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#### A JOURNAL THROUGH TULANCINGO

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Master of Arts in Teaching degree at the School for International Training, Brattleboro, Vermont.

This project by Loretta Gray is accepted in its present form.

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Thanks to all of my classmates who took time to talk to me about lesson plans and teaching journals.

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#### ABSTRACT

This professional project analyzes the essential parts of a lesson plan/teaching journal format. It is described using examples from personal experience and examples found through research. This project also asserts the value for using such a format for all those concerned with effective pedagogy: the novice teacher, the experienced teacher, the teachertrainer, and the students.

ERIC descriptors:
Lesson Plans
Objectives
Self Evaluation
Teaching
Teaching Guides
Teaching Procedures

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#### INTRODUCTION

Before embarking on my internship in Tulancingo, Mexico I wrote as one of my professional goals that I hoped to keep a teaching journal; I had no idea that such a journal would become so important to me. The only expectation that I had was that I would use a journal to supply an agenda for the day's classes. Basically, I would answer questions on the whats and hows of my lesson. What would I teach to my beginning class and in what sequence? What would I teach to my advanced classes and how? After keeping a teaching journal for the nine-week internship that I spent in Tulancingo, I discovered that my journal had become much more than an agenda. It had become a diary, a record, a reflection—an essential part of my teaching.

Other graduate students in the Master of Arts in Teaching (M.A.T.) Program at the School for International Training have voiced similar opinions on the value of lesson plans and journals. At the Mid-term Conference in Cordoba, which was a gathering of all interns from a particular region in Mexico, lesson plans and journals were major themes. At this conference, we took extracts from our plans and journals in order to share ideas and techniques with others. We also asked questions of each other on how to create effective lesson plans.

Upon my return and after discussions with other graduate students and faculty members, I discovered that lesson planning

and journaling were not just personal concerns that by coincidence I shared with other graduate students at the Mid-term Conference but rather were central concerns for the entire program: novice teachers, experienced teachers, and faculty. Furthermore, as one classmate pointed out, "Because they [lesson plans and teaching journals] help us, they help our students, too."

The teaching journal I espouse is not just a collection of lesson plans; nor is it merely a conventional journal in which one reflects on one's teaching. Rather, it is both of these combined into a whole. David L. Kellum as quoted in <a href="Teaching Is writes:"Teaching is an art form and the lesson plan is its working sketch. As the soul of art is unity, it is unity that becomes the key to effective lesson planning." In the teaching journal which includes both complete lesson plans and a section for comments goes one step beyond the working sketch in providing unity. Not only does the teacher sketch the outline, but by including remarks on the students' intellectual and affective reception of the lesson, the teacher also provides the finishing touches to a final product.

#### THE TEACHING JOURNAL

During my preparation for my internship in Mexico, I realized that the best way to fulfill my professional goal of keeping a complete and extensive teaching journal was to have some sort of format. The 1982 Site Report described a teaching situation in which there would be a wide variety of classes. I wanted to use a format that would be appropriate for each class and at the same time provide me with one format comprised of the important aspects of each lesson. In other words, I wanted one format for all of my classes that would be effective, efficient, and flexible.

In the past, I had used teaching plans but was never totally satisfied with them. Whether I developed the plan myself or whether I borrowed the format from a book, I always found gaps. Fortunately, however, before I left for Mexico, I was paging through The ESL Miscellany and found what I thought was a very complete lesson plan format that I could develop into a teaching journal. This format included sections for background information; objectives; linguistic, communicative, cultural aspects; pedagogy; and evaluation. To these sections I added three which I had used before from a lesson plan format developed by Celce-Murcia and Gorman. With these additions of "materials, contingency, and comments," I felt I was prepared with a format for journaling that I could use for each class.

Thus the teaching journal described in the following section is a combination of a lesson plan format and a teaching journal. The lesson plan format has been borrowed from The ESL Miscellany's Lesson Plan/Checklist. (See Appendix A.) The additions I made, which include a section for comments, changed this simple lesson plan format into a teaching journal. A sample may be found on the following page. (Also see Appendices B and C.) This journal will be described using examples from my own experience and examples that I have found through research.

