operation | Pride | Health |
| Historical fiction | Laws of physics | Painting | Practice | Practising music | Competition | Sense of accomplishment | Wellness |
| Myths | Statistics | Posters | Routines | Relaxation music | Sportsmanship | Logs | Biochemistry |
| Literature | Percentages | Photos | Regimens | Meditation | Coaching | Journals | Climate |
| News reporting | Logical thinking | Graphic organizers | Physical therapy | Composing | Mentoring | Psychology of peak performance | Culture |
| Expository writing | Sequences | Graphs | Conditioning | Performing | Global relationships | Endurance | Biofeedback |
| Features | Cause/effect | Visualization techniques | Experiences | Selecting appropriate music | Conflict management | | Attitudes |

Adapted from the *Nebraska K-12 Foreign Language Frameworks, 1996*, as cited in the *New Jersey World Curriculum Framework, 1999*.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR STUDENTS WITH DIVERSE TALENTS Planning Model Using Bloom's Taxonomy

Bloom's Taxonomy is a model that focuses on six levels of thinking. The six levels roughly form a two-tiered arrangement that represents levels of complexity in thinking. Knowledge and comprehension are the lower or more concrete levels of thinking. Analysis, evaluation, and synthesis represent higher or more complex levels of thinking. The application level, which falls between the lower and higher levels, can be very complex depending on the task.

A variety of instructional strategies and products may be categorized for each level of thinking. Teachers who design a variety of learning activities that require different levels of thinking will provide appropriate opportunity for the diverse number of students whose thinking levels range throughout the spectrum.

| Level | | Definition | Instructional Strategies | Activities, Tasks, & Products |
|---|---------------|---|--|---|
| Lower, less complex, more concrete levels | Knowledge | Students recall information, recite, or write | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ask • define • describe • discover • identify • label • list • listen • locate • match • memorize • name • observe • recite • recognize • remember • research • select • state • tell | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • books • diagrams • events • exams • facts in isolation • films • film strips • magazine articles • models • newspapers • people • plays • quiz • radio • recordings/records • tapes • text reading • vocabulary • workbook pages |
| | Comprehension | Students restate the information in their own words | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ask • change • compare • convert • defend • discover • distinguish • edit • explain • express • extend • generalize • give example • identify • illustrate • infer • interpret • listen • locate • match • observe • paraphrase • predict • relate • research • restate • rewrite • show symbol • summarize • transform • translate | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • casual relationship • comparison of like/unlike items • conclusion/implication based on data • diagrams • films • filmstrips • graph • magazines • models • newspapers • outline • own statement • people • photograph • radio • response to questions • revisions • skit • speech • story • summary • tape recording • television |

Adapted from the *Nebraska K-12 Foreign Language Frameworks*, 1996, as cited in the *New Jersey World Curriculum Framework*, 1999.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR STUDENTS WITH DIVERSE TALENTS

Planning Model Using Bloom's Taxonomy

| Level | | Definition | Instructional Strategies | Activities, Tasks, & Products |
|--|-------------------------------------|--|--|---|
| Higher, more complex, more abstract levels | Level depends on complexity of task | Application | Students apply the information on one or more contexts. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • apply • build • change • choose • classify • construct • cook • demonstrate • discover • dramatize • experiment • interview • list • manipulate • modify • paint • prepare • produce • record • report • show • sketch • solve • stimulate • teach • use guides, charts, maps | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • artwork • collection • crafts • demonstration • diagram • diorama • diary • drama • forecast • illustration • list • map • meeting • mobile • model • paint • photographs • project • puzzle • question • recipe • scrapbook • sculpture • shifting smoothly from one gear into another • solution • stichery |
| | Analysis | Students understand component parts to be able to compare and contrast or categorize information. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • advertise • analyze • categorize • classify • compare • contrast • differentiate • dissect • distinguish • infer • investigate • point out • select • separate • solve • subdivide • survey | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • argument broken down • chart • commercial • conclusion • checked • diagram • graph • parts of propaganda statement identified • plan • prospectus • questionnaire • report survey • report • solution • survey • syllogism broken down • word defined | |
| | Synthesis | Students judge what they have analyzed and support their opinions. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • combine • compose • construct • create • design • estimate • forecast • hypothesize • imagine • infer • invent • predict • produce • rearrange parts • role-play • write | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • advertisement • article • book • cartoon • experiment • formation of a hypothesis or question • game • invention • lesson plan • machine • magazine • new game • new product • new colour, smell, taste • news article • pantomime • play • poem • puppet show • radio show • recipe • report • set of rules, principles, or standards • song • speculate on or plan alternative courses of action • story • structure • television show | |
| | Evaluation | Students create and/or gather pieces of information to form a novel thought, idea, product, or perspective. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • appraise • choose • compare • consider • criticize • critique • debate • decide • discuss • editorialize • evaluate • give opinion, viewpoint • judge • prioritize • recommend • relate • summarize • support • weigh | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conclusion • court trial • critique • debate • decision • defense/verdict • discussion • editorial • evaluation • group discussion • group • letter • news item • panel • rating/grades • recommendation • self-evaluation • standard compared • standard established • survey • valuing | |

Adapted from the *Nebraska K-12 Foreign Language Frameworks*, 1996, as cited in the *New Jersey World Curriculum Framework*, 1999.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR EXCEPTIONALLY ABLE (GIFTED) STUDENTS

Strategies for Exceptionally Able Students

To ensure success with exceptionally able students...

- allow for choice within assignments and projects.
- use compacting.
- allow students to make independent plans for independent learning.
- provide mentoring or apprenticeship with professionals.
- teach entrepreneurship.
- use theory of multiple intelligences.
- use tiered assignments which are more complex or abstract.
- use Socratic questioning.
- use critical and creative questioning strategies.
- use open-ended questioning strategies.
- use interdisciplinary units.
- allow in-depth enrichment learning.
- allow time with like-intellectual peers.
- use accelerated pace of instruction.
- allow dual enrollment or early admission opportunities.
- remove time and space restrictions to allow for a long-term integrated plan of study.
- provide more difficult or abstract resources.
- allow for concrete or real-life investigations and explorations.
- teach coping skills.
- allow students to suggest modifications in the content of their learning, the process which they use to learn, and the product they produce to show their learning.
- clearly communicate criteria and parameters to avoid students taking unacceptable risks or creative detours.

Adapted from the *Nebraska K-12 Foreign Language Frameworks*, 1996, as cited in the *New Jersey World Curriculum Framework*, 1999.

Developing Intercultural Competence

Intercultural competence is a combination of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that enable individuals to communicate and interact across cultural boundaries. In this course these include the skills of finding information about English-speaking cultures, interpreting it in order to understand the beliefs, traditions, and cultural values of the English-speaking world as they impact on interpersonal communication, literature, the academic environment, and society in general, relating one's own culture to the cultures of English speaking peoples, and interacting with members of these cultures. In the process of developing these skills, language learners will acquire knowledge of various aspects of these cultures, a heightened awareness of their own, as well as knowledge of the processes of interaction between the two cultures. They will also work towards an attitude of increased openness, curiosity, and willingness to look at the world from the point of view of others.

Culture in this program is broadly defined as the general context and way of life, the behaviours and beliefs of a community of people whose history, geography, institutions, and commonalities are distinct and distinguish them to a greater or lesser degree from all other groups (Leblanc 44). The historical and contemporary elements of the culture from which the content is drawn may include

- historical and contemporary events
- significant individuals
- emblems or markers of national identity such as myths, cultural products, significant sites, and events in the collective memory
- public institutions and organizational cultures
- geographical space (regions, landmarks, borders, climate)
- social distinctions
- conventions of behaviour
- beliefs, taboos, perceptions, and perspectives

Choices about which elements to include should reflect the importance of the element within the culture, and the interests and developmental level of the students.

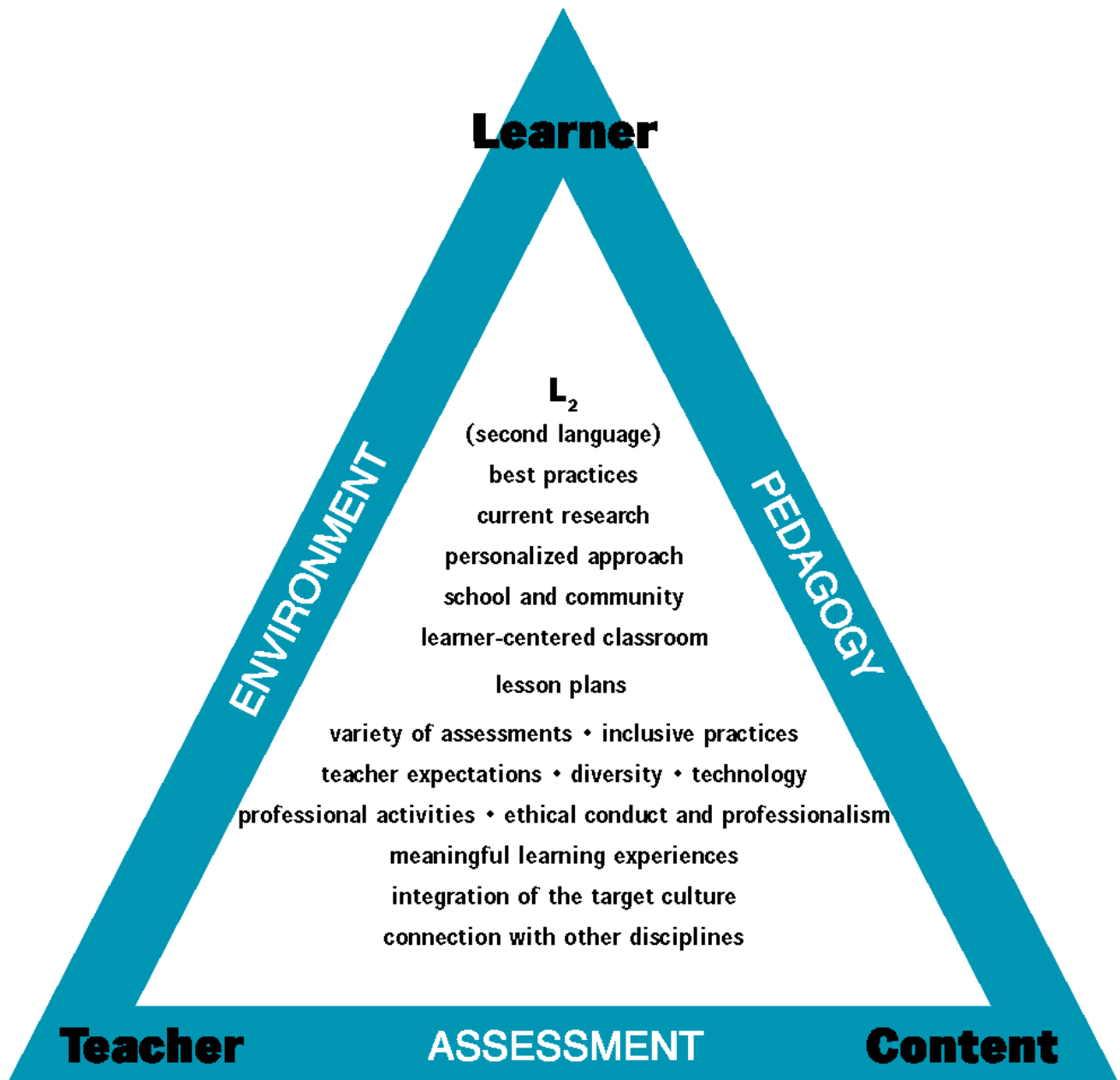
Although cultures exert pressure on their members to conform to a variety of norms, most cultures are not homogeneous. Within each one, there are groups of people who have beliefs, values, and practices that are different from the majority or mainstream culture. These differences may be based on religion, national or ethnic origin, social class, race, or colour. Integral to this course is the provision for students to explore and consider the English-speaking culture within a Canadian and Manitoba context.

