

6 *The structure of a language lesson*

Lessons are events which are fairly easy to recognize. They take place in a particular setting (e.g., a school or classroom), they normally involve two kinds of participants (the teacher and students), and they normally consist of recognizable kinds of activities (e.g., the teacher lecturing at the front of the class, the teacher posing questions and calling on students to answer them). A lesson is, hence, distinguishable from other kinds of speech events, such as meetings, debates, arguments, or trials.

Like other speech events, however, lessons have a recognizable structure. They begin in a particular way, they proceed through a series of teaching and learning activities, and they reach a conclusion. This pattern of structure or organization is a result of the teacher's attempts to manage the instructional process in a way which will optimize the amount of learning that can take place in the time available. Wong-Fillmore (1985: 23-4) observes:

How classes are organized and how instructional events are structured determine to a large extent the nature of the language that students hear and use in the classroom Two sets of characteristics appear to distinguish classes that work for language learning from those that do not. The first set relates to the way the classes are structured or are organized for instruction, the second to the way language is used in lessons.

Research on teaching in mainstream classes has found that when teachers structure their lessons effectively, they:

- Begin a lesson with a short review of previous, prerequisite learning.
- Begin a lesson with a short statement of goals.
- Present new material in small steps, with student practice after each step.
- Give clear and detailed instructions and explanations.
- Provide a high level of active practice for all students.

Ask a large number of questions, check for student understanding, and obtain responses from all students.

Guide students during initial practice.

Provide systematic feedback and corrections.

Provide explicit instruction and practice for seatwork exercises and, where necessary, monitor students during seatwork.

(Rosenshine and Stevens 1986: 377)

This chapter concerns how lessons are organized into sequences and how the momentum of a lesson is achieved. This is referred to as *structuring*. The focus will be on four dimensions of structuring:

Opening. How a lesson begins.

Sequencing. How a lesson is divided into segments and how the segments relate to each other.

Pacing. How a sense of movement is achieved within a lesson.

Closure. How a lesson is brought to an end.

Openings

The opening of a lesson consists of the procedures the teacher uses to focus the students' attention on the learning aims of the lesson. Research on teaching suggests that the opening, or "entry," of a lesson generally occupies the first five minutes and can have an important influence on how much students learn from a lesson (Kinds vatter, Wilen, and Ishler, 1988). In her longitudinal study of limited English proficiency students in third and fifth grade classrooms in the United States, Wong-Fillmore (1985: 27) found that effective lessons for language learning were

formal, scheduled lessons with clear boundaries. The beginnings of small-group lessons were usually marked by an actual change in the physical location of the students or by some other movement ... [such as] turning seats around so students face one another. The beginnings of such events were often marked by changes in the teacher's voice quality or volume, or in the teacher's location or posture, these serving to call the group to attention.

Lesson beginnings can serve a variety of purposes. For example, specific lessons openings can be used to:

Help learners to relate the content of the new lesson to that of the last or previous lessons (cognitive contribution).

Assess relevant knowledge (cognitive contribution).

Establish an appropriate "set" in learners: i.e., prepare them for what is to follow (cognitive or affective contribution).

Allow "tuning-in" time - which may be especially important in situations where learners have come directly from a radically different environment (pragmatic contribution).

Reduce the disruption caused by late-arriving students (pragmatic contribution).

(McGrath, Davies, and Mulphm 1992: 92-3)

The way a lesson opens reflects a number of decisions that a teacher makes, either consciously or unconsciously. A number of options are available. For example, a teacher could choose to:

- describe the goals of a lesson.
- state the information or skills the students will learn.
- describe the relationship between the lesson/activities and a real-world need.
- describe what students are expected to do in the lesson.
- describe the relationship between the lesson/activities and a forthcoming test or exam.
- begin an activity without any explanation.
- point out links between this lesson and previous lessons.
- state that the activity the students will do is something they will enjoy.
- do something in order to capture the students' interest and motivation.
- review learning from a previous lesson.
- preview the lesson.

The *purpose* of a lesson beginning will determine the kind of activity or strategy the teacher uses to begin the lesson (see Appendix 1). Rosenshine and Stevens (1986: 381) point out, for example, that beginning a lesson with a short review provides additional opportunities to learn previously taught material and allows the teacher to provide correction or reteach areas that students are having difficulty with. This can be accomplished by:

- Asking questions about concepts or skills taught in the previous lesson.
- Giving a short quiz at the beginning of class on material from previous lessons or homework assignments.
- Having students meet in small groups (two to four students per group) to review homework.

