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Guided Discovery Grammar Instruction: A Review of the Literature with Original Teaching Materials

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Guided Discovery Grammar Instruction
A Review of the Literature with Original Teaching Materials

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March, 2013

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Master of Arts in TESOL degree at
the SIT Graduate Institute, Brattleboro, Vermont.

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Abstract

Although grammar instruction is a hotly debated facet of language teaching, a review of Second Language Acquisition, Foreign Language Instruction, and Educational Psychology literature reveals that inductive explicit grammar instruction is a viable method, which can generate positive learning outcomes. Studies have shown that learners tend to learn grammar more accurately and faster through explicit instruction. By utilizing inductive techniques, teachers can create a student-centered classroom that encourages critical thinking and problem solving, in addition to language study. With these principles in mind, I have created a series of guided discovery grammar worksheets, accompanied by the procedure and teaching notes for instructors, as well as sample lesson plans to illustrate how the worksheets can fit into a larger context.

Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) Descriptors:

English (Second Language)
Second Language Learning
Grammar
Teacher Developed Materials
Second Language Instruction
Instructional Materials

Special thanks to James Stakenburg, my first teacher trainer, for introducing me to the idea of guided discovery handouts; Carla Fang, for encouraging me to begin this project; and Ray Clark, for providing me with useful feedback during the writing process.

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Guided Discovery Grammar Instruction

A Review of the Literature with Original Teaching Materials

Theories about and methods of teaching grammar, or in some cases not teaching it, have abounded over the years from Grammar Translation to the Audiolingual Method (ALM) to The Natural Approach to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Indeed, this hotly-debated topic continues to stir controversy in the fields of English as a Second Language (ESL), English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Second Language Acquisition (SLA), and related fields. A historical review of grammar instruction, in fact of language instruction in general, shows several pendulum swings between competing ideas and a long list of respected researchers who have positioned themselves on one side or the other of several debates within the field. I tend to favor a more pragmatic, blended approach, which takes into account the differences in context, students' learning preferences and cognitive ability, students' needs, instructor's teaching philosophy, and stakeholders' expectations that inform language teachers' pedagogic decisions. However, I do personally favor an approach that encourages inductive learning, meaningful communication in the classroom, learner autonomy, and the development of critical thinking and problem-solving skills, while utilizing some explicit instruction to facilitate those abilities. With that in mind, I have created a series of grammar worksheets designed to assist learners in acquiring the grammatical objective of each worksheet through guided discovery of the form and meaning of the grammatical structure. In addition to learning about the specific grammatical target of each worksheet, learners are able to hone their linguistic problem-solving skills and become more aware of and apt to notice the structure of English.

The idea of using a guided discovery grammar worksheet to introduce a new structure was first proposed to me by my teacher trainer while I was enrolled in a TESOL certificate

program. I was new to language teaching and wanted to try everything, so I created a worksheet for my next practice teaching session. Quickly convinced of the usefulness of this technique, I added it to my permanent repertoire and used it occasionally in subsequent teaching contexts.

Several years later, while teaching in China, I found this technique especially useful. My high school students were struggling in their courses and seemed to lack fundamental study skills. I felt that I could serve them best by helping them develop problem-solving skills, learning strategies, critical thinking and learner autonomy. While planning ways to scaffold problem-solving, the idea occurred to me to use guided discovery grammar instruction. The students were accustomed to learning grammar rules and had a pretty good understanding of basic meta-language, so I knew that those aspects would not intimidate them. I thought that by guiding them step by step to solve grammar “problems,” I would also be helping them to develop the discipline to unpack larger issues systematically, to understand how to break tasks down into smaller steps, to generalize principles from examples, and, regarding language specifically, to pay attention to input as a way to glean linguistic information independent of formal instruction.

I was pleased with the results and decided to present the technique to a group of teachers at a professional development workshop. Instruction in China is still very much the traditional deductive approach, with many language teachers presenting information to passive students who rarely speak and do only grammar exercises and translation for homework. Things are beginning to change, and many new teachers have been trained in inductive teaching methods, but they often struggle with putting that training into practice. Several teachers at my session were very excited about my worksheets, and one suggested I make a photocopiable booklet of worksheets with instructions for use available for teachers. In response to her suggestion I created the materials and procedure included below.

In creating these materials, I was working under two assumptions about language teaching and learning. The first assumption was that explicit attention to form is beneficial to language acquisition. The second was that an inductive, guided discovery approach to form is at least as useful as, perhaps favorable to, traditional teacher-fronted grammar explanations. Through a review of the Second Language Acquisition (SLA), educational psychology, and foreign language teaching literature, I have found much support for those assumptions, which I had previously formed through anecdotal observations in the classroom and my own learning experiences. I maintain that some explicit focus on grammatical form is beneficial and that guided discovery grammar tasks do facilitate second language (L2) acquisition, particularly when embedded in a larger, communicative, meaning-focused lesson.