The development of intercultural competence can take place in three contexts: in the classroom, as fieldwork, or as an independent experience. In the classroom, activities are planned and structured by the teacher and usually take the form of a rehearsal for interaction in real time. In the classroom, students have the opportunity for discovery and analysis of the culture along with reflection on their learning without the pressure of real time. In other words, they do not have to respond immediately. In fieldwork, activities are still planned and structured, but the interaction is now in real time. Independent experiences are those carried out by students outside of the structure of the course.

ESL for Academic Success: The Critical Elements

As the preceding discussion demonstrates, there are many factors and aspects of teaching and learning that must be considered in developing an effective instructional program and classroom. We can conceptualize this as being the interplay of six elements: learner, teacher, course content, learning environment, pedagogy, and assessment. See the following page for a diagram of the critical elements that are the basis for this course.

ESL for Academic Success: The Critical Elements



Adapted from the *Nebraska K-12 Foreign Language Frameworks*, 1996, as cited in the *New Jersey World Curriculum Framework*, 1999.

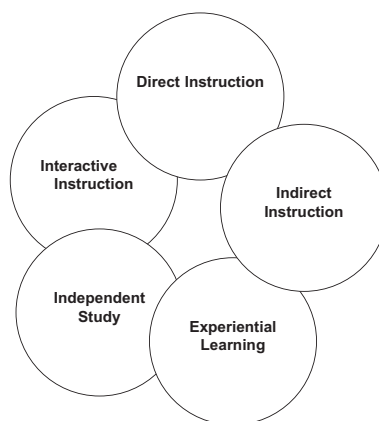
Instructional Strategies in the ESL Classroom

Effective teachers know they are teaching students as well as content. They also know that, in every class, there will be a diversity of students, each of which will bring to the activity and environment different perceptions, prior knowledge, attitudes, and learning styles. It is the teacher's responsibility to make use of a variety of instructional approaches to ensure that the various needs of all types of students are being met.

Decision-making regarding instructional strategies requires teachers to focus on curriculum, the prior experiences and knowledge of students, learner interests, student learning styles, and the developmental levels of the learner. Such decision-making relies on ongoing student assessment that is linked to learning objectives and processes.

The following diagram shows the five instructional strategies that are most effective in developing communicative competence in second language classrooms for students at various stages of second or additional language learning. Note that some strategies are more appropriate for beginning ESL students. In selecting methods to incorporate into a teacher's repertoire or in a specific classroom setting, teachers should consider the developmental level of the students and the appropriateness of the method in the context of the learning situation or student learning outcomes.

The strategies have been grouped according to the categories outlined in *Instructional Approaches: A Framework for Professional Practice* (Saskatchewan Education, available online at www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/docs/policy/approach/index.html). A more detailed description of some of these strategies follows.



Direct Instruction

Direct instruction is highly teacher-directed and is historically one of the strategies most commonly used. It is used for providing information or developing step-by-step skills. This strategy works well for introducing other teaching methods or actively involving students in knowledge construction.

Direct instruction is usually deductive; that is, the rule or generalization is presented and then illustrated with examples. While this strategy may be considered easy to use, effective direct instruction is often more complex than it would first appear.

Indirect Instruction

Indirect instruction is mainly student-centred and seeks a high level of student involvement in observing, investigating, drawing inferences from data, or forming hypotheses. It takes advantage of students' interest and curiosity, often encouraging them to generate alternatives or solve problems. It is flexible, in that it frees students to explore diverse possibilities and reduces the fear associated with the possibility of giving incorrect answers. Indirect instruction also fosters creativity and the development of interpersonal skills and abilities.

Interactive Instruction

Interactive instruction relies heavily on discussion and sharing among participants. Discussion and sharing provide learners with opportunities to “react to the ideas, experience, insights, and knowledge of the teacher or of peer learners and to generate alternative ways of thinking and feeling” (Seaman and Fellenz 119). Students can learn from peers and teachers to develop social skills and abilities, to organize their thoughts, and to develop rational arguments. The interactive instruction strategy allows for a range of groupings and interactive methods.

Experiential Learning

Experiential learning is inductive, learner-centred, and activity-oriented. Personalized reflection about an experience and the formulation of plans to apply learning to other contexts are critical factors in effective experiential learning. The emphasis in experiential learning is on the process of learning, and not on the product. Experiential learning occurs when learners

- participate in an activity and critically look back on the activity to clarify learning and feelings
- draw useful insights from such analysis and put learning to work in new situations

Independent Study

Independent study refers to the range of instructional methods that are purposefully provided to foster the development of individual student initiative, self-reliance, and self-improvement. While independent study may be initiated by the student or teacher, the focus here will be on planned independent study by students under the guidance or supervision of a classroom teacher.

In addition, independent study can include learning in partnership with another individual or as part of a small group. Independent study encourages students to take responsibility for planning and pacing their own learning.

After deciding on appropriate instructional strategies, a teacher must make decisions regarding instructional methods. As is the case with strategies, the distinctions between methods are not always clear-cut, although they are categorized for the purpose of this document. The following checklist illustrates how various methods relate to the five broad categories of strategies. It should be noted that the methods appearing in the checklist are examples only, and are not intended to be inclusive of all instructional methods.

Instructional Methods Checklist

Direct Instruction

- Compare and Contrast
- Demonstration
- Didactic Questions
- Drill and Practice
- Guides for Listening, Reading, and Viewing
- Mini-lecture
- Read and Retell
- Structural Exercises

Indirect Instruction

- Author's Chair
- Case Studies
- Cloze Procedure
- Graphic Organizers
- Discussions
- Grammatical Problem Solving
- Reflective Discussions

Interactive Instruction

- Brainstorming
- Categorizing
- Circle of Knowledge
- Word Splash
- Graffiti
- Co-operative Learning
- Cultural Presentations
- Information Gap
- Dictogloss
- Interactive Language Tasks
- Language Experience

Interactive Instruction (continued)

- Learning Circle
- Surveys and Interviews
- Debate
- Town Hall
- Problem Solving

Experience Learning

- Field Trips
- Focused Imaging
- Games
- Role Play

Independent Study

- Computer-Assisted Instruction
- Logs and Journals
- Free Writing
- Personal Dictionaries
- Learning Contracts
- Research Projects

Direct Instruction Methods

Direct instruction methods are highly teacher-centred. They are often used in the following situations:

- daily, weekly, and monthly review
- presenting new material
- conducting guided practice
- providing feedback and correctives

Description of Instructional Methods

The following pages provide a brief overview of the instructional methods listed in the checklist.

Direct Instruction Methods

Compare and Contrast

This method involves looking for similarities and differences, for example, between an aspect of an English-speaking culture and the students' own culture.

Students

- observe details and develop criteria
- identify similarities
- search and sort out differences based on criteria
- summarize

The four components of compare and contrast, as listed above, can be used in assessment as criteria in the templates for anecdotal records, checklists, and rating scales.

Demonstration

This method refers to teacher activities and talk that show students how to complete a task. Demonstrations apply primarily to skills and processes, and are useful for helping students acquire procedural knowledge. Teachers might, for example, take students step by step through the writing process, or demonstrate a particular learning strategy.

Didactic Questions

These are questions that tend to be convergent (they tend to focus on one topic) and factual. They often begin with “who, what, where, when, and how.” The teacher is able to observe the degree of student acquisition of knowledge of content and process through this activity. A written assignment or an oral presentation or interview (live or taped) may be the ongoing student activity used for assessment. The teacher will record student progress using a rating scale, checklist, or anecdotal records.

Drill and Practice

This method refers to the structured, repetitive review of previously learned concepts to a predetermined level of mastery. It tends to focus on skills. Care should be taken to ensure that these exercises are directly related to the context in which the student will use the language being practised, and that they require the student to focus on the meaning as well as on the form.

Guides for Listening, Reading, and Viewing

Students' comprehension of a selection is guided and developed by teacher-prepared questions or graphic organizers. As students gain practice and confidence in using this method, the teacher will monitor or confer with small groups or individuals.

Mini-lecture

The mini-lecture is a one-way type of communication. It is an efficient way of providing a small amount of information in a short period of time. The purpose of a mini-lecture is to impart knowledge about an aspect of culture, for example, or a grammatical structure.

Mini-lectures are effective when they are

- 10–15 minutes in duration, and never longer than 20 minutes
- mixed with group discussion and demonstrations
- accomplished with such visual aids as overhead transparencies and posters

The most appropriate way of assessing understanding is a combination of test items such as essay, short answer, multiple choice, and true/false.

Read and Retell

This all-purpose method involves students retelling a passage in English as they remember it.

The teacher asks the students to read a passage. Students can be working together as a class, in small groups, in pairs, or working alone with the teacher. Then, the teacher asks the students to retell the passage as they remember it, either orally or in writing using English.

Read and retell is effective when it

- provides practice in a range of literacy skills in the target language including listening, speaking, reading, writing, interacting, comparing, matching, selecting, remembering, comprehending, and organizing the information
- provides an index of growth and development in a wide range of literacy learning
- provides opportunities to use the target language

Structural Exercises

Even at the advanced stage of ESL learning, students may benefit from **occasional** structural exercises that focus their attention on the form or structure of the language. Research has shown that students learn better from these kinds of exercises if there is a direct connection with their own productions. Structural exercises can take a variety of forms depending on the structures and vocabulary that need to be practised. Some examples are

- adding words or phrases to a short sentence
- taking words or phrases out of a long sentence
- substituting words or phrases for other ones in a sentence
- moving words or phrases around in a sentence
- changing elements of a sentence

Procedure: The basic procedure is similar for all types of exercises.

1. Begin with sentences taken from texts written by the students. Choose structures that are giving problems to a number of students.
2. Write the sentences on strips of paper and cut them up. When doing this for the first time with students, write on large strips so that the whole class can see what you are doing. Later, when students are able to do these exercises on their own or in small groups, the sentences can be written on smaller strips of paper. Have some blank strips of paper ready for new words.
3. Ask students for suggestions depending on the type of exercise you have chosen (add, take away, substitute, move, change, etc.). Analyze the new sentence that is formed, by asking questions such as, “Does this new sentence make sense?”, “How has the meaning changed?”, “Do we have to make any other changes so that the sentence is still grammatically correct?”
4. Repeat these steps a number of times as a whole group, then have students do the work individually or in small groups.
5. Students should have opportunities to use the same structures and vocabulary in their own speech or writing as soon as possible after doing the exercises.