	TEACHING JOURNAL	
Materials:	:	
	Background Information:	
	Objectives:	
-	Linguistic Aspect:	
	Communicative Aspect (Situation, Topic, Fu	unction)
7	Cultural Aspect:	
9	Pedagogy:	

Evaluation:

Contingency:

Comments:

#### Background Information

The initial section of each class journal is entitled "Background Information." Knowing the who, where, and when of a class, the teacher is able to prepare a lesson with a particular group and place in mind. For example, one of my entries while teaching in Mexico was simply:

Background Information: Intermediate adults -- Clinica -- Monday and Wednesday at 8:00 p.m.

Any limitations caused by number of students or space are listed in this section. "Background Information" should be noted at the beginning of the class term and omitted in day-to-day plans unless significant changes occur.

In their article "Preparing Lesson Plans," Celce-Murcia and Gorman suggest using a "Cover Sheet" as a means for listing background information. I neglected to use the "Cover Sheet" while in Mexico. When doing my research for this project, however, I came upon old lesson plans of mine that had a cover sheet which I found both interesting and valuable as an introduction to the collection of plans.

The "Cover Sheet" is very complete, noting factors which range from the learning stage to the linguistic/ethnic composition of a class. (See Appendix D.) Since all of the aspects included in the "Cover Sheet" are important for course design, the teacher may find value in using it as a preliminary assessment of the class. Also, the "Cover Sheet" is helpful when the teacher or

the teacher's colleagues use it as a reference. They will be able to see the correlation between class context and class activities. An elaborate acknowledgment of class background should be noted during the first days of class. Periodic reassessment should occur in later weeks thus taking into account possible changes that may occur in the class, such as a reduced enrollment or a drastic change in student motivation caused by strife within the country.

#### Objectives

One of the most important and one of the more difficult sections in the teaching journal is the section on "Objectives." In this section, the why of the lesson is stated. It is important because the learning outcomes hoped for are noted here. The task is sometimes difficult because to write precise objectives requires much thought.

A distinction should be made at this time between general objectives and performance objectives. A general objective is stated in terms broad enough to provide guidelines for teaching without limiting the instructional process. It refers to the state of the learner's awareness, attitude, knowledge, or skills at the end of the lesson. Performance objectives further define the general objective and are stated in specific behavioral terms. The following statements are—examples. 7

General objective: Knows nominal pronouns Performance objectives:

- 1. Classifies pronouns according to number
- 2. Classifies pronouns according to person
- 3. Distinguishes between inflected and uninflected accompanying verb forms

When stating general objectives, the verbs used must be specific enough to provide direction and at the same time be general enough to free the teacher from any restrictions on the actual teaching. Such verbs include: applies, comprehends, knows, understands, and uses. 8 Precision in stating general objectives is of special use

later when creating tests, especially diagnostic tests. For example, "knows registers" might suggest that the students are able to list the various registers whereas "understands registers" suggests that the students are able to use language appropriate to a particular context. Depending on the objective, the teacher may create a test that requires only recall of material or a test that requires a problem-solving capacity.

Performance objectives should be stated in terms of a definite, observable behavior. Action verbs such as "identify," "define," "classify," and "demonstrate" fall under this category. A sufficient number of these performance objectives should be included to adequately describe the achievement of the general objective. These performance objectives are interrelated with class activities, which are presented under "Pedagogy."

There are several common errors that should be avoided when writing objectives. First of all, a subject-matter topic such as "past tense" does not constitute an objective. Lists of subject matter answer the question what, which will be discussed in a following section. A better general objective would be "knows the regular form of past tense verbs."

Writing objectives in the form of the learning process is another error that should be avoided. Verbs like "increase," "gain," and "acquire" focus on the process rather than the outcome of the learning. An objective such as "increases vocabulary" is vague. A better general objective would be "knows definitions of ten new words that describe clothing."