The Case for Explicit Grammar Instruction

At the core of the debate over implicit versus explicit instruction is a debate about implicit versus explicit knowledge. That is, intuitive knowledge that cannot easily be explained by the user as opposed to declarative knowledge that a learner understands cognitively. The Interface Hypothesis, as described by R. Ellis (2005), broke this debate down into three main schools of thought: the non-interface position most famously supported by Stephen Krashen, who posits that explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge are completely unrelated and one does not lead to the other; the strong interface position most commonly associated with Robert DeKeyser, who claims that explicit knowledge is learned first and turns into implicit knowledge through skill-building practice; and the weak interface position favored by Robert Ellis and Nick Ellis among others, who assert that explicit knowledge prepares the learner's mind to acquire implicit knowledge by raising awareness and promoting noticing. Proponents of the weak interface position, including Larsen-Freeman (2003) have pointed out that cognitive preparation

is especially useful in the case of less salient structures and those structures that differ from the learner's first language (L1) equivalent.

Evaluating whether learners are using implicit or explicit knowledge is extremely difficult, if not impossible; therefore, to test these ideas studies have compared the effects of explicit instruction with those of implicit or no instruction. Time and again, explicit grammar focus, regardless of type of instruction, has yielded better results than purely implicit instruction with no grammar focus, pointing to the credibility of the two interface positions (strong and weak) and leading many researchers away from supporting the non-interface position. It seems that awareness helps learners acquire grammatical structures.

DeKeyser & Juffs (2005) have asserted that the implicit-explicit dichotomy should actually be viewed as more of a continuum. They have claimed that different types of learners use explicit knowledge to different degrees and with varying amounts of success. Learners with good working memories can access and use explicit knowledge during spontaneous communication, whereas learners who lack strong working memories may not be able to do so with as much success. Countering Krashen, they cited many studies (Macrory & Stone, 2000; Krashen & Pon, 1975; Bialystok, 1979; Green & Hecht, 1992; Renon, 2000) that support the idea that learners do use explicit knowledge while communicating. DeKeyser (as cited in DeKeyser & Juffs, 2005) has argued that methodological issues, not explicit instruction, are the cause of the negative results of explicit instruction in some studies. In addition, for explicit knowledge to become automated takes a very long time; therefore, more longitudinal studies are needed to show the positive effects that explicit knowledge has on language acquisition. Nassaji & Fotos (2011) cited studies by R. Ellis and Pienemann which also posit that explicit knowledge assists acquisition and does in fact become implicit knowledge. Fotos (1993) went on to

reference several researchers, most notably Ellis, who show that explicit knowledge becomes implicit over time. Ellis (as cited in Fotos 1993) put forth a three-step theory for acquisition of a new structure which illustrates the process of explicit knowledge becoming implicit:

1. Learners must first become aware of a structure and form an explicit representation of it in their minds.
2. Once they own this explicit knowledge, they will continue to notice the structure in subsequent input.
3. This noticing eventually leads to acquisition of the form and fully automated use over time.

Subscribing to Ellis' theory does not preclude admitting the possibility that some grammar acquisition can and does happen without the learner's explicit awareness. By examining several large-scale literature reviews, however, we can see that the evidence overwhelmingly supports the efficacy of explicit instruction. Norris & Ortega (2000) reviewed 49 studies completed between 1980 and 1998 investigating the effectiveness of different types of instruction. They concluded that focused instruction brings large and long-term gains, with explicit instruction yielding superior results over implicit. Nassaji & Fotos (2011) cited 30 years of empirical evidence that points to the positive effects of focusing learners' attention on form, including studies by R. Ellis; Larsen-Freeman and Long; and Long. The studies showed that learners acquire language faster and more accurately with explicit attention to form. Alfieri, Brooks and Aldrich (2011) analyzed 164 studies of explicit instruction, unassisted discovery learning (purely implicit) and enhanced discovery learning in a wide range of educational domains, which included verbal skills but did not examine language learning specifically, and found that explicit

instruction yielded far superior results to unassisted discovery. In fact, participants who experienced unassisted discovery (completely implicit instruction) fared worse than all other participants in every domain and through every type of assessment. R. Ellis (2006) cited a number of studies that support the idea that grammar instruction leads to quicker and higher levels of proficiency when compared to uninstructed methods. Fotos (1993) asked whether explicit grammar knowledge leads to more noticing in communicative input, a crucial step in acquisition identified by several researchers. Looking at three instructional groups – traditional teacher-fronted, consciousness-raising tasks, and no focus on grammar – she found that the answer is yes. Both grammar task and traditional lesson groups performed significantly better than the purely communicative group in noticing and proficiency, as measured by pre, post, and delayed final tests. Neither of the two grammar focus groups performed significantly better than the other.