Tips: The analysis and discussion that follow each change in the sentence is particularly important to make students aware of changes in the meaning. Exercises where students make changes to sentences without having to reflect on the meaning are not effective in teaching and reinforcing structures.

Language Development: Specific exercises can be devised to work on the most common errors that students make. For example, take sentences from the rough drafts of student writings, do appropriate structural exercises, and then have students correct their own productions. The repetition involved in doing the exercises helps to make common structures automatic for second language students.

Indirect Instruction Methods

Indirect instructional methods are student-centred. These methods are very effective when the instructional goals include

- thinking outcomes
- attitudes, values, or interpersonal outcomes
- process as well as product
- personalized understanding and long-term retention of concepts or generalizations
- lifelong learning capability

Author's Chair

During this procedure, students read aloud their written drafts or compositions to others. Listeners provide positive and constructive comments to the “author” to assist future writing efforts. Writing is usually shared with the entire class, but occasionally authors could read to small groups. One particular chair or area of the classroom may be designated for this activity.

Case Studies

Case studies are usually descriptions of real or imaginary situations that are either unresolved or have a controversial theme. They are used for group discussion and for the generation of ideas and solutions. Case studies are a useful strategy for looking at misunderstandings between people of different cultural groups. They can be used as individual assignments or as small group assignments. Discussion of what has been learned is a valuable follow-up to a case study approach.

Cloze Procedure

The cloze procedure is an open-ended method in which a selected word or phrase is eliminated from a written or oral sentence or paragraph.

The teacher eliminates a word or phrase from the sentence. Students complete the sentence with a word that “makes sense.” The teacher may select random words or a specific part of speech. This can be expanded to the more difficult task of finding a word that makes sense when only the initial letter of the word is provided.

Cloze is effective when it

- provides opportunities for creativity
- develops the use of precise vocabulary
- focuses on the use of precise and correct communication
- increases comprehension skills
- provides opportunities to use English

Procedure: The cloze procedure is most often used with written texts and is particularly effective if done with groups of students rather than individually.

1. Choose a written text (or write a text) appropriate to the students' level. Leave the first sentence untouched, then delete a number of words from the rest of the text, leaving the last sentence untouched as well. There are a number of ways of deciding which words to delete:
 - delete every seventh word (fewer for beginner level students, more for more advanced students)
 - delete key words related to the topic of the sentence
 - delete words that have a particular grammatical function (such as all the adjectives, or all the pronouns)

Replace the words with blanks of equal length so that there is no clue as to the length of the words that have been deleted.

2. Ask the students to read the text and try to fill in the missing words. They can use any clues they can find in the text, or any knowledge they have of the topic or the language to try to discover what the missing words might be. The text must make sense when it is complete.
3. Ask the students to explain why they think a particular word fits the blank in the sentence. If there is more than one suggestion, the students can discuss their reasons for each choice and decide which is the best. The sharing of ideas and interpretation strategies is an important aspect of this instructional method.

Tips: If the students have never done this kind of exercise before, do several together with the whole class before having them work independently in small groups. Model the process of looking for clues in the text by “thinking aloud” as you go through the text with the students.

The object of the activity is not necessarily to find the original word. If the students are able to fill the blank with a word that makes sense and fits the sentence grammatically, it does not need to be the word originally in the text.

Make a list of the strategies used to fill in the missing words and post it in the classroom. Add to the list as new strategies are introduced.

Applications: The cloze procedure can be used on the opening paragraphs of a longer text that the students will be reading to help them focus on key words for the reading and to encourage them to use their background knowledge of the topic to improve comprehension.

This procedure can also be used orally to encourage students to predict what is to come. While reading aloud, stop and have students listen carefully to predict the next word or phrase in the sentence.

The cloze procedure can also be employed to assess the students' use of a variety of interpretation strategies and their awareness of particular language patterns and structures.

Language Development: The cloze technique helps students become aware of interpretation strategies they are using and learn new strategies by listening to the explanations of their fellow classmates. It helps them learn to use the context and their prior knowledge to make intelligent guesses about unknown words they may encounter in their reading.

Graphic Organizers

Graphic organizers are visual representations of texts or groups of related ideas, words, or thoughts. They can take a variety of forms, some of which have a specific name, depending on what they are representing and how they will be used. Some examples are frames, mind maps, webs, concept or semantic maps, story maps, Venn diagrams, and flow charts.

The teacher provides a specific format for learning, recalling, and organizing linguistic or cultural concepts learned through English.

Graphic organizers are beneficial when they are used to

- help students visualize abstract concepts
- help learners organize ideas
- provide a visual format for study

Consequence Diagram/Decision Trees—A graphic organizer method in which students use diagrams or decision trees to illustrate real or possible outcomes of different target cultural actions or situations.

Students visually depict outcomes for a given problem by charting various decisions and their possible consequences.

Consequence diagrams/decision trees are effective tools to

- help in transferring English-language learning to application
- aid in predicting with accuracy
- develop the ability to identify the causes and effects of decisions
- aid in clarifying positive and negative statements

Webbing—A graphic organizer method that provides a visual picture of how target language words or phrases connect to a content-based or cultural topic.

The teacher lists a topic and builds a web-like structure of target language words or phrases that students call out as being connected to a topic. Students can also use this method individually in planning, writing, or in studying for a test.

Webbing is an effective tool to

- provide opportunities for the visual learner to “recall” the connections for later use
- help students use and share their prior linguistic knowledge
- help students identify patterns of information

Concept Mapping—A graphic organizer method that shows the relationships among concepts. Usually the concepts are circled and the relationships are shown by connecting lines with short explanations in English or graphical depictions of the objects or concepts.

The teacher selects a main idea. Using English, the teacher and students then identify a set of concepts associated with a main idea. Concepts are ranked in related groups from most general to most specific. Related concepts are connected and the links labeled with words, pictures, or short phrases.

Concept mapping is an effective tool to

- help students visualize how ideas are connected, and understand linguistic relationships and how knowledge is organized
- improve oral communication, comprehension, and problem-solving skills

K-W-L (Know-Want to Know-Learned)—An introductory method that provides a structure for recalling what students know regarding a target language or cultural topic, noting what students want to know, and finally listing what has been learned and is yet to be learned.

Before engaging in an activity, reading a chapter, listening to a lecture, or watching a film or presentation, the teacher lists on the board under the heading *What We Know* all the information students know or think they know about a topic. Then, the teacher lists all the information the students want to know about a topic under *What We Want to Know*.

While engaging in the planned activity, the students research and read about the topic, keeping in mind the information they had listed under *What We Want to Know*.

After completing the activity, the students confirm the accuracy of what was listed and identify what they learned, contrasting it with what they wanted to know. The teacher lists what the students learned under *What We Learned*.

K-W-L strategies are effective tools to

- build on prior knowledge
- develop predicting skills
- provide a structure for learning
- develop research skills
- develop communication skills in co-operative groups
- strengthen teamwork skills
- provide opportunities to use English reading, writing, listening, speaking, and viewing

Teachers may want to adapt K-W-L charts by adding a fourth column—“Where Do We Find It?”—referring to the information required. Students strengthen their “resourcing” skills that are critical to academic tasks.

Learning Log—A method to develop structured writing in English. An excellent follow-up to K-W-L.

During different stages of the language learning process, students respond in written form under three columns:

- What I Think
- What I Learned
- How My Thinking Has Changed

Learning logs are effective tools to

- bridge the gap between prior knowledge and new content
- provide a structure for translating target language concepts into written form

Venn Diagram—A graphic organizer method, derived from mathematics, for creating a visual analysis of information representing the similarities and differences among, for example, English language concepts or culture objects, events, animals, and people.

Using two overlapping circles, students list unique characteristics of two items or concepts (one in the left part of circle and one in the right); in the middle they list shared characteristics. More than two circles can be used for a more complex process.

Venn diagrams are effective tools to

- help students organize ideas and course concepts
- help students develop a plan for writing
- allow students to focus on the similarities and differences within and among languages and cultures
- develop the ability to draw conclusions and synthesize
- stimulate higher cognitive thinking skills

Flowchart—A graphic organizer method used to depict a sequence of events, actions, roles, or decisions.

Students structure a sequential flow of events, actions, roles, or decisions graphically on paper.

Flowcharts are effective tools to

- foster logical and sequential thinking
- focus on cultural connections
- develop the ability to identify details and specific points
- develop organizational skills
- aid in planning
- provide an outline for writing in the target language

T-Chart

Purpose: clarify central concepts or ideas; to collect specific examples for an idea or behaviour

Thinking Skills: specifying, categorizing

How to use: In the Looks Like column, list all the behaviours or observable characteristics related to a topic; in the Sounds Like column, list all the sounds or audible characteristics, including possible verbal messages.

Procedure: When introducing graphic organizers for the first time, model their use in a simple situation, going step by step through the process, explaining what you are doing at each step and why. Use the same graphic organizer on several occasions, getting more and more student input each time. As students gain more understanding and skill, they can be given more opportunity for discussion about how different elements should be represented and what they should be linked to. Once students are accustomed to using a particular type of graphic organizer, they can begin to use it independently in small groups. The form of familiar graphic organizers can be posted in the classroom as a resource for students as they work.

Second language learners may need some preparation before working on a graphic organizer to build their vocabulary on the topic. They might watch a short film, read a text (or listen to someone else read), or brainstorm ideas and categorize them. Throughout the preparatory activity and the development of the graphic organizer, the teacher can supply any vocabulary that the students are lacking.

Tips: Use different colours and shapes to add more meaning to the graphic organizer.

Prepare labels of the words associated with a theme or topic and have students organize them, showing the connections they think are important. When they are happy with their arrangement, they can glue the labels on a large sheet of paper or attach them to a bulletin board with tacks or staples.

Applications: People construct knowledge based on what they already know. Graphic organizers are used to organize and represent knowledge, and help the learner construct new meanings in a subject. The goal of this method is not to find the “right answer” or the “correct” graphic organizer. It is to improve understanding of texts or to explore how ideas or words relate to each other.

Understanding can be expanded by discussing different visual representations and seeing how others’ interpretation is different from one’s own.

Different kinds of graphic organizers can be used to represent expository texts. The most common structures for these kinds of texts are

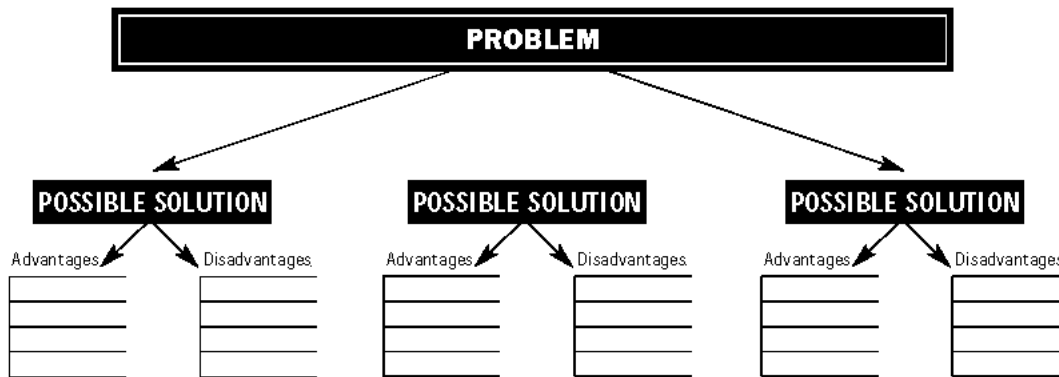
- description
- enumeration or listing
- comparison and contrast
- cause and effect
- problem and solution

At the same time as students are made aware of how these different kinds of texts are organized, they can learn the key words and phrases used to structure the texts. A Venn diagram is an example of a graphic organizer for comparison and contrast. Differences are recorded in the outer parts of the circles, similarities in the area where they overlap.