- Having students prepare questions about previous lessons or homework. They can ask questions to each other, or the teacher can ask them to the class.
- Having students prepare a written summary of the previous lesson.
- Having students ask the teacher about problems on homework and having the teacher review, re-teach, or provide additional practice.

In their study of adult classes in EFL and modern languages, McGrath et al. (1992) found that lesson openings are used principally "to establish an appropriate affective framework for learning and, to a lesser extent, to establish an appropriate cognitive framework" (p. 105). They also found that learners are sensitive to the contribution of lesson beginnings.

How do these features of lessons affect language learning? Although there is relatively little research on openings in second language classrooms (however, see McGrath et al. 1992), Wong-Fillmore (1985) suggests that openings and other boundary markers within lessons, such as transitions and closings, help frame the event, giving students an idea of what to expect and how to prepare for it.

The formulaic starters used by the teachers helped to signal when these scheduled events were to begin, so the students knew when they should begin paying attention and what they should be listening for. (Wong-Fillmore 1985: 28)

The following lesson transcript shows how a teacher deals with a lesson opening in a language arts class for ESL students at secondary level. After greeting the students (Ss) and dealing with noninstructional matters, the teacher (*T*) begins:

- T: The other time we were talking about figures of speech. And we have already in the past talked about three kinds of figures of speech. Does anybody remember those three types? Mary?
- S: Personification, simile, and metaphor.
- T: Good. Let me write those on the board. Now, can anybody tell me what personification is all about again? Juan?
- S: Making a non-living thing act like a person.
- T: Yes. OK. Good enough. Now what about simile? ... OK, Cecilia?
- S: Comparing two things by making use of the words "like" or "as."
- T: OK. Good. I'll write that on the board. The other one - metaphor. Paul?

- S: It's when we make a comparison between two things, but we compare them without using the words "like" or "as."
- T: All right. Good. So, it's more direct than a simile. Now, we had a poem a few weeks ago about personification. Do you remember? Can you recall one line from that poem where a non-living thing acts like a human person?
- S: "The moon walks the night."
- T: Good. "The moon walks the night." Does the moon have feet to walk?
- Ss: No.
- T: No. So this is a figure of speech. All right. Now, our lesson today has something to do with metaphor. We already did simile and we just slightly touched on metaphor before. Now we're going to see what they have in common. So, by the way, do you have your songs with you?
- Ss: Yes.
- T: Last week I told you we were going to share songs and this week it's my turn to share with you a song that I like. And I have chosen a song by Simon and Garfunkel.

(The class then listens to the song "I Am a Rock" and discusses the metaphors in the lyrics.)

This teacher has chosen several strategies to begin her lesson. She makes links to a previous lesson, she previews the current lesson, and she uses a song to capture the students' interest and provide further illustrations of metaphor.

Discussion

1. Review the list of strategies for lesson openings on page 115. Which strategies do you (or the teacher you are observing) use most frequently? Do you (or the teacher) use any strategies that are not on this list? For what purposes are these strategies used?
2. Examine the list of purposes for lesson beginnings and the illustrative activities in Appendix 1. Can you add to the list of purposes? Choose one of the purposes on the list. Give other examples of activities that could be used to achieve this purpose.
3. You are teaching an intermediate reading class based on a magazine article about the dangers of boxing as a sport.

Think of a suitable opening for the lesson. Does it match one of the strategies listed on page 115?

4. Read the transcript of the lesson opening on pages 116-117 again. How many of the strategies listed on page 115 does the teacher employ?

Sequencing

Another dimension of structuring in lessons has to do with the format of the lesson itself. Most lessons do not consist of a single activity; rather, the teacher analyzes the overall goals of a lesson and the content to be taught and then plans a sequence of activities to attain those goals. This sequence of sub-activities for a lesson establishes a kind of format or script for the lesson. Experienced teachers often have a mental format in mind when they think of a particular kind of lesson, such as a reading lesson, a composition class, a listening lesson, and so on. This format represents the sequence of activities which make up the lesson.

Wong-Fillmore (1985: 29) points out that in the third and fifth grade reading lessons she observed, a typical lesson format consisted of the teacher:

- Presenting new vocabulary items used in the text at hand.
- Eliciting discussion on the meanings and uses of the new words and relating them to known words.
- Having the group read the words together from the list.
- Having the group read the text silently.
- Having learners take turns reading the paragraphs in the text.
- Discussing the meaning of the text with the students.
- Making an assignment for seatwork to be done individually.