The failures of immersion programs, widely discussed in the literature, further prove the need for explicit instruction. Referring to Canadian immersion programs, Swain (as cited in Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2002) asserts that “learners need to do more than to simply engage in communicative language use; they also need to attend to form” (p. 3). According to Swain, learners do not generally attain high levels of linguistic competence through purely communicative instruction. Even in environments where the input is rich with target forms, as in the immersion studies, students often fail to acquire those forms accurately.

We can see a similar issue in foreign language instruction. Mitchell (2000) discussed foreign language instruction in the U.K., which has followed a similar trajectory to ESL in the US. Like their U.S. ESL counterparts, foreign language instructors in the U.K. have moved away from a behaviorist model to a communicative focus, and, also mirroring the ESL world,

many instructors distrust techniques that suggest a return to previous methods. Mitchell went on to observe a trend to make language learning more immediate as compared to “the delayed gratification resulting from years of grammar study” (p. 285). The general sense is that “learning outcomes are disappointing, and that the curriculum may be too narrowly focused on pragmatic communicative goals” (p. 288). She reported that even with such a focus on communication, many students fail to achieve communicative ability. She reviewed a study which consisted of over 500 school visits, during which it was found that students showed insufficient language gains and their grammar specifically was not showing improvement. Despite these outcomes, many teachers are reluctant to return to a more grammar focused syllabus.

It is clear that focusing purely on communication and meaning has negative effects. It is also clear that focusing exclusively on form with no connection to meaning has negative effects, which is what led to reluctance toward grammar teaching in many teachers and learners. But we must face the fact that there are compelling reasons to spend a portion of our classroom time on explicit grammar instruction. Focusing on meaning and structure at the same time is difficult, if not impossible, for most learners (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2002). Referring to VanPatten, Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2002) explained that learners tend to prioritize meaning during communicative activities. Therefore, if we accept that learners benefit from explicit awareness of grammatical forms, it follows that learners will benefit from having their attention explicitly drawn to form in the midst of communicative activities, during which they may otherwise fail to become aware of the grammar..

Furthermore, communication can often be successful without the use of a specific form and without any negotiation of meaning, leading learners to avoid using troublesome forms in favor of easier, though perhaps not quite accurate, ones (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2002). In this

case, “didactic focus-on-form may be needed to provide sufficient opportunities for students to attend to form” (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2002, p. 12). Larsen-Freeman (2003), among others, views some structures as requiring more explicit instruction than others, such as forms that are not easily noticed and those whose use differs from the learner’s L1 equivalent. Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2002) explained that “Students are more likely to notice the form that is being addressed if the focus is made explicit” (p. 430).

MacWhinney (1997) has advocated a combination of explicit and implicit instruction, calling this combination a “no-lose proposition.” He has not located any evidence that explicit instruction combined with implicit brings about worse results than implicit alone. Moreover, he stated that the implicit instruction research shows that some learning can happen implicitly, but nothing in that research suggests that explicit instruction does not support that process. Combined with the numerous studies referenced above, MacWhinney’s pragmatic approach seems a sensible choice. To those who advocate a natural approach, Larsen-Freeman (2003) has countered that just because language learning can occur unassisted does not mean we should try to emulate that experience in the classroom. Teachers provide an enhanced environment; we should be offering something more than naturalistic learning. That is why students come to a teacher. Our classrooms should assist learners in acquiring language more quickly and more accurately than they would without formal instruction.

The Benefits of Guided Discovery

Assuming we accept that explicit grammar instruction is beneficial for L2 acquisition, we still have to answer the question of how to present that explicit knowledge to learners. Must we present grammar using traditional teacher-fronted presentations and employing the PPP (present,

practice, produce) framework? That is certainly one option, but I support a more student-centered inductive approach to developing explicit grammar knowledge: guided discovery. There are many benefits to this approach, in addition to the acquisition of grammatical knowledge.

Alfieri, Brooks and Aldrich (2011) defined discovery learning as any situation where the learner must “find [the target information] independently and with only the provided materials” (p. 2). The instructor can provide different amounts and different types of guidance. However, unguided discovery has generally been found unproductive (Mayer, 2004). Many possibilities exist for guided grammar discovery activities. The materials included below are one example.

In a recent comprehensive analysis of 164 studies, Alfieri, Brooks and Aldrich (2011) found that across a variety of educational domains (including math, verbal skills, science, computer skills and others) and age groups (children, adolescents and adults), greater learning occurred in groups where some form of “enhanced discovery” was utilized (including guided discovery, as well as other methods). The authors compared students who experienced enhanced discovery with others who experienced unassisted discovery (also known as pure discovery) and still others who experienced traditional explicit instruction. The groups that experienced enhanced discovery methods of instruction, including guided discovery handouts similar to those included below, fared better than learners who experienced the other methods of instruction. The authors concluded that “the construction of explanations or participation in guided discovery is better for learners than being provided with an explanation” (p. 11), though they warn that learners will usually require more time to form the necessary explanations and complete the task.