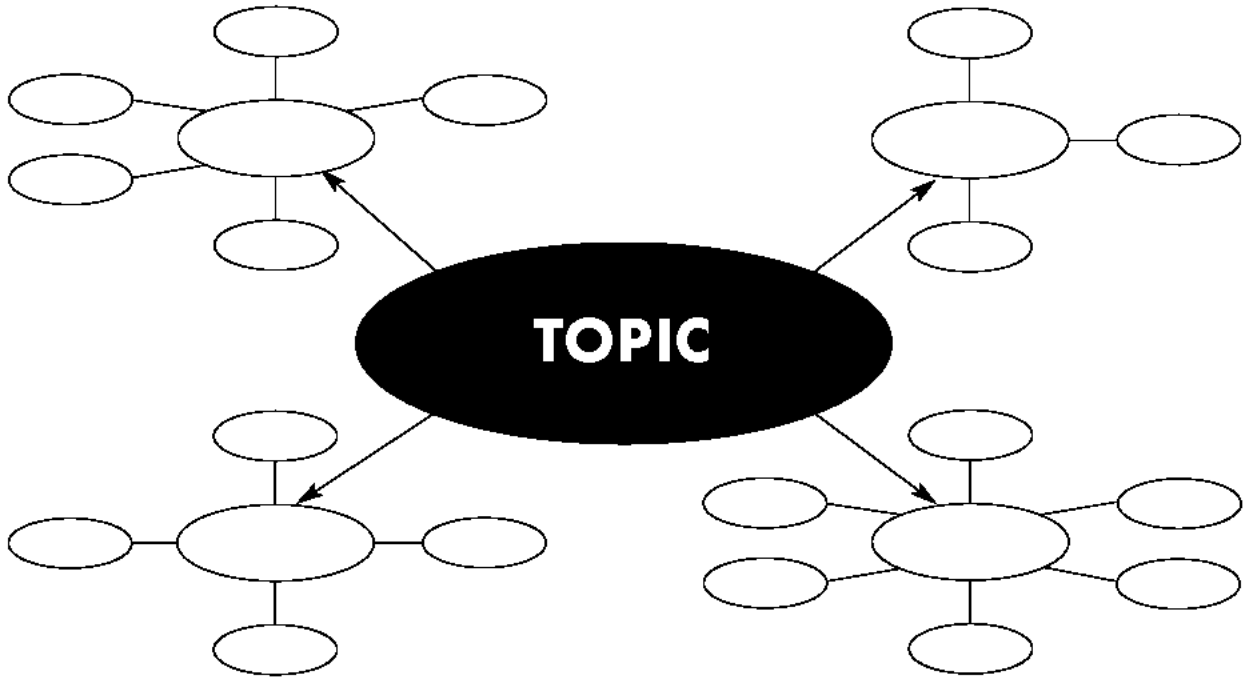
Language Development: Graphic organizers are used for a variety of purposes in the second language classroom. They can help students

- organize information they have heard, viewed, or read
- remember vocabulary by making connections with words or phrases they already know
- plan an oral or a written text
- better understand the way texts of different types are structured and organized
- prepare for a listening, reading, or viewing activity by anticipating what they might hear or see
- learn new concepts by relating them to what they already know
- represent what they know about a topic

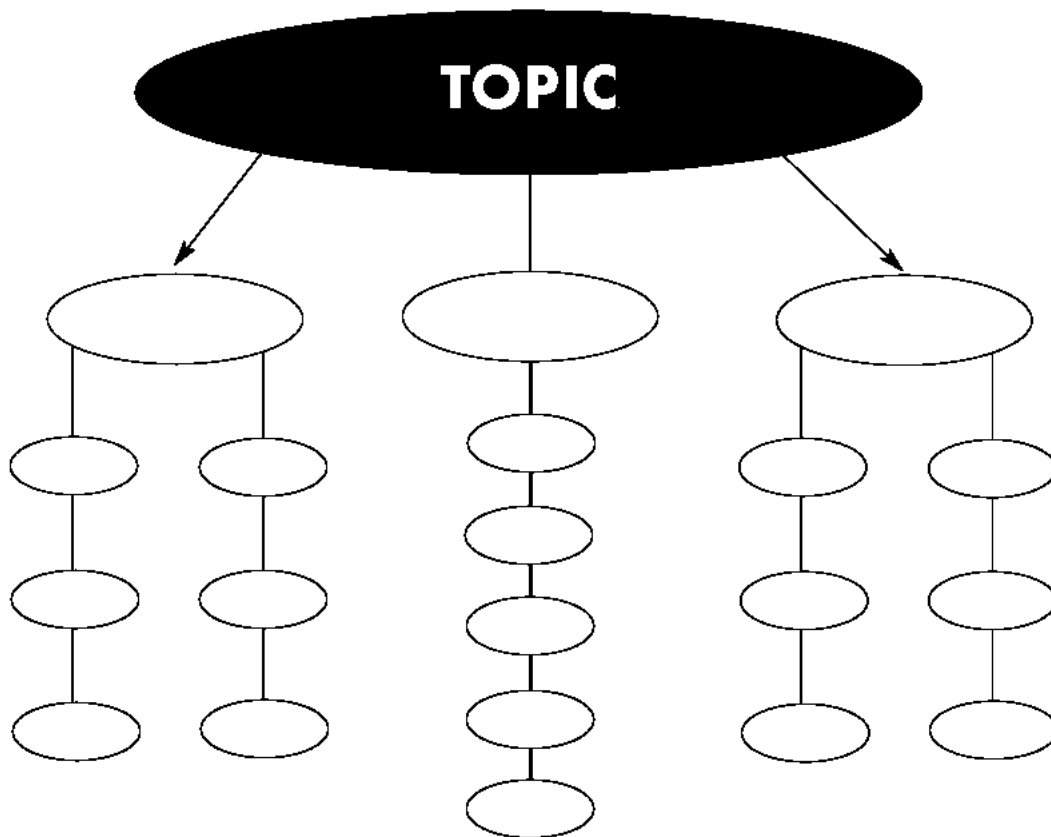
Example of a Diagram/Decision Tree for Problem-Solving



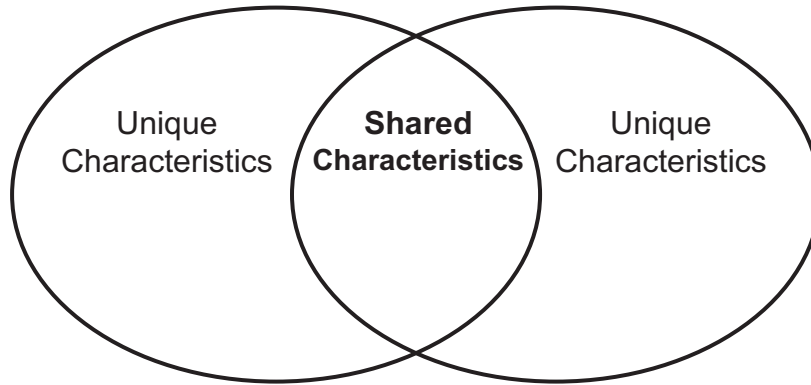
Example of a Web



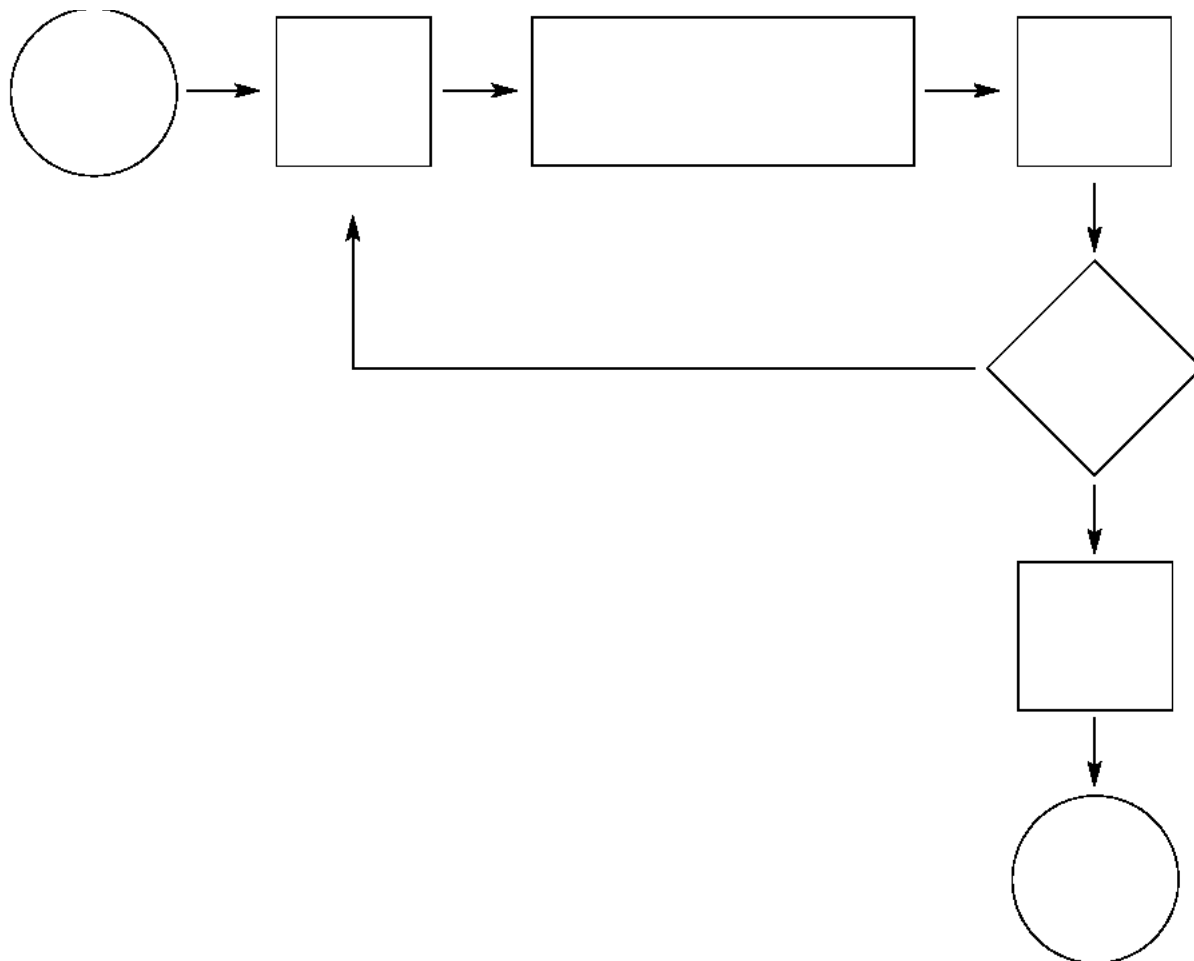
Example of a Concept Map



Example of a Venn Diagram



Example of a Flowchart



Example of a T-Chart

| | |
|----------------------------|---------------------|
| Name(s) _____ Topic: _____ | |
| T-CHART | |
| Title: _____ | |
| <i>Looks like:</i> | <i>Sounds like:</i> |
| | |

Discussions

A discussion is an oral exploration of a topic, object, concept, or experience. All learners need frequent opportunities to generate and share their questions and ideas in small and whole class settings. Teachers who encourage and accept students' questions and comments without judgment, and clarify understandings by paraphrasing difficult terms, motivate students' interest in using the English language and the exchange of ideas.