In second and foreign language teaching, a number of principles have emerged for determining the internal structure of lessons. These principles are based on different views of the skills and processes underlying different aspects of second language learning and how learning can be accomplished most effectively. The following are examples of principles of this kind, which are taken from ESL methodology texts of different persuasions:

- Simple activities should come before complex ones.
- Activities involving receptive skills should precede those that involve productive skills.
- Students should study a grammar rule before trying to use it.

- Students should practice using a tense or grammar structure before studying the rule that underlies it.
- Accuracy-focused activities should precede fluency-focused ones.
- There should be a progression within a lesson from mechanical or form-based activities to meaningful-based activities.

Often these principles reflect a specific school of methodology. For example, in Situational Language Teaching (see Richards and Rodgers 1986), lessons often have the following format:

1. *Presentation.* The new structure is introduced and presented.
2. *Controlled practice.* Learners are given intensive practice in the structure, under the teacher's guidance and control.
3. *Free practice.* The students practice using the structure without any control by the teacher.
4. *Checking.* The teacher elicits use of the new structure to check that it has been learned.
5. *Further practice.* The structure is now practiced in new situations, or in combination with other structures.

(Hubbard et al. 1983)

In Communicative Language Teaching, the following sequence of activities is often used (Littlewood 1986):

1. *Pre-communicative activities.* Accuracy-based activities which focus on presentation of structures, functions, and vocabulary.
2. *Communicative activities.* Fluency-based activities which focus on information sharing and information exchange.

Appendix 2 illustrates this sequence in part of a unit titled "Giving Opinions, Agreeing and Disagreeing, Discussing" from a communicative listening/speaking text (Jones and von Baeyer 1983). The unit opens with a conversation that serves to introduce the functions and vocabulary to be practiced in the unit. The next exercise focuses on the functional expressions used in giving opinions. The next two exercises are fluency-based activities which practice giving opinions. This sequence of activities is followed throughout the rest of the unit as additional functions are presented and practiced.

In the teaching of writing according to the Process Approach, the following sequence of activities is often recommended (Proett and Gill 1986).

1. *Pre-writing activities.* Activities designed to generate ideas for writing or focus the writers' attention on a particular topic.

2. *Drafting activities.* Activities in which students produce a draft of their composition, considering audience and purpose.
3. *Revising activities.* Activities in which students focus on rereading, analyzing, editing, and revising their own writing.

Appendix 3 contains an example of this from a textbook on academic writing (Leki 1989). The students are first introduced to techniques for generating ideas and planning essays. The next set of activities helps students to use their ideas to write initial drafts. Later activities focus students on revising and polishing their drafts.

The teaching of reading in ESL is similarly often divided into three stages. For example, Nuttall (1982) lists the following activities within a reading lesson:

1. *Pre-reading activities.* Activities which prepare the students for reading the text. Such activities could include providing a reason for reading, introducing the text, breaking up the text, dealing with new language, and asking signpost questions.
2. *While-reading activities.* Activities which students complete as they read and which may be either individual, group, or whole-class.
3. *Post-reading activities.* Activities which are designed to provide a global understanding of the text in terms of evaluation and personal response. Such activities could include eliciting a personal response from the students, linking the content with the student's own experience, establishing relationships between this text and others, and evaluating characters, incidents, ideas, and arguments.

This sequence is illustrated in Appendix 4, which is from a text on advanced reading skills (Barr, Clegg, and Wallace 1981). Before students read a passage on choosing a place to live, they are led through a series of activities which serve to generate ideas about the topic. They then read the text section by section, completing while-reading activities which involve prediction and information gathering. After reading the text, students complete comprehension and evaluation tasks.

Individual teachers often develop their own formats for lessons, evolving personal variations on the formats they have been trained to use. Wong-Fillmore (1985) points out that experienced teachers are often consistent in how they organize their lessons and in the sequence of sub-activities they use for particular kinds of lessons. While this might appear to be an example of unimaginative, routinized teaching behavior, there are advantages for learners.

Once [the learners] learn the sequence of sub-activities for each subject, they can follow the lesson without having to figure out afresh what is happening

each day. They know what they are supposed to do and what they should be getting out of each phase of the lesson; thus they are ahead of the game in figuring out what they are supposed to be learning each day. (Wong-Fillmore 1985: 29)

In dividing a lesson into sub-activities, the teacher also needs to consider the transitions between one sub-activity and another within a lesson. Research on elementary classrooms suggests that over thirty major transitions occur per day in such classes, accounting for approximately 15% of classroom time (Doyle 1986). In many ESL classrooms, particularly those focusing on communicative activities in pairs or small groups, there is frequent reorganization of learners for different activities, and transition time can be significant.