Alfieri, Brooks and Aldrich (2011) have also posited that this type of learning may actually mirror natural learning that occurs outside of the classroom environment, suggesting that people learn behavior and information on a daily basis through what they call “guided participation” (p. 12), but that this type of learning is so subtle and naturally a part of our lives that we don’t notice it. Enhancing the skill of discovering is therefore useful for many facets of life. Citing several other scholars, including Jerome Bruner, who is generally recognized as the father of discovery learning, the authors have suggested that discovering is a skill that can be developed and should be taught and practiced. Instructors need to model this skill, showing learners how to proceed through the process of discovering knowledge. Using guided discovery on a regular basis in the classroom will enable learners to hone this skill, which can be transferred to any environment both within and outside of formal education.

One of the early complaints about discovery learning was the lack of focus in discovery activities. In fact, cognitive overload, wrong answers and general confusion are real dangers in discovery-based methods. For this reason, Mayer (2004) has called for “guidance, structure and focused goals” (p. 4). In his 2004 article in *American Psychologist*, Mayer examined the effects of discovery learning in three content areas throughout the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s. He reviewed several studies and surmised that learners “need enough freedom to become cognitively active...and...enough guidance so that their cognitive activity results in the construction of useful knowledge” (p. 3). In considering the idea of active learning, he separated this concept into cognitively active and behaviorally active and found that while in many classrooms students were behaviorally active, they were not necessarily cognitively active in a focused manner. He summarized his findings this way: “The constructivist view of learning may be best supported by methods of instruction that involve cognitive activity rather than behavioral activity, instructional

guidance rather than pure discovery, and curricular focus rather than unstructured exploration” (p. 1).

Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen (2002) stated that “a discovery-based approach to teaching explicit knowledge has much to recommend it” (p. 164), including greater memorability of rules that learners have “discovered” on their own, active student engagement, development of problem-solving and critical thinking skills and increased motivation. Slamecka and Graf’s generation effect (as cited in Alfieri, Brooks, & Aldrich, 2011) has also proposed that information is more memorable when learning is generated by the learner. Moreover, Thornbury (2011) has explained that “practice in identifying patterns in naturally-occurring data, and hypothesising [*sic*] rules from these patterns, is undoubtedly useful preparation for self-directed and autonomous learning” (para. 11)

Many students enjoy this mental activity, as anecdotal evidence has suggested many times. An EFL teacher in Malta explained his own language learning thus: “I like finding out about rules myself. It helps if I can perceive patterns, it really helps me [*sic*]. And I think that’s true of many students...” (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, p. 93). In my own language learning this is also true. The act of perceiving a pattern and extrapolating a rule is inherently satisfying for many learners, increasing motivation and confidence.

Fotos (1993) found that learners who solved grammar problems together to generate rules and learners who received traditional explicit teacher-fronted grammar lessons both fared significantly better in noticing and proficiency assessments than a control group who received no grammar instruction, but that there was little difference between the two grammar instruction groups. Both the guided discovery group and the traditional instruction group showed immediate

and lasting improvements. However, the guided instruction groups had more communicative opportunities in discussing the grammar tasks with their classmates and teachers. In her 1992 study, Fotos (as cited in Fotos, 1993) found that guided discovery learners actually gained proficiency when compared to those who had experienced teacher-fronted grammar lessons, though how significant the gains were is unclear. Fotos and Ellis (1991) have explained that grammar tasks of this type follow the current trends in general educational psychology, as well as offer learners meaningful content to discuss as opposed to the sometimes trivial and often repeated content associated with traditional ESL/EFL activities.

In order for guided discovery grammar lessons to be successful, instructors must carefully plan activities, making the correct amount and type of information available for learners to successfully perceive the patterns in the language. Scrivener (as cited in Thornbury, 2011) advises teachers that “guided discovery is demanding on both you and the learner, and although it may look artless to a casual observer, it isn’t enough to throw a task at the learners, let them do it and then move on. Guided discovery requires imagination and flexibility” (para. 14).

Grammar Focus in a Meaning-Focused Classroom

Considering the importance many learners, instructors and other ESOL stake-holders currently place on authentic communication, how can instructors most effectively incorporate explicit, inductive grammar instruction into their meaning-focused classrooms? One satisfying answer I have found is the grammar task, discussed briefly above, preceded and followed by communicative activities which utilize the target language in authentic receptive and productive activities. Larsen-Freeman (2003), citing Adair-Hauck, has described the grammar task process

as “teachers and learners collaborat[ing] on and co-construct[ing] the grammar explanation” (p. 97). She looked at this process in Vygotskyan terms as “a guided participatory approach to rule formulation” (p. 97). Larsen-Freeman went on to encourage instructors to “help students learn how to learn – to become our partners in the teaching/learning process” (p. 153).