The teacher or student initiates the discussion by asking a question that requires students to reflect upon and interpret films, experiences, stories, or illustrations. As students question and recreate information and events in a film or story, they clarify their thoughts and feelings. The questions posed should encourage students to relate text content to life experiences and to other text. Interpretations will vary, but such variances demonstrate that differences of opinion are valuable.

Grammatical Problem Solving

Definition

A method often used to teach grammar is to present students with a rule, provide them with examples, and then have them do exercises to determine if they understand the rule and to help them learn through repetitive drill. Grammatical problem solving involves having students use deductive reasoning to discover rules and understand grammatical concepts on their own. Instead of working from the rule to the examples, students work from the examples to the rule.

Procedure

1. Provide students with a number of examples that illustrate a particular grammar rule that you want them to learn. Ask them to look at the examples and try to determine what the rule might be. It is useful for students to work in pairs or small groups, and discuss their reasoning.
2. If their first attempt at deducing the rule is not successful, provide more examples that are designed to lead them in the right direction. It is also helpful to provide contrasting examples to guide the thinking of students. Continue in this way until they have discovered what the rule is.
3. Once students have figured out the rule, ask them to provide their own examples to check for understanding.

Tips: It is not important that students use the proper grammatical terminology as long as they are able to explain what they mean. Often if students formulate the rule in their own words, they will be able to remember it better.

Start with a fairly simple rule if students are not used to this method. It may take some practice for them to be able to formulate rules of their own.

Applications: This method can be used to teach almost any language rule.

Language Development: Having students discover or deduce the rule themselves usually leads to a better understanding. It also develops their ability to learn language independently. Being able to deduce rules from multiple examples is an effective language learning strategy.

Reflective Discussions

Reflective discussions encourage students to think and talk about what they have observed, heard, or read.

Reflective Thinking—A method in which students reflect on what was learned after a lesson is finished, either orally or in written form.

Two possible approaches to reflective thinking are (1) students can write in a journal in their own words: the concept learned, comments on the learning process, questions, and interest in further exploration; (2) students can answer an oral questionnaire addressing such questions as “Why did you study this? Can you relate it to real life?”

Reflective thinking strategy is an effective tool to

- help students assimilate what they have learned
- help students connect concepts to make ideas more meaningful

- foster additional opportunities to use the target language in a meaningful setting

Interactive Instruction Methods

Interactive instruction methods employ groups of learners. Before the group members get to work, it is important for them to be aware of what they are to accomplish, how much time they have, and what the recording or reporting procedures are.

Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a strategy for eliciting ideas from a group and communicating them in English in oral or written form.

Students contribute ideas related to a topic. All contributions are accepted without initial comment. After the list of ideas is finalized, students categorize, prioritize, and defend selections.

Brainstorming is an effective tool to

- reveal background information and knowledge of a topic
- disclose misconceptions
- help students relate existing knowledge to content
- strengthen English communication skills
- stimulate creative thinking

Brainstorming is a technique for producing the greatest possible number of ideas around a question or a topic. Originally developed to stimulate creativity, this technique is now commonly used in classrooms to encourage students to explore what they know or want to know about a topic.

Brainstorming is most effective when

- all statements are accepted
- quantity rather than quality is emphasized
- no criticism is given, anything goes (no matter how outrageous or far-fetched)
- no discussion or judgments except for clarification purposes
- people can build on other ideas
- a fixed time is allocated

Once ideas have been generated, they can be combined or ordered.

Teachers may decide to assess brainstorming when it is used in the context of cooperative learning groups. Anecdotal records may be the preferred method of recording data.

Brainstorming is particularly useful in the following situations:

- to explore possible solutions to a problem
- to get ideas for a writing project
- to explore what students know about a topic
- to explore questions or topics for further research

This technique may not seem well suited to the second language classroom at first, since students will sometimes have difficulty expressing their ideas in the second language. It is, however, very useful for developing vocabulary and structures at the beginning of a unit. Here are a few ideas to make it more successful in second language classrooms:

- Before using brainstorming on a topic that is unfamiliar to students, have them read a text, view a film, or do an activity that will introduce them to some of the vocabulary and expressions they will need.
- Encourage students to use gestures, illustrations, and paraphrasing if they cannot think of the exact word they need.
- If students use English to express their idea, give them the equivalent word or expression in the second language and write it down with the other ideas, adding a drawing or brief explanation so that they can remember what it means.
- If you cannot think of the word, do not be afraid to admit it and use a dictionary to find the correct term or spelling.

Categorizing

Categorizing involves grouping objects or ideas according to criteria that describe common features or the relationships among all members of that group.

This procedure enables students to see patterns and connections; it develops students' abilities to manage or organize information. Categorizing is often used to organize the information produced during a brainstorming activity.

Assessment might include monitoring students' ability to understand relationships among items, categorize items using more than one criteria or category, and categorize items independently.

Circle of Knowledge

This method involves each student in thinking and discussing a topic with peers before sharing ideas with a large group. Students take turns going around the circle. The circle of knowledge method is used in the same manner as reflective discussion.

Word Splashes

A word splash is a collection of words about a topic. These words are displayed in a random arrangement in a variety of fonts, shapes, and colours. A word splash is a strategy that can be used

- a) as an activation strategy to help students
 - focus on a new topic
 - activate and share prior knowledge
 - develop prediction skills
 - develop inference skills
- b) as a strategy to summarize what has been learned

Steps in using the word splash as a pre-reading, pre-viewing, or listening activity:

1. The teacher selects 15-20 terms from the material to be viewed, read, or listened to and writes them on chart paper, the board, or an overhead. The terms should not be new to the students, as they must use them to predict the content of an article, video, or story. The terms should be a combination of verbs, adjectives, and nouns.
2. Referring to the terms, students write point-form notes for each, trying to predict what each has to do with what they will be viewing, hearing, or reading. Together, these terms should help students predict the topic of the lesson.
3. When students have completed their lists they share them with their classmates, pointing out one detail they are sure is correct and one they are unsure about.
4. Finally, the teacher distributes the reading to be read individually, in pairs, or in groups. If the activity is a listening activity, the teacher reads the piece aloud. If it is a video clip or movie, the students view the piece. As the students proceed with the activity, they should stop periodically to check their predictions.

To use as culminating activity:

1. Students decide what terms are most important in describing the information they have learned in the activity they have completed. They should choose a variety of nouns, verbs, and adjectives.
2. Individually or in groups, students create a word splash to summarize the important ideas they have learned.
3. Students' word splashes can be creative in terms of colours, shapes, fonts, etc, that reflect the meaning or importance of the term or idea about which they are writing.
4. The word splashes are shared in pairs or as a class, with the other students commenting on why the student presenting his or her word splash may have chosen the terms or ideas he or she has chosen. They may also comment on the method of presenting the terms.

Graffiti

Graffiti is a type of co-operative brainstorming that allows students to indicate their prior knowledge, opinions, and creative thinking on a topic. It allows students to get out of their seats, move around, and interact. Using poster-size papers and coloured markers, students write or draw their ideas about a topic in graffiti form. When the first round of ideas is complete, students write one or two comments or questions in response to the first ones. After students have written all their ideas, the teacher uses the posters as the basis of discussion. Graffiti posters are a good method for introducing or reviewing a topic.

Co-operative Learning

Co-operative learning is a method in which students work together in small groups to achieve a common goal, while communicating in English. Many learning situations and tasks in North American classrooms require extensive co-operative work. ESL students often need to learn and use effective group process

skills and the **conversational gambits** that facilitate interaction. Co-operative learning involves more than simply putting students into work or study groups. Teachers promote individual responsibility and positive group interdependence by making sure that each group member is responsible for a given task. Co-operative learning can be enhanced when group members have diverse abilities and backgrounds.

After organizing students into groups, the teacher thoroughly explains a task to be accomplished within a timeframe. The teacher facilitates the selection of individual roles within the group and monitors the groups, intervening only when necessary, to support students working together successfully and accomplishing the task.

Co-operative learning is an effective tool to

- foster interdependence and pursuit of mutual goals and rewards
- develop leadership skills
- increase the opportunities to use English in authentic, communicative situations
- increase participation of shyer students
- produce higher levels of student achievement, thus increasing self-esteem
- foster respect for diverse abilities and perspectives

Co-operative learning embraces a number of interactive instruction methods that involve students working in small groups to complete a task or project. The task is structured in such a way that involvement of each group member contributes to completion of the task. Success is based on the performance of the group rather than on the performance of individual group members.

Co-operative learning stresses interdependence and promotes co-operation rather than competition. Establishing and maintaining co-operative group norms develops the concept of a community of learners. Co-operative learning activities are carefully structured to include five basic elements:

Positive Interdependence: Each member of the group is concerned about the performance of other group members as well as their own. All individuals must succeed for the group to succeed.

Individual Accountability: Each member of the group is responsible for the work of the group.

Face-to-face Interaction: Students work in environments that facilitate communication and co-operation.

Social Skills: Students are directly taught the human interaction skills that enable groups to function effectively.

Group Processing: Group members have opportunities to receive feedback on how their group has been functioning and make plans to improve.

Co-operative learning activities can be structured in many ways (see applications below), but these five elements should be present in some form or other.