A third pitfall is stating an objective in terms of the teaching. "To show the difference between the direct object and the indirect object" focuses on the teacher rather than the students. However, some objectives may include the teacher as well as the students. For instance, "knows students' names" is relevant for both students and teacher.

The last point to remember is that it is best to limit the scope of objectives to a single directive. 10 The objective "knows and uses contractions" could be evaluated more easily if it were separated into "knows contractions" and "uses contractions."

The various aspects or whats of the lesson follow the list of objectives. These aspects as described in the Miscellany include the linguistic aspect; the communicative aspect, which includes the sub-aspects of situation, topic, and function; and the cultural aspect.

#### Linguistic Aspect

The linguistic aspect is comprised of structures and vocabulary. An example of a beginning lesson might be:

- 1. "to be" verb (meaning and present tense form)
- 2. contractions
- 3. subject pronouns (1, 2, 3 person singular)

Writing down the linguistic aspect of each lesson, the teacher has a record of the grammar sequence used.

While I was in Tulancingo, noting the linguistic aspect often entailed sitting down by myself and writing out the language the students would be using. I would then analyze this language and determine what the students would need to know in order to produce it. For example, I examined the following statements to arrive at the aspects listed above.

I'm Lori. You're Maria. He's Jose.

#### Communicative Aspect

The communicative aspect is divided into three sub-aspects. Situation refers to the context of the message. In this section, the teacher answers the question "Where, when, and with whom will the text of this lesson be used?" Situations range from academia to shops and stores. Within each of these general situations, however, the focus becomes specific. Compare the following examples that are both under the general category "in a restaurant."

- 1) Communicative Aspect:
  Situation--Alone in Mary's Dairy Cafe, a neighborhood
  diner
- 2) Communicative Aspect:
  Situation--With a good friend in The Longwood Inn, an
  exclusive restaurant

The lessons prepared for these two examples would differ in such respects as register and appropriate vocabulary.

Topic, the second sub-aspect, refers to the theme of the lesson. What are students talking/reading/writing about? Topics are almost endless. They include such broad areas as "food" and much more limited areas such as "post office." An awareness of topic generates much of the vocabulary and many of the idioms used in the lesson. Noting the situation influences the degree of formality required of the language and thus narrows the scope of the topic. For example, "food" is a topic that would accompany a restaurant situation. The menu at a neighborhood

diner featuring soups and sandwiches would differ greatly, however, from that of an exclusive restaurant which includes appetizers, pottages, and seafood entrees.

The final communicative sub-aspect is labelled <u>Function</u>.

Functions are what people do with language such as assert, question, command, and persuade. The authors of <u>The ESL Miscellany</u> organize functions into general types:

- A. Basic Needs. Using the language to satisfy basic physical requirements of food, shelter and clothing.
- B. Socializing. Using the language to forge social links with native speakers. At its lowest level it satisfies basic emotional needs.
- C. Metalinguistic. Using the language to deal with the language. Also includes certain fundamental linguistic labels and functions.
- D. Professional. Using the language to make a living.
- E. Cultural. Using the language to deal with the social and cultural milieu. 1

In order to be communicatively competent, students need to understand and use functional language. The functions taught depend on the level and needs of the student. For example, the beginning student might need to perform such functions as stating basic wants and needs, expressing thanks, and asking and telling time. The advanced student would probably want to know more sophisticated functions such as flattering, paraphrasing, and negotiating.

Under <u>Function</u>, notions may also be recognized. In performing functions, people express or refer to certain notions. For example, apologies can be made for "being late," "bumping into someone," or "sneezing."

Whether one, two, or all three of these sub-aspects are noted is determined by the particular lesson. If the general objective of a lesson is "knows body parts," then in this case only one sub-aspect, topic, is written.

Communicative Aspect: Topic--Body parts

If, however, the general objective is "uses appropriate language for asking time," all three sub-aspects must be addressed.