I personally agree with Ellis (2006), who has suggested that utilizing a wide variety of approaches is the best option for dealing with as complex a process as learning a grammatical system. Nassaji and Fotos (2011) have recommended techniques such as “discovering grammatical rules, exposing learners to input that involves occurrences of the target form, or even...corrective feedback provided on learner errors during communicative tasks” as a few of several viable options for assisting learners in acquiring grammatical accuracy (p. 6). Larsen-Freeman (2003) also discussed a variety of tools that teachers can make use of, including verbal rules, charts, formulas and iconic devices. I offer my materials and techniques here as but one tool of many.

Regardless of which specific technique is used, many researchers have agreed on the necessity of situating grammar instruction within meaningful communication and emphasizing the form-meaning connection. Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2002) described the portion of the lesson during which focus shifts from meaning to form as a “pedagogical time-out” from meaningful communication (p. 7). Larsen-Freeman (2003) employed a camera metaphor to make this idea even clearer, likening form focus to the zoom option. The structure occurs in normal communication, but then, with the use of guiding questions, for example, provided by the teacher, students zoom in on the structure and examine it closely using the material provided. After zooming in on it for a while, students are able to use a “wide-angle lens” to see the structure back in its larger system, the full context from which it had been extracted for

examination. Finally, students press play on the metaphorical camcorder by experiencing the structure in a new, authentic context (p. 151). Larsen-Freeman described this process of helping students “learn to look” as an important element in teaching (p. 153).

In Spada’s 1997 review of research, he found that explicit instruction consisting of a combination of metalinguistic instruction and error correction within a communicative context seemed to offer the most benefits, but without continued exposure to the target forms, the gains were short-lived. Nassaji and Fotos (2011), citing Samuda and Bygate’s 2008 study, stated that “frequent exposure to the target structure in subsequent communicative activities not only increases awareness of the form, but also assists processing and retention” (p. 99). They explained that more than one lesson is required before a student can acquire mastery of a new form. Nunan (2004) agreed, stating that “mastery learning is a misconception, and...learning is piecemeal and inherently unstable” (p. 36). In fact, students require many hours of exposure and practice, and will use a new structure in non-target-like ways many times before stable, target-like use emerges. The first few exposures assist the learner in becoming aware of the structure, but researchers agree that continued communicative experience with the form is what really leads to acquisition. Several studies have found that grammar-based task performance led to positive gains in learner noticing and increased proficiency during the slow process of mastering grammatical forms (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). A 1994 study by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (as cited in Mitchell, 2000) showed that learners who participated in form-focused problem-solving tasks increased their metalinguistic understanding and became more successful at diagnosing and correcting their own grammar errors.

Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2002), in discussing the process of developing implicit knowledge, explained that learners must first notice a structure, then compare it to the

corresponding structure in their interlanguage (IL), and finally integrate the target structure into their IL. They posited that structured, grammar-focused tasks lead to noticing and comparing, and should be followed by plentiful opportunities for input and output rich with instances of the target form to assist in the final step of integration. Larsen-Freeman (2003) similarly expressed the idea that by promoting noticing, consciousness-raising tasks, such as enhanced input, input flood and traditional explanations, in addition to grammar tasks, “prime” learners for subsequent encounters with the target form (p. 92). Schmidt (as cited in Fotos, 1993) offered a personal example of this process in his own learning of Portuguese. He found that many times he could understand the meaning of a form when he encountered it, but could not use that form himself until he consciously noticed it in the input. He found that the combination of his explicit coursework and natural communication was necessary for his own language development. Without explicit attention to the form, he was incapable of noticing the structures, but without communicative opportunities, he was incapable of remembering or mastering those forms.

Nassaji and Fotos (2011) offered similar ideas in discussing grammar as task content. The goal is not that students can immediately produce the structure, but rather to make learners aware of the structure’s features. Their research showed that grammar tasks were as effective as traditional grammar lessons in the development of explicit knowledge, but have the added benefits of being communicative and embodying all of the advantages of guided discovery and task-based learning. Citing their own earlier study in 2007 and that of Robinson in 2001, Nassaji and Fotos (2011) revealed that “tasks based on grammar structures as content have repeatedly been found to be effective in promoting both negotiation of meaning and awareness of the target structure” (pp. 92-93).

In Nunan's (2004) work on TBLT (task based language teaching), he divides language tasks into two categories: focused tasks, where a specific form is required, and unfocused tasks, where learners can use any and all linguistic knowledge that they possess to complete the task. In addition, language tasks are typically thought of as either production based (learners must use the target structure) or comprehension based (learners must understand the target structure in input and respond). However, consciousness-raising tasks allow learners to focus on and communicate *about* the target structure, with rule-generation as one possible outcome. Consciousness-raising tasks with grammar as their content are meant to raise the learners' awareness of a new or troublesome grammatical form and therefore necessarily focus on a specific structure as content; however, they are actually unfocused tasks that allow learners to use all of the language at their disposal to solve the linguistic problem. Learners talk about the form using any language they want to use. Furthermore, learners will use what Nunan referred to as "procedural language", such as bidding for a turn, agreeing and disagreeing, negotiating meaning, and hesitating and hedging.