Procedure

1. **Positive interdependence** can be structured into group activities in a number of ways:
 - Students have a common goal (e.g., every member must contribute to making a single product or all members of the group must improve their score on a quiz).
 - Students receive the same reward for completing the task (e.g., their group project is displayed in the school or each group member receives bonus points to add to their individual score).
 - Students share one set of materials or information (e.g., the group gets one large sheet of paper, one set of coloured pencils, one ruler, and one eraser to produce a map).
 - Each member of the group is assigned a complementary and interconnected role (e.g., in a group of two, one person cuts and the other glues; or in a group of four, students share the roles of reader, writer, timekeeper, and noise monitor). Direct teaching of different roles within the group may be necessary. Rotate the roles so that all students have the opportunity to develop their skills in different roles.
 - Each member of the group is responsible for carrying out one step of an overall task that needs to be done in step-by-step order (e.g., when preparing a dish, one group member is responsible for gathering ingredients, another for measuring, another for mixing; or when producing the final copy of a letter, one student checks the spelling, another checks the grammar, another checks the page layout, and another checks for capitalization and punctuation).
 - Students work together against an outside force or constraint (e.g., team members try to beat their previous team score on a quiz or they try to find the most words related to food in a set period of time).
 - Members of the group choose a group name, motto, logo, flag, song, or chant to help establish a feeling of identification with the group.
2. **Individual accountability** is created when any member of the group may be called upon to present the work of the group, defend a decision taken by the group, or answer questions about the project the group has been working on.
3. **Face-to-face interaction** is facilitated when the conditions of work allow the students to work together easily. They can, for example, be grouped around a small table if they need a work surface, or on chairs in a circle if they are just talking. Sometimes pulling desks together means that students are too far apart to talk in soft voices and still be heard by each other.
4. **Learning social skills** is essential if co-operative learning activities are to work well. There are basically two kinds of co-operative skills, those which students use to complete the task (e.g., asking questions, listening actively, staying on task), and those they use to build and maintain the working relationship of the group (e.g., disagreeing in an agreeable way, encouraging others, keeping things calm). Students need to be taught specific skills before they begin their group activity:

- Decide which skills to work on. Concentrate on one or two at a time, depending on the age of the students and their previous experience in co-operative groups.
 - Help students understand why they are learning the skill, what the skill is (by modelling it, for example), how they can practise it, how well they use the skill, and how they can improve.
 - Students learning a second language, in particular, need to be taught specific vocabulary and structures for working in groups. For this reason, some of the specific learning outcomes deal with language functions involved in managing group actions.
 - Students need a variety of opportunities to practise the skill. This encourages them to transfer the skill to new situations.
 - In addition to providing feedback yourself, ensure that students evaluate their use of the skill both individually and as a group.
 - Assessment of the social skill should be part of the overall assessment of the activity.
 - Monitoring the groups as they work will show which co-operative skills are lacking and might become the focus in future lessons.
5. **Group processing** usually takes place at the end of the activity. Students discuss how well their group is functioning and how they may improve the group's effectiveness. This self-assessment may be done individually (e.g., "How did I contribute to the effectiveness of the group?") as well as in the group, and then shared with the rest of the class. Alternatively, one of the roles assigned in the group can be to monitor the use of a specific skill and report back to the group.

The kinds of roles assigned to group members depend on the task they are doing and on the skills they have already developed. Individual role cards, outlining the specific behaviours of each role, may be prepared as references for students while working in groups. Some examples of general roles are facilitator, recorder, encourager, observer, and summarizer. Some examples of roles that might be needed for specific tasks are materials handler, timekeeper, reader, and summarizer.

Tips: If students have little experience working in co-operative groups, start small with groups of two or three students. As they gain more experience and skill, they will be able to handle larger groups. The size of the group will also depend on the nature of the task.

When introducing co-operative learning, begin with a clear, concise task, simple roles, and basic social skills like talking with quiet voices.

It is usually better to group students with different levels of ability, different aptitudes, or different backgrounds. Each student's strong points will be different and each will be able to make a contribution to the group as well as learn from the others.

Students can stay in the same group for varying amounts of time, sometimes for only a few minutes, sometimes for a whole unit if they are working together on a particular task.

The teacher's role while groups are working is to observe student progress, record observations to provide feedback, and to intervene if necessary. When intervening, try to find ways to turn the problem back to the group members for a solution.

Students need time, practise, and explicit instruction to become good at working together co-operatively. Do not expect students to develop interpersonal skills automatically.

Applications

1. Informal Groups

Informal groups are usually small (two or three students) and short-term (a single activity or class). Groups can be formed very quickly by asking students to turn to their neighbour and do something together for a few minutes. Some examples of what students can do in informal groups are

- guided exercises such as practising dialogues and cloze activities
- brainstorming or coming up with lists of words, ideas, and so on
- expressing a personal opinion on a film, a song, a current event
- giving a brief report on strategies they have been trying, Internet sites they have visited, and so on

2. Home Groups

Home groups are often small as well, but are usually maintained for a long period of time, often throughout the whole course. It is important that members of a home group feel at ease with each other since they will be working together over an extended period of time. Students can be asked to name three or four other students they would like to work with and these suggestions can be used to constitute the home groups.

A home group provides ongoing support, both socially and academically, for every member of the group. Learning a second language can be stressful for some students, but they will learn better if they are relaxed and confident.

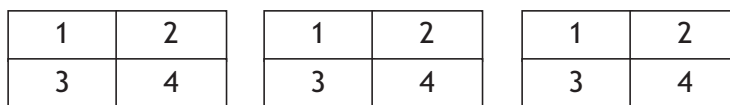
Home groups can provide support to students in a number of ways:

- checking homework
- correcting notes
- studying for exams
- discussing strategies
- exchanging information about opportunities for using the language outside the classroom
- discussing problems

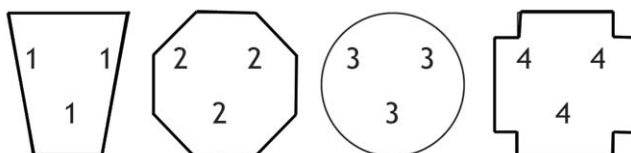
3. Jigsaw

The jigsaw method is a way of organizing co-operative learning groups to share the workload on larger projects. It involves several steps and two different kinds of groups.

- The students start in their home group or base group. The teacher explains how the project will be organized, outlines what the students’ responsibilities are, teaches the social skills that will be worked on throughout the project, discusses assessment, and so on. Within the home groups, each student accepts to work on a particular aspect of the project, to become the “expert” on that part of the project for their group.



- Students from each home group who will be the “expert” for their group on the same topic come together to form expert groups. In their expert groups, they work on the particular aspect of the project they are responsible for, and decide how they will present this or teach it to the other members of their home group.



- Once students have finished the work in their expert groups, they return to their home groups where they use what they have learned in their project, teach it to the others in the group, and remain the “expert” for their group on this particular topic.
- The jigsaw technique is particularly useful for some of the tasks that students will be doing in a task-based language learning class.

Language Development: The language needed to work effectively in small groups can become an important component of a second language class, provided the time is taken to explicitly teach the vocabulary and structures necessary.

It is important to make clear to students that communicating in English is an expectation of their work in co-operative groups. Making it part of the assessment, assigning a language monitor as one of the roles, and teaching ways of helping each other are different ways of doing this.

Information Gap

In an information gap activity, each person has certain information that must be shared with others in order to solve a problem, gather information, or make decisions.

Questions asked in second language classes are often “display” questions. In other words, the person asking the question already knows the answer and is, in effect, simply prompting his or her partner to demonstrate that they know the vocabulary in question. No real communication takes place. Information gap activities involve a real exchange of information, although the situation might be an artificial one.

Information gap activities are often done in pairs, although they can be teacher-

led or involve groups of students.

Procedure

Information gap activities can be highly structured or fairly open-ended. In either case, they are most often used for reinforcement of previously learned vocabulary and structures.

- Explain the activity to the students. Make sure they understand that they cannot show the information to their partner. They must communicate verbally.
- If necessary, review the vocabulary and structures that will be needed to complete the activity.
- Once students have completed the activity, they can assess the accuracy of their communication by comparing the information they have.

Tips: When preparing the information gap activity, try to make the situation as realistic as possible so that the questions asked and the answers given are the same as or similar to what might happen in real-life situations.

Make sure that the students have a purpose for exchanging information (e.g., a task to complete, a puzzle to solve, or a decision to make).

The first time you involve students in information gap activities, demonstrate in front of the whole class so that students understand that they cannot just show their information to their partner.

Applications: Information gap activities can be organized in many different ways.

Communication gap activities can also involve groups of students:

- Students are asked to write a short text (e.g., a description of a family member). After they have gone through the usual process of drafting, writing, and editing, and the teacher has corrected the text, they rewrite the text with some information left out (e.g., Francisco has blue eyes and _____ hair). Other students read the altered text and ask questions to fill in the missing information.
- Jigsaw activities are also information gap activities. For example, each student in the home group is given part of a text on the topic of the unit. The information in the text will usually be needed to complete a specific task. Together they have the whole text, but no single student has all the information. Students regroup with other students from different home groups who have the same part of the text, and they work together to understand all the information. They then return to their home group to share the information with the others and complete the task together.

Teacher-led information gap activities can involve the teacher asking questions for which he or she does not already know the answer.

Language Development: Information gap activities provide students with opportunities to practise vocabulary and grammar structures in more interesting ways. Motivation is usually high because forms and functions are used for a real, although contrived, exchange of information.

Dictogloss Strategy

In this co-operative listening activity, students reconstruct a text that has been read aloud in class. The activity can introduce students to key words at the beginning of a topic, help focus their attention on meaning while listening, and help them to develop listening strategies. As the chosen short text (print, audio, or video) is read or played, students work in small groups to write down key words, and then attempt to recreate the text. Groups work to edit and proofread their texts before presenting them to the class for comparison with the original, justifying any differences in versions.

Interactive Language Tasks

In interactive language tasks, at least two students work together to accomplish a meaningful English language activity.

The teacher organizes the class into small groups or pairs that then perform a specific task using language. Examples of tasks include finding differences and similarities, identifying objects or persons, arranging things, giving and following directions, interviewing, surveying, choosing, explaining, and solving problems.

Interactive language tasks are effective tools to

- foster interdependence and pursuit of mutual goals
- develop communication skills
- strengthen listening skills
- provide opportunities to use the target language

Surveys and Interviews

Surveys and interviews are methods for gathering information and reporting.

Surveys and interviews are effective tools to

- foster connections between ideas
- develop the ability to interpret answers
- develop organizational and planning skills
- develop problem-solving skills
- provide opportunities to use the target language

In surveys, students collect information from a sample of people to determine the frequency of particular responses. They then analyze the data and prepare a report on the results. Using surveys as an instructional method can also develop students' numeracy as well as their creative and critical thinking.

In interviews, students prepare a set of questions and a format for the interview. After conducting the interview, students present their findings to the class.

Procedure: The first time students do a survey, it is helpful to go through the procedure at least once as a whole class. After they have more experience, they will be able to plan and carry out a survey in small groups.

There are basically four steps to a survey: planning, collecting the data, organizing and displaying the data, and summarizing and interpreting the data.

1. The planning stage involves deciding which questions to ask, formulating the questions, deciding whether the questions will be asked orally (interview) or in writing (questionnaire), choosing the sample of people to survey, and dividing up the work among the students involved. It is at this step that explicit teaching or review of structures for asking questions may be needed.
2. The survey is then carried out in the agreed way. Students can survey other students in the class or school, people in the community, or even people in another community via email or telephone.
3. Once the data has been collected, it must be organized and displayed. The usual method for displaying survey results is some kind of graph. With a little planning in advance, a survey activity in the English class can be integrated with what students are learning in mathematics class. Looking at a variety of different kinds of graphs and interpreting them will provide students with examples, ideas, and models of language to use.
4. Interpreting the findings of a simple factual survey is relatively easy. However, if the survey has gathered information about opinions or values, there is much more room for interpretation. Students may present their findings orally or in writing. In either case, they may benefit from analyzing other reports of the findings of surveys such as might be found in newspapers or magazines.

Tips: The language for reporting results of surveys is somewhat different from ordinary conversation. Students need to see and analyze reports on survey results to discover typical ways of organizing texts of this type, typical sentence patterns, as well as some specialized vocabulary.