According to Doyle (1986), skilled teachers mark the onset of transitions clearly, orchestrate transitions actively, and minimize the loss of momentum during these changes in activities. Less effective teachers, on the other hand, tend to blend activities together, fail to monitor events during transitions, and take excessively long to complete the movement between segments of a lesson. Thus effective transitions help maintain students' attention during transition times and establish a link between one activity and the next.

Teachers achieve transitions through cuing and interactional negotiation, which signals the beginning of a change, the reorientation of focus, or the beginning of a new segment. The way in which teachers handle transitions depends on the nature of the transition. For example, a transition which involves a rearrangement of the classroom from seat-work to small groups takes more time to orchestrate than a transition between discussing one topic and another. Teachers have to consider a number of decisions which affect how transitions will be handled:

- How will the momentum of the lesson be maintained while grouping arrangements are changed?
- What will students be doing in between activities?
- When should students be told what the goals of an activity are?

Teachers report a number of solutions to these questions:

I always think ahead and plan how I will handle transition times. For example, I might write an assignment for an exercise on the board so that some students can start the assignment while others are still getting their books.

I write my objectives for the lesson on the board so students can see how the different activities in the lesson are connected.

At the beginning of each new term for each of my classes, I work out rules and routines for things like passing out books, moving into groups, and handing in assignments.

Discussion

1. Consider a typical lesson that you teach (or observe), such as a reading, writing, listening, or speaking lesson. What format does this kind of lesson typically follow (Le., what typical sequence of activities makes up the lesson)? What principles or beliefs account for this format?
2. If you are teaching a class, have you developed a personalized format for lessons you teach regularly? What does the format consist of? Why does it have the format it does? Compare it with other formats used by teachers teaching the same kind of lesson. If you are observing a class, has the teacher developed a personalized format for it?
3. What are the advantages for learners of using established lesson formats? What advantages are there for teachers? Are there any disadvantages of using established formats?
4. Choose a method you are familiar with that has not been discussed in this chapter (e.g., Audiolingual Method and Silent Way). What does the format for a typical lesson consist of?
5. Do you (or a teacher whose class you are observing) use routines for handling transition times? What routines are effective?

Pacing

Since the formats used for most language lessons consist of a sequence of sub-activities which address the overall goals of the lesson, deciding how much time to allocate to each sub-activity is an important issue in teaching. *Pacing* is the extent to which a lesson maintains its momentum and communicates a sense of development. How much time to allocate to each part of the lesson is thus an important decision which teachers must make while planning or teaching a lesson. Decisions related to pacing are important aspects of interactive decision making, since teaching involves monitoring students' engagement in learning tasks and deciding when it is time to bring a task to completion and move on to another activity before students' attention begins to fade.

Various suggestions are given concerning pacing in articles on teacher training. Strategies recommended to help achieve suitable pacing within lessons often include:

- Avoiding needless or over-lengthy explanations and instructions, and letting students get on with the job of learning.
- Using a variety of activities within a lesson, rather than spending the whole lesson on one activity.
- Avoiding predictable and repetitive activities, where possible.
- Selecting activities of an appropriate level of difficulty.
- Setting a goal and time limit for activities: activities that have no obvious conclusion or in which no time frame is set tend to have little momentum.
- Monitoring students' performance on activities to ensure that students have had sufficient but not too much time.

In a study of an effective ESL reading teacher, Richards (1990) identified pacing as one of the significant features of the teacher's lessons. This was achieved through including a variety of activities within each lesson.

The teacher provides a variety of different learning experiences within lessons. In the lesson observed, four different activities were used, and this variation in activities may have contributed to the positive attitude of the students toward the classroom tasks as well as the active pacing of the lesson. (p. 96)

Tikunoff (1985a) points out that pacing is sometimes teacher controlled and at other times student directed.

In some situations, pacing may need to be completely under control of the teacher; no student may move to the next task until given instructions to do so. In other situations, however, pacing might be negotiable, particularly if several tasks are underway concurrently. In this case, an understanding must exist of the optimal time one can spend on a task, and the time by when it is expected to be completed. Many teachers increase options in this area by negotiating contracts with students which include, among other things, the time by which a task will be accomplished. (pp. 62-3)

Pacing is identified as a basic teaching skill in manuals for pre-service training of ESL/EFL teachers. For example, Gower and Walters (1983: 43-4), in discussing classroom management, comment:

You must get the timing right. If the activity lasts too long, it'll drag. If it doesn't last long enough, it won't give any sense of satisfaction. If one group

finishes early, give it a further activity, related to the task. Alternatively, you may wish to stop all the groups at that point. But don't let a group or pair sit around with nothing to do. Generally it's better to stop an activity when it's going well, provided it has achieved its broad aims, than to let it peter out.