Communicative Aspect:

Basically, noting the situation and function is only relevant when the lesson revolves around communicative acts such as conversations, role plays, and interviews. The topic is usually included in each lesson since it generates the vocabulary.

#### Cultural Aspect

In the previous section on the communicative aspect, much cultural information has already been incorporated into the lesson. Situations and topics are culturally bound. Whereas grocery shopping for most people in the United States occurs "at the store," for many other cultures it takes place "at the market." Also, functions performed are dependent upon cultural factors. In some cultures, there may be restrictions which do not exist in other cultures on who performs a particular function.

Conscious of the cultural aspect, the teacher can include it in the lesson. For example, a cultural note on greetings in a lesson to Mexican students might take the following form:

Cultural Aspect: Unless the relationship is very close, a handshake rather than an embrace is appropriate.

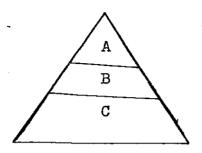
This cultural aspect may then be manifest in the lesson through an explanation or through a dramatization comparing the conventional Mexican embrace with the conventional American handshake.

#### Pedagogy

The linguistic, communicative, and cultural aspects listed above represent the content of the teaching. The next section, "Pedagogy," constitutes the form. The how of the lesson is answered here.

When writing lesson plans, all teachers include notes on pedagogical procedure. Some simply write down the names of the activities; others write elaborate step-by-step procedures. Since most novice teachers do not have a repertoire of activities to draw upon, they often find addressing this section very time consuming. As they become more proficient in their teaching, they do not have to write as much in this section because they have internalized certain techniques. For example, after finding a procedure that works well with minimal pairs and working with this procedure often, the teacher would not need to write down each step.

Each lesson may take a variety of forms. Factors such as texts, material, time, and teaching style all influence the form. Often the teacher will follow the lesson plan outlined in the course textbook. For other teachers, though, some general guidelines are helpful. Pat Moran, and ESL teacher-trainer at the School for International Training, presents guidelines for preparing lessons in the form of a pyramidal diagram. 12



- A. Presentation Stage
- B. Practice Stage
- C. Use Stage

According to Moran, the three parts of this pyramid represent the three essential aspects of any learning activity and the amount of time each should be allotted. <sup>13</sup> The first stage, the "Presentation Stage," is an overview of the lesson. The teacher, first of all, helps the students focus on the meaning of the material presented. This initial stage may not require student production. Techniques that are most often used in conveying meaning include visual aids, demonstrations, and explanations in either the native language or the target language.

The teacher also makes sure the students understand the purpose and the mechanics of the activity. Clear, concise explanations, directions, and examples help the students know what they are to do and why. The "Presentation Stage" creates readiness and motivation for a learning activity.

The next stage of the pyramidal diagram is the "Practice Stage." The students are now called on for production although in very controlled exercises. Many of the exercises take the form of drills which focus on the ability to use patterns. The amount of structure incorporated into the drill depends on the performance objective as well as on the students' level and

fluency. Verbatim repetition drills are the most controlled. 14
For example, to give students the opportunity to become accustomed to the rhythm of the language, one use of jazz chants requires that students repeat a verbal cue exactly. On the other end of the continuum, free response drills are the least controlled. 15
Such drills are designed to practice a specific pattern, but there is no guarantee that the student will use the target pattern. In a free response drill that has the use of BE-present as its objective, the cue and ideal response might be as follows.

Teacher: Describe your sister.

Student: She is pretty.

She is nineteen years old.

She is a student.

In this example, however, the student may respond with the equally correct answer "She has brown eyes."

Contexts are even less controlled in the "Use Stage." In this last stage, students are asked to use and apply their knowledge to respond with appropriate language. Role plays, discussions, and games are a few of the techniques used in this stage.

Of the three stages, ideally the "Presentation Stage" is allotted the least amount of time and the "Use Stage" is allotted the most. The following example is a 45-minute lesson. (General Objective: Knows words for facial parts.)