There is considerable discussion in the literature regarding when during instruction to move the focus to form. Several authors, including Larsen-Freeman (2003) and Ellis (2003), have divided form focus into preemptive and reactive types. Preemptive can be a question posed by a student or a teacher-initiated statement, both occurring before the target structure has been attempted or even required in any way. Reactive focus on form is a response to an error produced during a task, which shows instructors that the student is ready to learn that structure. Many authors have agreed that reactive focus on form is often superior to preemptive because it focuses on structures learners actually need to know and for which they are ready developmentally. However, Larsen-Freeman (2003) pointed out that preemptive, or as she called

it, proactive focus on form is sometimes necessary to counteract learner avoidance of difficult structures and in the case where learners may not be aware of a form and therefore cannot attempt it. She referred to this type of preemptive instruction as “trailblazing,” quoting Dunn and Lantolf’s idea that instruction should “blaze the trail for development to follow” (pp. 145-146). Even reactive focus on form can fulfill this trailblazing principle, though. When an instructor notices an emerging form in the learners’ IL, s/he does not have to respond immediately with an unplanned grammar focus. Instead, the instructor can note the structure and bring a planned grammar task focusing on that structure to a subsequent lesson.

In addition to the discussion about preemptive and reactive form focus, there is also a plethora of ideas about approaches to instruction, from Nunan’s six-step task-based language teaching to the traditional PPP framework to Long’s Focus-On-Form approach. It is beyond the scope of this project to examine all of these approaches, but it is clear that an inductive, explicit grammar instruction approach is a possibility within most, if not all, of the current ELT approaches. The grammatical form itself may also influence the method an instructor chooses. Larsen-Freeman (2003) explained that simple structures are more easily learned through explicit instruction, whereas more complex structures are more easily understood through examples or a combination of examples and rules.

The last consideration in this discussion is which grammar structures to focus on. Ellis (2006) has encouraged structured form-focused tasks directed at forms that are difficult for students to learn or understand, and difficult for students to internalize and use correctly. In addition, he proposed focusing on those forms that teachers observed learners using erroneously or that are known to be common errors among learners in general or specifically among learners of the linguistic group(s) in a specific class. Nassaji and Fotos (2011) further explained (citing

Ellis) that forms that display problematicity (they cause problems for the learners) and/or learnability (the students are ready to acquire them) are good candidates for form-focused tasks. Whether learners are ready to acquire a structure is difficult to surmise, but can be based on evidence that the form is beginning to emerge or the general level of students.

In a similar vein, Mitchell (2000) discussed Pienemann's "teachability hypothesis" regarding developmental sequences. That learners acquire knowledge in a somewhat set sequence cannot be changed by the order in which structures are taught, but studies have shown that the speed between stages can be increased through explicit grammar instruction. The results were mixed, but generally showed support for this theory. Mitchell (2000) also presented Harley's compensatory salience principle and barrier-breaking principle. These two principles instruct teachers to focus on those L2 aspects that

differ in non-obvious or, for the learner, unexpected ways from the L1; are irregular, infrequent, or otherwise lacking in perceptual salience in the L2 input; do not carry a heavy communicative load; block entry to a major subsystem of the L2 code; create confusion in interpretation or negative attitudes among native speakers (p. 292).

Conclusion

More research is needed, particularly longitudinal studies with assessments that focus on spontaneous oral production; however, the evidence at this point clearly shows that explicit instruction combined with meaningful communicative activities is certainly at the very least not detrimental to learners. Many studies in SLA, educational psychology and foreign language instruction preliminarily point to positive results for both explicit attention to form and guided discovery techniques. Teachers and researchers have long praised the benefits of variety in the

classroom, so I offer the following guided discovery worksheets as one tool to use in addressing one of the more complex and vexing, but also one of the most exciting, aspects of language study: teaching and learning grammar.

Rationale and General Procedure

I see these handouts as ideally consciousness-raising activities in the midst of a larger and more communicative lesson. Basically, the context is set with a meaning-based activity, the class examines the form and takes it apart from within the larger context, and then the instructor provides opportunities for the learners to encounter this form in communicative contexts, using both receptive and productive skills (readings, videos, tasks, writing, discussion, etc.). This sequence can take place over more than one lesson, depending on the students and the time-frame.

It is beyond the scope of this project to discuss the optimal framework, if that even exists, so I will leave that up to individual instructors. The handouts will work well within many different teaching approaches, including a task-based sequence (step four of Nunan's six-step framework), a focus-on-form framework (the middle section in a meaning-form-meaning sequence), or a traditional PPP framework (step 1, as an inductive presentation). Alternatively, instructors may wish to use these materials during follow-up error correction after a lesson or assignment has been completed. To do this, instructors can draw attention to the incorrect language spoken or written by learners, correct it and use the corrections as the sample sentences on the worksheets. Students complete the worksheet to understand why the original utterances were not target-like.