Discussion

1. Do you think a lesson that has a fairly rapid pacing is necessarily better than one that does not? Why or why not?
2. Suggest one or two ways that a teacher could monitor his or her pacing of lessons.
3. Suggest one or two ways that a teacher could improve pacing in his or her lessons.
4. Pacing is one way in which the momentum of a lesson is achieved. What other factors contribute to the momentum of lessons?

Closure

Another important dimension of structuring is bringing a lesson to a close effectively. Closure refers to those concluding parts of a lesson which serve to (a) reinforce what has been learned in a lesson, (b) integrate and review the content of a lesson, and (c) prepare the students for further learning. Several strategies are available to create an effective lesson closure. These strategies not only help facilitate learning of the content of the lesson, but also allow the lesson to be seen as an integrated whole. Strategies which teachers use to achieve closure include:

- Summarizing what has been covered in the lesson.
- Reviewing key points of the lesson.
- Relating the lesson to the course or lesson goals.
- Pointing out links between the lesson and previous lessons.
- Showing how the lesson relates to students' real-world needs.
- Making links to a forthcoming lesson.
- Praising students for what they have accomplished during the lesson.

The particular kind of strategy used will vary according to the type of lesson (e.g. a discussion activity or a lecture), as well as the level of the class. For example, with a discussion activity the closure typically involves summarizing the main points brought up by the students in their

discussion, relating the discussion to lesson goals and previous learning, or applying the discussion outcomes to other situations. This type of closure serves to summarize and synthesize ideas, points of view, generalizations, and conclusions. It is often an important part of learning since it can "bring it all together" for students who may have been confused during the discussion.

A different approach to closure would be appropriate in a lecture, which is a much more teacher-centered, one-way presentation of information. Typically the closure sequence of a lecture serves to reinforce what has been presented with a review of key points covered in the lecture. This may include questioning by the teacher to determine how much the students have understood. Often the closure will include a transition to the next lesson in which the students will be assigned a problem to think about or a task that will help provide an entry to the next lecture.

Discussion

1. Review the list of strategies for lesson closures in this section. Can you think of other strategies of this kind? Which strategies do you think you use most often in the kind of classes you teach?
2. Suggest closure strategies that might be appropriate for these kinds of lessons: (a) a composition class focusing on writing cause and effect paragraphs, (b) a class debate on a topic related to the environment, (c) a reading class focusing on strategies for faster reading.
3. You have been asked to teach a two-hour lesson for an intermediate conversation class focusing on making requests and offers. What types of activities will you include in your lesson? How will these activities be sequenced? What kind of opening and closure will you use?

Follow-up activities

Journal activities

In your journal this week, describe how structuring was achieved in your lessons or in the lessons you observed. How did the lessons open? How were the activities sequenced? How was pacing achieved? How did the lessons close? How effective do you think the structuring of the lessons was?

Classroom observation tasks

1. Observe a language lesson, What strategy or strategies does the teacher use to begin and end the lesson? How is the lesson divided into sections? Then interview the teacher about the lesson, What rationale does the teacher give for the lesson organization?
2. Observe a lesson from the point of view of transitions. How does the teacher handle transitions from one sub-activity to another?
3. Observe a lesson from the point of view of pacing. Was the pacing of the lesson effective? **If** so, how did the teacher achieve it? Which of the strategies given on page 123 did the teacher use?

Lesson-report task

Use the lesson-report form in Appendix 5 to monitor your teaching over a one-week period from the point of view of openings, sequencing, pacing, and closure. Compare the information you collect with another teacher's self-report information. How similar are the strategies you use?

Action research case study #4

Transitions during lessons

This project was conducted by a secondary school teacher in an EFL context.

INITIAL REFLECTION

I teach a very large English class (44 students) in a secondary school. The students in my class are hard-working. They are very good at rote-learning, but are not used to communicative activities. Whenever I try to set up pair work or group work, it seems that it takes the students a very long time to reorganize and get started on the task. As a result, the bell would often ring before students could finish the activities that I wanted them to complete for that lesson. I feel this is because I am not managing the transitions between activities very effectively, and thus a lot of time is wasted.

PLANNING

I decided I needed to make a plan of action to help students move more quickly into their groups and get started on their tasks. I planned to do two things differently in my class. First, I decided to set up permanent groups, so that students would always know who they would be working with. Next, I planned to monitor my instructions to make sure the directions given to students were clear and students could understand what they were supposed to do.