Presentation:

5 -Drawing of face on blackboard.
minutes -Teacher elicits/names each of

-Teacher elicits/names each of the facial parts.

Students listen only.

Practice:

-Teacher says name and touches corresponding part
on own face; students touch same part.
Teacher says name and touches corresponding part

-Teacher says name and touches corresponding part; students repeat name and touch part.

-Teacher touches part; students touch part and say name.

Use:

-Teacher divides group into teams.

25 minutes

-One student from each group goes to the blackboard and draws the part that the teacher says.

-If time, students erase the part the teacher says.

The boundaries between the three stages are not solid and often one stage overlaps another. Also, time allotment does not always conform to the pyramidal model. On some days, "Practice" may require the majority of time.

The pyramidal diagram is not only valuable for designing an entire lesson, but it is also helpful in structuring activities within a lesson. In Tulancingo, teaching first graders with short attention spans made it necessary for me to plan several different activities. In one hour it was not unusual to have activities focusing on the alphabet, the numbers, and the colors. I found it beneficial to keep the pyramid in mind when structuring these activities so that time spent on each stage (presentation, practice, and use) was insured.

Besides step-by-step procedures, under "Pedagogy" blackboard design may be considered. Since students often copy verbatim what is written on the blackboard, it is essential to use it effectively. Both structural paradigms and illustrations may be planned in this section. Not very deft at drawing, I practiced sketching all of my illustrations, from pictures of fruit to maps of the United States.

#### Evaluation

This section of the teaching journal, "Evaluation," takes into account the earlier section on objectives. "How will I know if the objectives have been achieved?" is the question answered under "Evaluation."

It is this on-going evaluation, which occurs day-to-day, activity-to-activity, that is addressed in this section. Common types of on-going evaluation include affective cues such as nods and other gestures of understanding. However, these cues can often be deceiving; therefore, some other kinds of evaluation should be built into the lesson. If specific performance objectives have been written, noting means for evaluation is relatively easy. For example, if the performance objective is "distinguishes aurally between /b/ and /v/," then evaluation could be noted as follows:

Evaluation: Responds in minimal pair drills by raising correct number of fingers.

If the teacher wants to note what is considered as a "passing" performance, a notation such as "fifty percent of the time" might be added to the above statement. Evaluation occurs at those points in the lesson-usually the junctures between activities--when the teacher wants verification that the students understand well enough to proceed.

Whether the means for evaluation are written down or not, they should always be considered when creating one's lesson.

Delineating specific evaluation techniques enables the teacher to

be conscious of and thus to discover immediately whether or not the material has been learned. The teacher can then reteach or reinforce any of the material necessary for adequate performance. On-going evaluation also benefits the students since they can see what they did not understand and what they need to practice or restudy. All of the sections listed so far (Background Information; Objectives; Linguistic, Communicative, Cultural Aspects; Pedagogy; and Evaluation) were derived from <u>The ESL Miscellany</u>. The following three sections (Contingency, Materials, and Comments) were obtained from a lesson plan format by Celce-Murcia and Gorman. 17

### Contingency

Listing some sort of contingency exercise prepares the teacher for a lesson in which the planned exercises are completed sooner than expected or in which they are not effective and thus are not completed. Back-up plans may be games, songs, or variations on the exercises already prepared. In TPR lessons in which the general objective is "knows body parts," the following example, if not part of the actual lesson, could be considered as a contingency plan.

Contingency: The Hoky-Poky song
Since each lesson usually builds on the previous day's lesson, an additional value of contingency plans is that if they are not used they often can make up part of the next day's activities.

#### Materials

This section serves as a reminder. Thorough lesson plans are not helpful when the visual and/or audio aids needed are forgotten. Listing the materials on the top of the page in brightly colored ink practically insures remembrance. The following example might be used if planning a pronunciation lesson.

Materials: sound-color chart, pointer, masking tape

#### Comments

"Comments" is the section which turns a lesson plan format into a journal. Here the teacher reflects on the past lesson.