These materials are appropriate in any teaching situation where an instructor would like to take a grammatical form out of context for examination. I have included two sample lesson

plans to illustrate ideas of how these handouts may work within a larger context. The language necessary for completing the worksheets and the grammatical structures addressed lend themselves best to intermediate level students and above. Regardless of the framework in which an instructor utilizes a guided discovery grammar handout, there are many reasons to believe that situating it within some type of context will facilitate learning. Therefore, even in a traditional PPP framework, it is recommended to begin with at least a brief context-setting activity from which to draw sample sentences.

The handouts are divided into three sections: Section A draws students' attention to the form, Section B focuses on the communicative meaning of the structure, and Section C consolidates the previous sections into a formula and definition. I strongly recommend using the STOP HERE points at the end of each section to check in and make sure everyone understands and has the correct answers before going on. This is especially important before learners attempt Section C, which pulls everything together. I often use a Think Pair Share model where students work out an answer for themselves first, then share and discuss their work with a partner or small group, and finally we check in as a whole class. This model has the advantage of encouraging real communication between students (even if the content is grammar) and allowing students to scaffold each other, but still gives each student an opportunity to think through each section alone to discourage reliance on faster, more knowledgeable, or more confident students. Even if the content of their communication is linguistic form, through their conversations learners are still utilizing and strengthening the language they already possess in their ILs, as well as developing discourse skills, such as negotiating meaning, agreeing and disagreeing, giving opinions, and similar speech acts. In addition, this model allows students to scaffold each other

in problem-solving and critical thinking, as well as form noticing and lexical choices, through their discussions.

If error correction is part of the instructor's teaching, referring back to these handouts can also prove useful. Again, I will leave the specific type of error correction to each individual instructor's discretion, but one possibility is using the handouts to enable students to make their own corrections. For example, one technique I've used is to collect errors during speaking activities and/or from written work. I put them together in a handout or on the board. I then ask students to take out the guided discovery handout they have previously completed and compare the incorrect sentences with the information on the handout. In this way the structure is being reinforced and the students are using more critical thinking. Depending on the learner's preference, some students will use the formula in Section C, others will refer to the sample sentences as correct models for comparison, and still others may use different sections of the handout in different ways. What's important is that the learners notice the gap between the erroneous sentences and the correct target structure. When students are closer to mastery and during fluency-based activities, I would probably avoid this activity, as it interrupts the flow of communication and might prove redundant if learners are well-aware of the form but simply haven't completely incorporated target-like use into their ILs. Even with awareness and cognitive understanding of a grammatical form, target-like use of new structures is a slow process requiring many opportunities to encounter the structure in input and attempt the structure as output.

Procedure

Begin with sample sentences on the board. These sentences should come out of a previous meaning-based activity, which could be a simple and brief context setting activity

where students discuss a topic that will naturally lend itself to the form, or it could be a reading or listening activity rich with examples of the target form, from which the instructor extracts the necessary sample sentences. (Some ideas for context setting for specific structures are included below in the Teaching Notes section.) If you use student discussions to generate the language, write the sentences with the target form on the board as you hear them, making corrections where necessary but without explaining those corrections. Have students copy the sample sentences into the space provided on the handout.

Before students begin, you will need to be sure that they are familiar with the metalanguage on the handout. I've tried to keep it as simple as possible. When students are new to my class, I usually post a chart or write the metalanguage on the board with an example of each term. Here is an example:

to go

present tense: go/goes

base verb (bare infinitive): go

past tense: went

V3 (past participle): gone

Sometimes students know these terms by other names, so I include other common names they may have encountered, as in the example above. After working with the handouts a few times, students will recognize this metalanguage easily without assistance.

Next, ask students to complete Section A independently. Give them a time limit, but let them know they will have a chance to check their answers with their classmates later. Remind them to stop at the end of Section A. When most students have finished, ask them to discuss their answers with a partner or in a small group. If they have different answers or are not sure

about the answers, they should discuss the reasons behind their choices and try to help each other work it out, but they do not have to come to a consensus if they continue to disagree. At this point, bring the whole class' attention back and elicit the answers to Section A. Now the class is ready to move to section B, and go through the process again. When you have gone over the correct answers to Section B, the students may go on to Section C. When going over the answers to Section C, it is important to emphasize the relationship between form and meaning.