I also set up a plan to monitor the results of these changes. I decided that after every lesson, I would take two minutes to write down my thoughts about how effective I thought the transitions during the lesson were and why the transition was either effective or not effective. I also decided to ask a colleague to come in and observe my class once a month to see how I handled transitions, using a form that I adapted from Good and Brophy (1987).

ACTION

The following lesson, I discussed this problem with my students and told them I thought sometimes it took too long to move from one activity to another. I asked them how they felt about it, and they agreed that too much time was wasted in class. I then told them about my idea for setting up permanent groups, and they agreed that it was a good idea. The students formed groups for the activity I had planned, and then when they finished the activity I told them these would now be permanent arrangements for any group work done in class.

OBSERVATION

I kept notes over the next two weeks about the transition times in class. From a review of these notes, it seems that the transitions were now more effective. Students moved into their groups immediately whenever I told them we would be doing group work, I also found that my directions were simple enough for the students to understand, perhaps because they were now used to the routine of doing group work and didn't need so much explanation.

Two weeks after implementing my action plan, I asked a colleague to come and observe my class. My colleague confirmed that students moved quickly into their groups and that my directions were very clear.

However, the observer pointed out three other areas that could improve the transitions in my class. First, he observed that sometimes I gave no advance warning for the students to finish up one activity, so that it took some groups longer to move on to the next activity. Second, he observed that the materials students needed to use were stored in hard-to-reach places. Third, he observed that a few groups would finish early and would just sit quietly doing nothing until the other groups had finished and I gave directions for the next activity.

REFLECTION

From this information, it seems that the original plan that I had put into operation was effective. I had achieved my objectives of moving students into their groups more quickly and giving clearer directions. Because of this, students are spending more time on the activities that I assign them, and are able to complete the activities within the period of the lesson.

However, there still seems room for improvement in my classroom management. I have developed a new plan based on the information collected by my colleague. First of all, I have decided to set specific time limits for any group work that I assign to students and give them a one-minute warning signal before the time is up. Second, I plan to put an empty desk in the front center of the room, and use this desk to place all the materials that will be needed for the lesson so that both students and myself will have easy access to them when we need them. Third, I will plan additional activities that students can do if they finish early so that they will not just be sitting and waiting for the others to finish.

Appendix 1: Lesson beginnings - relating activities to purpose

PURPOSES	ILLUSTRATIVE ACTIVITIES
I to establish appropriate AFFECTIVE FRAMEWORK	
create friendly, relaxed atmosphere	music, introductions, greetings, joke, chat (personal, topical)
b create suitable physical environ.	get ss to arrange furniture
focus attention	greetings, listening activity, visual stimulus (incl. video)
d make class enjoyable	game, lighthearted oral activity
get everyone involved	game, pairwork activity, go over homework
raise confidence	chat (familiar questions, topical issues), controlled activities, review, homework (because prepared), plenary choral activity
g stimulate interest	anything lively or unusual - vary the beginning!
II to establish appropriate COGNITIVE FRAMEWORK	
provide organizing framework	make connections with last lesson, describe activities or objectives for part of/whole lesson, introduce topic
b stimulate awareness of need (ling/cult.)	questions (e.g. based on picture), quiz
elicit relevant linguistic knowl.	brainstorming, oral activity
elicit relevant experience	questions
III to encourage STUDENT RESPONSIBILITY and INDEPENDENCE	
make ss aware of learning skills and strategies	consciousness-raising activities (e.g. memorization game), elicitation of ss' individual strategies
IV to fulfill REQUIRED INSTITUTIONAL ROLE	
give feedback	go through (previous) homework
b check on previous learning	quiz, game, brainstorm, ask for summary, questions, check homework
give value for time/money	(This has more to do with how you start - e.g. punctuality and relevance - than what you do)
V to overcome PRAGMATIC DIFFICULTY	
minimise problems of (and for) ss arriving late	short (e.g. revision) activities, chat

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Appendix 2: Sequence of activities in a communicative lesson