Many teachers keep separate teaching journals. Often, however, comments written in separate journals turn personal rather than stay focused on the lesson plans. Keeping a section for journaling along with the lesson plans insures the teacher's response to the lesson. Room can also be provided for personal journaling and for observations of students.

The teaching journal, then, can take three different focuses: pedagogical, personal, and student-oriented. Within pedagogy itself two aspects may be examined. First of all, comments on the lesson plans, primarily centering around activities, are helpful. What are the parts of the lesson that were effective? What are ways in which the lesson could be improved? Addressing the first question, an excerpt from my internship journal reads:

Comments (2/9/83):

Recording the role play and playing it back for the students worked well. The students were able to correct themselves. Elvira said recording helped her because it helped her understand the mistakes she was making. Without hearing the recording, she didn't realize she was making mistakes.

By noting what parts of the lesson were effective, the teacher is able to keep records of techniques that will be useful in future lessons.

I also included recommendations for the improvement of activities.

Comments (2/14/83):

Students seemed confused by the sound-color chart. It would have probably been more effective if I would have introduced fewer sound-color correspondences. Next time-review all correspondences and perhaps bring in minimal pair drills as supplements.

Along with recommendations for improvement, a few suggestions for follow-up lessons may be included. By writing a few possible directions the lesson might take, the teacher will not be confronted the next time lessons are planned by the sometimes overwhelming question "What next?"

The second aspect of pedagogy that may be commented upon is the actual teaching. Similar questions are examined. What parts of the teaching were effective/positive? How can the teaching be improved? A note on the effectiveness of my teaching in Tulancingo reads:

Comments (1/24/83):

Presenting myself as a dancer from New York to demonstrate to students how to introduce themselves was scary. Stage fright! It went well, though. Students enjoyed it. The energy level in the room seemed to raise afterwards. Maybe the more I use dramatics, the more comfortable I'll feel.

This same journal entry also includes suggestions for improvement.

Comments (1/24/83):

A little too much teacher-talk today. Instead of telling students what they should say, it might have been better to elicit through questions what they already know how to say.

After pedagogical issues have been examined, the teacher may

also want to write about personal feelings. Journaling in this way can provide an emotional release.

Comments (1/12/83):

Anger! Discipline problems galore. From the moment I walked in everything was a buzz. And they never quieted down: I really can't see teaching a class in which the students don't want to be there. Do I really want to teach at all?...Perhaps ways to get attention at the beginning of class would be to sing a song. Maybe the name game "Who is?" will work.

Just the act of writing may have a cathartic effect. In the example above, I was able to release my frustration so by the end of the entry I was able to find some constructive suggestions for classroom management. In effect, then, writing can also provide a way to work through problems. Since I also kept a personal journal, I did not include remarks about my personal experience with my host family and with the Mexican culture in this section.

Besides addressing pedagogical and personal issues, I also found observations of students helpful to my teaching. These observations can range from notations on academic improvement to remarks about affective behavior.

Comments (1/10/83):

I'm not sure whether (an adult) will come every time. She has seemed to resist attempting to speak English from the beginning. She'll need lots of individual encouragement.

Maintaining an awareness to students' intellectual, emotional, physical, and spiritual needs and interests, teachers are able to use teaching styles appropriate and effective for students' learning styles.

#### CONCLUSION

The teaching journal is of value for all concerned with effective pedagogy: the novice teacher, the experienced teacher, the teacher-trainer, and the students. For the intern, knowing the whats, whys, and hows of the lesson provides security upon entering the classroom for the first time. Not knowing whether my adult students would be beginners or intermediates, on the first day of my internship I planned two lessons in order to feel adequately prepared. Thus I escaped some of the initial anxiety.

Since internships are periods for experimentation, journaling after the lesson has been presented also enables teachers to comment on the outcome of their experiments. For instance, while I was in Mexico I found that TPR worked well with all age groups. Upon my return I discovered that many of my classmates had success with TPR as well. My journal enabled me to recall and thus share what sorts of activities I designed and in what sequence I ordered them.