Applications: A survey can be carried out on almost any topic. The information gathered can be strictly factual (e.g., month and year of birth, number of people in the family), or it can be more subjective (e.g., likes and dislikes, opinions on a specific topic).

The kind of graph used to represent the results can vary with the age and level of mathematical understanding of the students.

Language Development: Surveys are useful for language development because they provide an opportunity for repetition in an activity where there is a focus on meaning and a purpose. They also provide a natural context for asking questions, using numbers, and making comparisons. If graphs or other visual representations of the results are prepared by students, learning outcomes for viewing and representing can also be achieved.

Debate

A debate is a discussion in which arguments are presented for and against a statement or resolution. The debate topic begins with “Be it resolved that...” Debates can take place between two people or two teams, or can involve an entire class. One side defends the resolution by taking the affirmative view, while the other side (the opposition) argues against the resolution.

Problem Solving

Problem solving is a learning method in which students apply knowledge to solve problems.

The students discover a problem; problems can be constructed by the teacher or can be real-world problems suggested by the students. The students define the problem, ask a question about the problem, then define the characteristics of possible solutions, which they research. They choose a promising solution that best fits the criteria stated in the definition of solutions, and then test the solution. Finally, they determine if the problem has been solved.

Problem solving is an effective tool to

- allow students to discover relationships that may be completely new to them
- adapt easily for all grade levels and special needs students
- develop the ability to construct new ideas and concepts from previously learned information, skills, and strategies
- promote communicative competence in English

Independent Study

Students should be able to continue to learn after they have left the structured learning environment of the school. If the knowledge, abilities, attitudes, and processes associated with independent learning are to be acquired, they must be taught and enough time must be provided for students to practise.

Independent study is very flexible. It may be initiated by student or teacher; it can include learning in partnership with another individual or as part of a small group. It can be used as the major instructional strategy with the whole class, in combination with other strategies, or it can be used with one or more individuals while another strategy is used with the rest of the class.

It is important to assess the abilities students already possess. Specific skills and abilities may then be incorporated into assignments tailored to the capabilities of individual students.

Computer-Assisted Instruction

This method refers to any instructional program in which the computer performs, manages, or supports some or all of the teacher functions.

Logs and Journals

Logs and journals can be used as a way to hold private conversations in English with the teacher.

Students write on topics on a regular basis, and the teacher responds with oral or written advice, comments, and observations in a conversation. In the early stages of learning a language, students can begin by adding a few words and combining them with pictures.

Logs and journals are effective tools to

- develop communication and writing skills
- create a positive relationship between the teacher and the student
- increase student interest and participation
- allow the student to direct his or her own learning
- provide opportunities to use English

A journal is a notebook in which students record their personal reflections, questions they are wondering about, ideas, words, or expressions they want to remember, or feelings they have about experiences in class. A log is usually more objective (e.g., observations on learning activities, lists of books read or films watched, notes on learning strategies).

Procedure: If students have little or no experience using a log or journal, it is a good idea to model the process by doing a collective journal on large chart paper. Begin by discussing the reasons for keeping a journal and ways it can be used, so that students can better understand the process and the purpose.

- Always begin by noting the date of the entry.
- Specific questions can be asked, especially when students are new to journal writing, to give them some guidance about the kinds of things to write about.
- Provide regular opportunities for students to write in their journals, for example, a few minutes before or after an activity depending on what they are writing about.
- Students choose whether or not to share their journal entries with the teacher or their fellow students.
- If students do decide to share parts or all of their journal, teachers can respond individually with questions or comments to extend thinking. Since the primary purpose of the journal is not to practise writing, teachers should not correct the grammar, spelling, or punctuation in student journals.
- Encourage students to regularly reread what they have written in their journals and reflect on it.

Tips: When doing a collective journal, be sure to go through all the steps of journal writing, including reflection on previous entries, so that students have a model at all stages.

Some students need more guidance in journal writing. They can be given specific questions to answer or sentence stems to get them started.

Although journals are not usually evaluated, they can be a source of useful information and can help the teacher guide the student's learning.

If students are having difficulty expressing their thoughts in words, suggest that they add drawings or other visual representations to express their meaning.

Applications: The different types of journals and logs have different purposes and are used in different contexts.

1. Personal Journals

- Personal journals are often used for students to record their emotional reactions to learning the language and experiencing the culture, and to note their aspirations for travel, education, or other personal uses of their knowledge about the language and culture.
- Students should be reassured that their writing will remain private if they so wish.
- The personal journal can be particularly effective for reflection on experiences with a new culture, since reactions to different ways of doing things are often of an emotional nature rather than intellectual.

2. Dialogue Journals

- Dialogue journals are for journal writing in situations where another person, often the teacher, responds to what the student has written. The resulting journal resembles a conversation in written form. Dialogue journals may be conducted via email if available.
- The teacher's response to what the student has written should focus on the content rather than the language. The response can be in the form of comments or questions which encourage the student to extend his or her thinking or reflect on an experience.
- Respond regularly to journals. Students, parents, or other interested persons can also respond to dialogue journals. Make sure they understand the purpose of the journal and are able to respond in a respectful and thoughtful manner.

3. Learning Logs

- Learning logs are very useful for increasing students' awareness of how they learn (metacognitive learning strategies) and thus developing their strategic competence.
- Students benefit from discussion about what they are learning, why they need to know specific aspects of the language or culture, and how they are learning. The discussion helps them develop the language they need to write effectively about their learning and problem-solving processes.
- Some questions that might be used include the following: What do you know now that you did not know before? What was most difficult about today's class? Why was it difficult? Have you had this problem before? If so, what did you do to resolve it last time? What could you try in the future? What do you want to concentrate on in the next class?

Language Development: Although the primary goal of journal writing is not to teach the language directly, there can be many benefits of this method for language development. In their journals and logs, students have an opportunity to use language in a different context. It is also very useful for developing strategic competence and intercultural competence.

Free Writing

Free writing is a method for encouraging students to express ideas by writing in English language. After reflecting on a topic, students respond in writing for a brief time to an English prompt, a quote, or a question.

Free writing is an effective tool to

- develop the ability to link previous knowledge and experience to a topic
- develop creative and critical thinking skills
- provide opportunities to express and share ideas in written form
- encourage students to value writing in the target language

Personal Dictionaries

Personal dictionaries consist of words that are familiar and significant to students. These words, which students use frequently in oral contexts, can form the basis of reading and writing vocabularies. Word sources include dictated stories and captions, journals and other writing efforts, as well as students' own oral vocabulary. For language learning, personal "banks" or collections of key words are valuable resources. Students may compile word collections to expand their reading and writing vocabularies.

Learning Contracts

Students and teacher work together during the designing, running, and evaluation of personal contracts. Learning contracts may be used to guide students as they work towards learning outcomes related to using English for fun and personal enjoyment, for example, or the development of metacognitive strategies.

Research Projects

Students may be involved in research projects individually, as partners, or as members of small groups. Research projects are effective in developing and extending language skills. While doing research, students practise reading for specific purposes, recording information, sequencing and organizing ideas, and using language to inform others.

A research model provides students with a framework for organizing information about a topic. Research projects frequently include these four steps:

1. determining the purpose and topic
2. gathering the information
3. organizing the information
4. sharing knowledge

Experiential Learning Methods

Experiential learning methods are student-centered. The emphasis is on process, not product.

Experiential instruction strategies are very useful because

- they greatly increase understanding and retention
- students are more motivated because they actively participate and teach one another by describing what they are doing
- they are inductive—illustrations or examples are given and a rule, concept, or generalization is then formulated
- they are activity oriented
- students reflect about an experience, and apply what they have concluded to other contexts

There are five phases:

1. experiencing (an activity occurs)
2. sharing (reactions and observations are shared)
3. analyzing (patterns are determined)
4. inferring (concepts are developed)
5. applying (plans are made to use learning in new situations)

Role-Play and Simulation

Children naturally use make-believe to explore a whole variety of roles and situations that, as children, they cannot experience directly. However, role-play and simulation are effective teaching methods across all grades, levels, and ages. Role-play and simulation are methods that use this natural learning strategy to explore different aspects of school subjects. Role-play and simulation are both related to drama, but they resemble improvisation more than play-acting or other theatrical performances. Students assume a role (e.g., a character, a real-life or imaginary person, an animal) and are put in a situation or context. When they assume roles, they are acting “as if” they are someone else. They are experimenting with what it feels like to be in someone else’s shoes and developing empathy with those other lives. Role-plays and simulations are effective instructional methods for a variety of subject areas including social studies, law, and environmental studies.

Although some props may be used, generally there is no set, no costumes or makeup, and no script. Students do not try to physically resemble the person they are playing, but they do behave the way they think that person would behave. Role-play does not involve writing a skit, and then reading or memorizing it and performing it before an audience. Students are given a role, placed in a situation, and required to act as that person would act in real life. Simulation differs from role-play in that it is a more extended and more complex activity and may involve a variety of activities including role-play.

Procedure: Although the kinds of situations used in role-plays and simulations are very diverse, the basic procedure is the same. This method is best used at the reinforcement or review stage of learning, when students have a fairly good command of the vocabulary and structures, but need some practice using them in relatively unstructured situations.

Begin by outlining the situation. As students gain more experience in role-play, they can take a more active role in planning and guiding the situation. There is usually a problem of some kind that needs to be solved, a conflict that needs to be resolved, or a situation that involves an unforeseen element.

Students may need a period of time for research before they actually do the role-play in order to properly play their role. This does not mean writing out a dialogue to deliver. It simply means knowing the background, experiences, beliefs, and opinions of the characters they are playing.

During the role-play itself, sometimes everyone is in role, even the teacher. The role assumed by the teacher will vary depending on the amount of guidance the students need. At first, assuming roles such as chairperson of a committee or meeting, spokesperson for a group of protesters, or chief investigator for an inquiry will allow the teacher to guide the role-play and encourage students to participate. As the students become more familiar with this method, they can take on some of the more dominant roles in the situation. There should be a clear distinction between being “in role” and “out of role.” A signal can be pre-arranged (for example, the teacher puts on and takes off a hat) to indicate the beginning and the ending of the role-play.

The period of reflection which follows the role-play is just as important as the role-play itself. At this stage students describe what they experienced and how they felt. The teacher guides the discussion by asking questions and making comments, encouraging the students to think about their experience. Students may also respond by drawing pictures to express their experience.

Tips: Students need to do a variety of activities before the role-play in order to acquire the vocabulary and structures they will need to communicate in the situation they are given. The role-play itself provides an opportunity to practise using this vocabulary and these structures in realistic situations, in other words, to bring together and fine-tune their previously acquired knowledge.

It is often helpful to incorporate an element of tension into the situation. This “pressure for response” can take the form of a challenge, a surprise, a time constraint, or the suspense of not knowing. Tension is what works in a drama to impel the students to respond and take action.

Applications: Role-play is a natural extension of the traditional methods of reading, practising, or writing dialogues, or problem-solving. The advantage of role-play is that it places students in a situation that more closely resembles real life, situations where they do not know exactly what the other person is going to say. Role-play also provides opportunities to develop other knowledge, skills, and attitudes, depending on the situation.