8 Giving opinions, agreeing and disagreeing, discussing

8.1 Conversation La

- Sue: Well Ken, if you ask me, there's too much violence on television, Why, killing seems normal now.
- Ken: Uh Sue, I'm not sure if I agree with you. I've never read any proof that supports your claim.
- Sue: Oh Ken, it's common sense. The point is, is if you keep seeing shootings and muggings and stranglings, you won't care if it happens **on your street**.
- Mary: I think that's interesting.
- Ken: Maybe, but I've never met people that are that apathetic about violence.
- Sue: Oh I'm sorry, I don't see what you mean. Would you mind explaining that point?
- Ken: Let me put it another way, Sue. The people on my street - they're not influenced by what happens on television.
- Sue: Oh, but people may care about violence on their street, but not about violence in general.
- Ken: Wouldn't you say that television is just a passive way of letting off steam?
- Sue: Oh Ken, that's exactly what I mean! People watching violence to cool off proves my point - they get used to violence!
- Mary: I think that's a good point, Sue. I mean, Ken, don't you see what she's saying?
- Sue: Yes! There's got to be a better way to cool off!
- Mary: I agree. Well, like talking with friends, or sports, or reading, or .
- Ken: I agree with you, Mary. Anyway, TV's really boring, so why argue about it?
- Sue: *[laughs]* I agree with you there.
- Mary: *[laughs]* That's true.

8.2 Presentation: giving opinions **S**

When you are taking part in a discussion it is useful to have techniques up your sleeve for getting people to listen to you and to give yourself *thinking time* while you arrange your ideas. Here are some useful opening expressions (they get more and more formal as you go down the list):

INFORMAL *If you ask me*
You know what I think? I think that.
The point is
Wouldn't you say that ... ?
Don't you agree that ... ?
As I see it ...
I'd just like to say that I think that.

FORMAL *I'd like to point out that.*

Decide with your teacher when these different expressions would be appropriate. Do you agree with the order they have been put in? Can you suggest more expressions?

8.3 Exercise

Make up conversations from the cues below, using expressions presented in 8.2. Follow this pattern:

S

A: How do you feel about big dogs?
 B: Well, if you ask me, big dogs are a nuisance.
 A: Why do you think that?
 B: Because they eat a lot of food, and run around where they're not wanted, and ...

big dogs	foreign travel
cats	learning a foreign language
daycare	downtown parking spaces
women drivers	transistor radios
capital punishment	children

Try to use new expressions each time!

8.4 Exercise

Work in groups of three. Find out each other's opinions on these subjects:

vacations	inflation
birthdays	air travel
Christmas	television
politeness	winter sports
lotteries	communism

Report your partners' opinions to the students in another group.

Appendix 3: Sequence of activities in a process writing lesson

Part I Introduction to Writing Processes: Writing from Observation and Experience 1

Unit 1 *Getting to Draft* 3

- Chapter* 1 Preliminaries 4
- Chapter* 2 Getting Ideas 7
- Chapter* 3 Preparing for a Draft 28
- Chapter* 4 Writing a First Draft 47

Unit 2 *Working with a Draft* 63

- Chapter* 5 Focusing on Main Ideas 64
- Chapter* 6 Developing and Shaping Ideas 82
- Chapter* 7 Beginning and Ending Drafts 105

Unit 3 *Reworking the Draft* 121

- Chapter* 8 Revising 122
- Chapter* 9 Polishing Revised Drafts 135

Appendix 4: Sequence of activities in a reading lesson

UNIT ONE

A Place of Your Own

Section 1 Leaving Home

What do you think?

Young school leavers in Britain sometimes leave home to live elsewhere. Why do you think this happens? Do you think it is common? Note down your ideas briefly.

The extract below comes from an article in a magazine for young people in Britain about to leave school.

- 2 What are the advantages and disadvantages of living at home once you are grown up? Consider especially the following:
 - comfort
 - expense
 - independence
 - friends
- 3 Next, make your own personal list of advantages and disadvantages.
- 4 Now read the first three paragraphs and note the advantages and disadvantages of living at home which are mentioned. Did you think of these?

A person's home is as much a reflection of his personality as the clothes he wears, the food he eats and the friends with whom he spends his time. Depending on personality, how people see themselves and how they allow others to see them, most have in mind an 'ideal home'. But in general, and especially for the student or new wage earners, there are practical limitations of cash and location on achieving that idea.

- 10 Cash shortage, in fact, often means that the only way of getting along when you leave school is to stay at home for a while until things improve financially. There are *obvious advantages* to living at home - personal laundry is usually still done along with the family wash, meals are provided and there will be a well-established circle of friends to call upon.
- 15 Parents are often quite generous in asking for a minimum rent, and there is rarely the responsibility for paying fuel bills, rates etc.

(continued)

UNIT ONE

On the other hand, much depends on how a family gets on. Do your parents like your friends? You may love your family- but do you like them? Are you prepared to be tolerant when your parents ask where you are going in the evening and what time you expect to be back? Do they mind if you want to throw a party? If you find you can't manage a workable compromise, and that you finally have the money to leave, how do you go about finding somewhere else to *live*?