For the teacher-trainer or supervisor, the intern's journal serves as a reference after classroom observation. Reviewing the journal together, the supervisor and the intern hold a focused dialogue on the teaching that has taken place. The discussion may touch several issues; relevancy of objectives, effectiveness of activities, and appropriateness of evaluation being only a few.

During one visit, my supervisor, after looking at my lesson plan, was able to point out to me that I was not including enough time for students to practice the structures I was presenting. This was the first exposure I had to the pyramidal diagram, which I have described earlier under "Pedagogy." Since the journal helped my recall, I was also able to discuss in detail what material had already been covered and any problems I was having.

The teaching journal has value not only for the novice teacher and the teacher-trainer but for the experienced teacher as well. I plan to use it throughout my teaching career as a means for self-critique. Such a practice I believe is essential for continued improvement in teaching which ultimately benefits the students. Complete journals assist teachers to provide effective and efficient lessons.

The essentials of a complete teaching journal as described earlier are only starting points. Each individual must take such an outline and modify it to best meet his/her own needs. I have found that the more I have worked with this format, the more refined it has become. For instance, just through the process of writing this professional project, my listing of objectives has become more specific, differentiating general objectives from performance objectives.

I have also discovered that I have internalized the structure of this format. In Tulancingo, I taught five different types of classes ranging from a formal class of first graders that met once a week to an informal class of adults that met for two nights a

week. Adequate preparation for this variety of classes meant that I kept five teaching journals. Having internalized this format, I found that often I was planning parts of my class as I walked through the market or as I walked around the Zocalo. Later when I sat down to write lessons, I mainly wrote out the lesson that I had already planned in my head.

Keeping journals has been helpful for me as a teacher; it has also been an enjoyable experience. In Tulancingo, some of my best lesson planning and journaling occurred while sitting at a cafe table just off the Zocalo. Finding that perfect place where quiet, paper, and ink abounded, I embarked on a journey through the realm of teaching.

## APPENDIX A

## LESSON PLAN/CHECKLIST 18

BACKGROUND INFORMATION/NOTES: (WHO, WHERE, WHEN)

OBJECTIVE: (WHY)

LINGUISTIC ASPECT: (WHAT #1)

COMMUNICATIVE ASPECT: (WHAT #2)

- A. SITUATION
- B. TOPIC
- C. FUNCTION

CULTURAL ASPECT: (WHAT #3)

PEDAGOGY: (HOW)

EVALUATION:

## APPENDIX B

## Teaching Journal

Materials:		
	Background Information:	
	Objectives:	
	Linguistic Aspect:	
	Communicative Aspect (Situation, Topic, Function):	
	Cultural Aspect:	
	Pedagogy:	
	······································	
	Evaluation:	
	Contingency:	

Comments:

#### APPENDIX C

#### Teaching Journal (sample)

Materials: rods, alphabet cards, colored chalk

Background Information:

1. Beginners

2. 30 first graders

3. Plancarte (Catholic primary school in Tulancingo, Mexico)

 $ar{4}$ . Meets one day per week for one hour

#### Objectives:

1. Knows words for colors (review)
 -indicates through physical response
 -produces the word orally

2. Knows alphabet (review) -produces the letter orally

3. Knows numbers 1-30 (review) -indicates through physical response -produces the number orally

4. Knows six new words for fruit

-indicates through physical response

-produces the word orally

-translates Spanish word into English

Linguistic Aspect: ---

Communicative Aspect:

Topic--colors alphabet numbers fruit

Cultural Aspect: possible confusion banana=platano; plantain=banana

Pedagogy:

I. Review colors

A. Hand out rods to first person in each row; say color; students in row raise hand if their color is called.

B. Hold up rod; students produce word orally.

II. Review alphabet in random order

A. Hold up card; students produce letter orally.

B. Retest those cards which students have trouble with.

III. Review numbers

A. Say numbers; students hold up fingers.

B. Hold up fingers; students say numbers.

C. Write numbers on board; students say numbers.

#### IV. New words

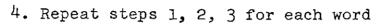
- A. Presentation
  - 1. Say word; dramatize eating action and rub stomach (used here in order to create mood rather than meaning).
  - 2. Students repeat.
  - Draw on board apple orang

.

banana

lime

pineapple grapes



B. Practice

1. Point to picture; elicit word.

2. Say word; students repeat.

3. Label picture; students copy in notebook.

4. Erase words; students close notebooks; say word; students point.

5. Point to picture; students say.

6. Teacher: Como se dice \_\_\_\_\_ en ingles?

#### Evaluation:

- 1. oral responses
- 2. physical responses
- 3. translation

#### Contingency:

Review words (pen, pencil, book, notebook)

#### Comments:

Review was necessary. I reviewed colors receptively and productively. I also added "gray" since I was wearing a gray sweater. Students seem to have a good handle on colors.

As far as numbers--some students knew more than others. It might not be a bad idea to make up some number cards for review. We practiced numbers out of sequence as well as in sequence.

The alphabet went well except for "g," "h," and "j." I'll pull those out first next time. Maybe next time I'll also try without the cards.

The children enjoyed drawing the fruit. I'll have to review this for sure next time. I know students know what my pictures were because they translated. I think they will enjoy reviewing next time.

#### Next time:

Number cards

Pictures of fruit

This and that?

How do I answer the question "What is (What's) that?" It is (It's) an orange, or That is (That's) an orange.

Also plurals for next time.

I didn't get to contingency plans.

#### APPENDIX D

## COVER SHEET 19

Student Teacher:

Regular Teacher:

Supervising/Coordinating Teacher:

School:

Class:

Learning Stage of Class:

Age Level of Class:

Size of Class:

Linguistic/Ethnic Composition of Class:

Other Relevant Factors: (e.g., syllabus, class texts, examination system, degree of student motivation, reason(s) for studying English, literacy level, etc.)

#### NOTES

1David F. Kellum quoted in Merrill Harmon and Tom Gregory, Teaching Is... (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1974), p. 47.

<sup>2</sup>This report written by Rebecca Reagan described the teaching situation she encountered in Tulancingo as an intern in 1982.

3Raymond C. Clark, Patrick R. Moran, and Arthur A. Burrows, The ESL Miscellany (Brattleboro, Vermont: Pro Lingua Associates, 1981), p. 6.

Marianne Celce-Murcia and Thomas P. Gorman, "Preparing Lesson Plans," in <u>Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language</u>, ed. Marianne Celce-Murcia and Lois McIntosh (Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1979), p. 297.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 295.

6The following information on objectives is based on Norman E. Gronlund's Stating Objectives For Classroom Instruction.

<sup>7</sup>I prefer to use the present tense in stating objectives. The infinitive, the future tense, or BE+adjective phrase might also be used.

8 Norman E. Gronlund, Stating Objectives For Classroom Instruction (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1978), p. 10.

9<u>Ibid.</u>, p. 25.

10<sub>Ibid.</sub>, p. 9.

ll Clark, Moran, and Burrows, p. 133. The authors of The ESL Miscellany explain how a student at any level (i.e., Beginner, Advanced Beginner, Intermediate, or Advanced) uses these types of functions.

12Patrick Moran, A Framework for Language Teaching (n.p.: n.p., 1981), pp. 2,3.

<sup>13</sup><u>Ibid.</u>, pp. 2,3.

14 Christina Bratt Paulston and Mary Newton Bruder, Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and Procedures (Cambridge: Winthrop Publishers, Inc., 1976), p. 12.

- 15<sub>Ibid.</sub>, p. 30.
- 16 Clark, Moran, and Burrows, p. 6.
- 17 Celce-Murcia and Gorman, p. 297.
- 18 Clark, Moran, and Burrows, p. 6.
- 19 Celce-Murcia and Gorman, p. 297.

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