Language Development: Role-play is an interactive instructional method and is very effective in developing interactive fluency. Simulation, because it is a more extended and more complex activity, can also involve oral and written interpretation and production. Part of the development of interactive fluency is the acquisition of interactive language use strategies. Discussion of the use of strategies can form part of the reflection process that follows the role-play.

Role-play and simulation also offer unique opportunities for developing intercultural competence if the situations involve exploring cultural differences, adapting to new situations and ways of doing things, and taking a variety of perspectives. Students can, for example, experience the same situation several times, playing a different role each time.

APPENDIX 25: RESOURCES FOR BUILDING CONTENT-BASED LANGUAGE LESSONS

These resources have been chosen because they are practical, flexible springboards for interesting and relevant content-based lessons, or they provide tools for working with texts that have been selected for language focus.

Vocabulary

Websites:

Academic Word List

<www.vuw.ac.nz/lals/staff/averil-coxhead/awl/index.html>

A recent compilation of words beyond the list of the first 2,000 most commonly occurring words of English, but frequently found in university-level materials. The words are grouped in sublists, according to their frequency of occurrence. Sublist 1 words occur on an average of once every 4.3 pages. Read more about the AWL in Coxhead, A. (2000). "A New Academic Word List." *TESOL Quarterly*, 34 (2).

The following resources are based on the AWL:

Learn Words

<<http://132.208.224.131/ListLearn/awl.html>>

A website for self-access vocabulary study, with several tools, including the major word lists, concordancing, dictionary, and pronunciation.

Test Your Vocabulary Levels

<www.er.uqam.ca/nobel/r21270/levels/index.html>

Self-testing for several levels.

Using the Academic Word List

<www.nottingham.ac.uk/~alzsh3/acvocab/index.htm>

A website with several useful ideas and tools for using your own texts for vocabulary development. Highlight the academic words in a text and produce a gap-fill exercise.

The Compleat Lexical Tutor

<www.lextutor.ca/>

The most useful feature for most secondary ESL teachers is the VP Cloze Builder, which can check a text for words from various lists, including the AWL, and create a cloze exercise from it.

Lexical Approach to Second Language Teaching

<www.l-language.com/eslarticles/lexicalapproach.htm>

ERIC Identifier: ED455698

This website provides a summary of the role of lexis in language teaching and learning. Computer-based research has helped provide the huge databases from which high-frequency lexis may be drawn, as well as analysis of specific texts. Implementing a lexical approach does not require a great change in methodology, but a shift in the teacher's mindset, so that language activities are consistent with naturally occurring patterns and help students notice words and patterns.

“Resource-assisted Learning: A Vocabulary On-demand Model for WWW Online Learning”

<www.edict.com.hk/studyguide/ralearn/fullPaper.htm>

This full-length paper explains techniques and strategies for implementing an approach to online, self-directed learning using concordancing, dictionaries, text-to-speech, and other resources. This approach could be especially useful for advanced students in a non-English speaking environment.

Virtual Language Centre

<<http://vlc.polyu.edu.hk/>>

This web concordancer provides contexts for words. It is useful for self-study or teacher research.

Web Vocabulary Profiler

<www.er.ugam.ca/nobel/r21270/texttools/web_vp.html>

Students can paste a text they have written into the profiler and compare it with the levels at which they have tested themselves.

Puzzle Generators

<www.puzzlemaker.com>

Although this site contains advertising, it allows teachers to quickly generate customized word searches, crosswords, and other puzzles for review.

Animated Thesaurus

Thinkmap Inc. *The Visual Thesaurus*. (CD edition.) New York, NY: Thinkmap Inc., 2005.

This program offers an animated display of 145,000 words and 115,000 meanings. When a student types in a word, it appears in the centre of the screen, surrounded by its meanings and synonyms, helping students visualize the relationships. The program spell-checks, shows collocations, allows students to hear the correct pronunciation, and tells students the parts of speech of the words.

Dictionaries

Print:

Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners. 3rd ed. Glasgow: HarperCollins, 2001.

Hill, Jimmie, and Michael Lewis (Eds). *Dictionary of Selected Collocations*, 2nd ed. Hove, UK: Language Teaching Publications, 1999.

Longman Advanced American Dictionary. White Plains, NY: Longman, 2001.

Longman Language Activator: The World's First Production Dictionary. Harlow, England: Longman Dictionaries, 1993.

Listening and Speaking

Print:

Kehe, David, and Peggy Kehe. *Discussion Strategies*. Brattleboro, VT: ProLingua Associates, 2001.

Follows the popular *Conversation Strategies* (1994). Designed to help high-intermediate to advanced level students develop interactive skills needed for leading and participating in discussions.

Mendelsohn, David, and Joan Rubin (eds.). *A Guide to Teaching Second Language Listening*. San Diego, CA: Dominic Press, 1995.

A classic with many suggestions directly related to academic listening.

Websites:

CBC Archives (Radio and Television)

<<http://cbc.ca>>

Audio and video of important news stories, often with support materials.

Dictation as a Language Learning Device

<<http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Alkire-Dictation.html>>

A summary of the benefits and methods of using dictation effectively.

Discovery.ca Daily Planet

<www.discovery.ca/dailyplanet/>

Short video clips on a huge variety of science topics. Many different voices.

Earth and Sky

<www.earthsky.com>

Based on a popular radio show, this site offers scripts and transcripts on many environmental and space topics.

Learning English-BBC

<www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/index.shtml>

Resources for both learners and teachers.

Living on Earth

< www.loe.org/index.htm>

Short and longer sound stories on environmental topics.

National Public Radio (US)

<www.npr.org>

Archived tapes and transcripts; some free, others to be ordered.

NIH Healthbeat

<<http://radiospace.com/healthbeat.htm>>

Sixty-second radio broadcasts on current health topics. MP3 format.

Prepare for Discussion: Discussion Topics for English Language Learners

<[www. www.btinternet.com/~ted.power/discuss.html](http://www.btinternet.com/~ted.power/discuss.html)>

Includes vocabulary, pronunciation tips, short text for dictation.

Quirks and Quarks

<<http://radio/cbc.ca/programs/quirks/archives.htm>>

Long-running CBC Radio science news magazine. Sound archives.

Randall's ESL CyberListening Lab

<www.esl-lab.com>

Many short general listening quizzes for self-study, as well as longer texts with a more academic focus. Includes a guide to recording audio from the Internet.

Real Audio for Real Listening

<<http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Tuzi-RealAudio.html>>

Techniques and activities for using online audio clips in the classroom.

Voice of America Easy English broadcast

<www.voa.org>

Sound files with transcripts.

Content Background

Websites:

Canadian Environmental Education Digital Collection

<<http://collections.ic.gc.ca/environmental/index.html>>

ChemGuide: Helping You To Understand Chemistry

<www.chemguide.co.uk>

Very clear explanations of chemical concepts.

DNA Interactive

<www.dnai.org/index.html>

Classical Genetics—a great primer or review for anyone interested in DNA, genetic engineering, cloning, etc. Slide show, animations, video clips, and sound clips.

How Things Work

<<http://howthingswork.virginia.edu/>>

Issue-based learning

<www.actionbioscience.org/education/lewis.html>

Explains the rationale and methodology of issued-based learning in the science classroom, but the application is clear for content-based ESL.

Nature Science Update

<www.nature.com/nsu/020121/020121-13.html>

Another collection of science articles.

New Scientist

<www.newscientist.com>

Excellent short articles in all areas of science. Updated daily.

New York Times Daily Lesson Plan Archive

<www.nytimes.com/learning/teachers/lessons/archive.html>

Many of these free lessons can be adapted for high-intermediate and advanced ESL.

ScienCentral News

<www.sciencentral.com/>

Stories on the latest science and technology developments, often with background and related readings. A good reading level.

The Sports Ethics Institute

<www.sportsethicsinstitute.org/>

Daily articles linking sports and ethics; many topics available.

Sustaining the Environment and Resources for Canadians

<www.environmentandresources.ca>

Government of Canada website.

World Resources Institute: Global Topics

<www.wri.org/wrisites.html>

Readings on issues that combine environmental and economic interests.

Writing

Print:

Aker, Don, and David Hodgkinson. *Language and Writing* 11. Scarborough, ON: Nelson Thomson Learning, 2001.

This book gives examples of and helpful suggestions about different types of writing.

Bliq, Ron S. *Technically Write*, 4th ed. Scarborough, ON: Prentice-Hall Canada, 1992.

Freisen, Hannah, and Kathy Block. *Creating Meaning: Advanced Reading and Writing*. Don Mills, ON: Oxford University Press, 2000.

- Ramage, J., J. Bean, and J. Johnson. *The Allyn & Bacon Guide to Writing*, 3rd ed. New York, NY: Pearson Education, 2003.
- Reid, Joy. *The Process of Composition*, 3rd ed. White Plains, NY: Prentice Hall Regents, 2000.
- Struck, William Jr., and E.B. White. *The Elements of Style*, 4th ed. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon, 2000.
A well-respected writer's guide which focuses on general grammar rules, common errors in usage, principles of composition and approaches to style.
- Walvoord Fassler, Barbara E. *Helping Students Write Well*, 2nd ed. New York, NY: The Modern Language Association of America, 1986.
This book contains many practical tips and suggestions for teachers of all disciplines who must advise about and grade students' writing.

Websites:

Language and Life Sciences

<<http://exchanges.state.gov/forum/journal/llsintro.htm>>

Resources for Teaching Writing in Engineering and Science

<<http://writing.eng.vt.edu/handbook/index.html>>

Reading

Print:

- Camiciottolo, Belinda Crawford. "Metadiscourse and ESP Reading Comprehension: An Exploratory Study." *Reading In a Foreign Language*. 15 (1). April 2003.
<<http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/April2003/camiciottoli/camiciottoli.pdf>>
- Stiefenhofer, Helmut. "How to Read Non-fiction English Texts Faster and More Efficiently." *The Internet TESL Journal*, 2 (6), June 1996.
<<http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Stiefenhofer-FastReading.html>>
- Vacca, Richard, and Jo Anne Vacca. Content Area Reading: *Literacy and Learning Across the Curriculum*, 7th ed. Boston, MA: Pearson Education, 2002.
- Zukowski/Faust, Jean, Susan S. Johnston, and Elizabeth E. Templin. *Steps to Academic Reading in Context*, 2nd ed. Toronto, ON: Heinle, 2002.
This text focuses on academic and practical vocabulary building and suggests a number of good reading strategies.

Websites:

Strategies for Reading Journal Articles.

<<http://unilearning.uow.edu.au/reading/1d.html>>

Strategy Instruction

Print:

Manitoba Education and Training. *Success for All Learners: A Handbook on Differentiating Instruction*. Winnipeg, MB: Manitoba Education and Training, 1996.

Oxford, Rebecca. *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle, 1990.

Schowetter, Dieter J., and Heather Francis (Eds.). *Becoming a Successful Student*, 3rd ed. Winnipeg, MB: University of Manitoba Bookstore, 2002. This guide is meant for first-year university students and contains helpful strategies for academic tasks, communication, cooperative work, critical thinking, problem solving, and stress and time management, as well as other helpful information.

Classroom Techniques

Print:

Brinton, Donna M., and Peter Master (Eds.). *New Ways in Content-Based Instruction*. Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc., 1997.

This guide for teachers contains numerous innovative ideas for content-based lessons.