5 How *do* you find somewhere else?
Think of three possible ways of finding a place to live.

6 Now read on.

If you plan to stay in your home area, the possibilities are probably well-known to you already. Friends and the local paper are always a good source of information. If you are going to work in a new area, again there are the papers - and the accommodation agencies, though these should be approached with caution. Agencies are allowed to charge a fee, usually the equivalent of the first week's rent, if you take accommodation they have found for you. But some less scrupulous operators may charge you a fee to look at accommodation which may be already occupied when you get there!

For students, many colleges, polytechnics and universities have accommodation officers who will do the necessary hunting. This is a difficult job in some areas where there is a large student population with scant residential provision and few locals who are keen to take students as tenants or boarders. But what sort of accommodation is available?

7 Before reading further, list the different kinds of accommodation you think might be available for young people in Britain.

8 Now read on, ticking off the items on your list as they are mentioned and adding any you had not thought of.

If you like the idea of living with a family (other than your own), or in a small house where there are a few other boarders, digs might be the answer. Good landladies - those who are superb cooks, launderers and surrogate mothers, are figures as popular in fiction as the bad ones who terrorise their guests and overcharge them at the slightest opportunity. The truth is probably somewhere between the two extremes. If you are lucky, the food will be adequate, some of your laundry may be done for you and you will have a reasonable amount of comfort and companionship. For the less fortunate digs may be lonely, house rules may restrict the freedom to invite friends to visit, and shared cooking and bathroom facilities can be frustrating and row-provoking if tidy and untidy guests are living under the same roof.

UNIT ONE

60 The same disadvantages can apply to flatsharing, with the added difficulties which arise from deciding who pays for what, and in what proportion. One person may spend hours on the phone or wallowing in deep, hot baths, while another rarely makes calls and takes cold showers. If you want privacy with a guest, how do you persuade the others to go out; how do you persuade them to leave you in peace, especially if you are a student and want to study.

65 Conversely, flat sharing can be very cheap, there will always be someone to talk to and go out with, and the chores, in theory, can be shared. Even so, if you value privacy and a place of your own where you can put up your own posters, play your favourite music, etc, perhaps it would be better to look for a bedsitter or a flat of your own.

75 The beauty of a bedsit is its simplicity. It is relatively cheap, easy to keep clean, economical to heat since it is usually a single room, and at its best a 'cosy' place to live. At its worst, the bedsit can be cramped and impregnated with cooking smells or cluttered with damp washing. It can also be very lonely if you are not naturally sociable and have moved to a new area.

80 A flat will usually give you more space, but you will have to pay for it, and, like the bedsitter, it can be a lonely start in a extra expense of a flat can be minimal. You will probably have your own washing and cooking facilities, and if the flat is not furnished, there is the fun of going to auctions and junk shops to choose your own furniture.

from *Prospect* 1977

Check your understanding

- KEY 9 Answer these questions. First locate the right part of the text, and then read that part carefully.
- a) What are the disadvantages of a bedsitter?
 - b) Name two problems flatsharers might have.
 - c) What do living in good digs and living at home have in common?
 - d) For what kind of person might a bedsitter be a bad thing?
 - e) What kind of person might prefer a bedsitter to a shared flat?
- KEY 10 Which of the following six statements do you think best sums up the author's point of view?
- i) There are few advantages in living at home after leaving school.
 - ii) Accommodation agencies are the best source of help when looking for somewhere to live.

(continued)

UNIT ONE

- iii) If one cannot live at home the best arrangement is to find a good landlady.
- iv) One should carefully consider the advantages and disadvantages of all kinds of home before making a decision.
- v) Living away from home is very lonely.
- vi) Finding a flat of your own is the best solution of all.

What do you think?

Is the situation described in the extract similar to that in your country? Do young people move away from home, and if so, where do they move to?

Appendix 5: Lesson-report form for structuring of lessons

CLASS _____ DATE _____
GOALS AND CONTENT OF LESSON _____

OPENINGS

The activity I used to open the lesson was _____

The purpose of this activity was _____

The effectiveness of this opening was:

- a) very effective
- b) moderately effective
- c) not very effective

SEQUENCING

The lesson contained the following sequence of activities: _____

The purpose of sequencing the lesson in this way was: _____

The effectiveness of this sequence was:

- a) very effective
- b) moderately effective
- c) not very effective

PACING:

Strategies I use to achieve pacing were _____

The effectiveness of this strategy was:

- a) very effective
- b) moderately effective
- c) not very effective

CLOSURE:

The activity I used to end the lesson was _____

The purpose of this activity was _____

The effectiveness of this closure was:

- a) very effective
- b) moderately effective
- c) not very effective