At this point, we have heightened students' awareness of the form and meaning of the target structure. This will assist learners in noticing this structure in the future, which has been shown to lead to acquisition. There are many more facets of a structure than what these handouts highlight, such as how we use the target form pragmatically, negation and question formation, and lexical considerations specific to the form, such as collocation. As I mentioned regarding instructional method, I do not propose to instruct teachers in how to go about teaching those facets or providing practice opportunities for students. That will depend on an individual instructor's philosophy and teaching style, as well as the needs of the particular students and the requirements of the context in which each instructor teaches.

Specific teaching notes for each grammatical structure and two sample lesson plans, utilizing different frameworks, appear at the end of the instructional materials section.

REAL CONDITIONAL

SAMPLE SENTENCES (copied from the board)

Sentence 1:

Sentence 2:

SECTION A - FORM

1. How many parts are in each sentence? _____
2. What word is always in Part A? _____ Circle it in the sample sentences.
3. Underline the verb in Part A of each sentence above. What tense is it?

Circle one choice below.

past

present

V3

base

4. Find the verb in Part B of each sentence above. It is made of two words: a helping verb and a main verb.

Circle the helping verb in Part B of each sample sentence. What is it? _____

Underline the main verb in Part B of each sample sentence. What form is it?

Circle one choice below.

past

present

V3

base

*** STOP HERE ***

Section B – Why Use It?

5. What time period are we talking about? Circle one choice below.

past

present

future

6. Are we talking about situations that we believe may occur? _____

7. What is the relationship between the two ideas in the sentence? _____

***** STOP HERE *****

SECTION C – PUT IT ALL TOGETHER

What's the form?

If + subject + _____ , _____ + _____ + _____ .

OR

Subject + _____ + _____ + _____ + _____ + _____ .

What's the difference in punctuation? _____

Why do we use this form? (What does it mean?) _____

UNREAL CONDITIONAL

SAMPLE SENTENCES (copied from the board)

Sentence 1:

Sentence 2:

SECTION A - FORM

1. How many parts are in this sentence? _____
2. What word is always in Part A? _____ Circle it in the sample sentences.
3. Underline the verb in Part A of each sentence above. What tense is it?

Circle one choice below.

past present V3 base

4. Find the verb in Part B of each sentence above. It is made of two words: a helping verb and a main verb.

Circle the helping verb in Part B of each sample sentence. What is it? _____

Underline the main verb in Part B of each sample sentence. What form is it?

Circle one choice below.

past present V3 base

*** STOP HERE ***

Section B – Why Use It?

5. What time period are we talking about? Circle one choice below.

past

present

future

6. Are we talking about events or situations that are real or imaginary? _____

7. Can we say or write Part A after Part B without changing the meaning? _____

***** STOP HERE *****

SECTION C – PUT IT ALL TOGETHER

What's the form?

If + subject + _____ , _____ + _____ + _____ .

OR

Subject + _____ + _____ + if + _____ + _____ .

What's the difference in the punctuation? _____

Why do we use this form? (What does it mean?) _____

PAST PROGRESSIVE

SAMPLE SENTENCES (copied from the board)

Sentence 1:

Sentence 2:

SECTION A - FORM

1. How many parts does each sentence have? _____
2. Find the verb in Part A of each sentence above. It is made of two words: a helping verb and a main verb.

Underline the helping verb in Part A of each sample sentence. What verb is it?

What tense is the helping verb? Choose one: past / present / V3 / base

Circle the main verb in Part A of each sentence. What ending does the verb have? _____

3. Part B begins with a time expression. Which one is used in the sample sentences? _____
4. Circle the verb in Part B of each sentence above. What form is it? Circle one choice below.

past

present

V3

base

*** STOP HERE ***

SECTION B – WHY USE IT?

1. How many events happened in each sentence? _____
2. Did they both happen in the past? _____
3. What is the time relationship between the two events? _____

4. Label Part A and Part B on this timeline:



*** STOP HERE ***

SECTION C – PUT IT ALL TOGETHER

What's the form?

__subject__ + _____ + _____ + time expression + _____ + _____.

OR

time expression + subject + _____ , _____ + _____ + _____.

What's different in the punctuation? _____

Why do we use this form? (What does it mean?) _____

What is a common time expression used with this form? _____

PAST PERFECT

SAMPLE SENTENCES (copied from the board)

Sentence 1:

Sentence 2:

SECTION A - FORM

5. How many parts does each sentence have? _____
6. Find the verb in Part A of each sentence above. It is made of two words: a helping verb and a main verb.

Underline the helping verb in Part A of each sample sentence. What is it? _____

Circle the main verb in Part A of each sample sentence. What form is it? Circle one choice below.

past

present

V3

base

7. Part B begins with a time expression. Which ones are used in the sample sentences? _____

8. Circle the verb in Part B of each sentence above. What form is it? Circle one choice below.

1. past

present

V3

base

*** STOP HERE ***

SECTION B – WHY USE IT?

- 5. How many events happened in each sentence? _____
- 6. Did they both happen in the past? _____
- 7. Which one happened first, Part A or Part B? _____
- 8. Label Part A and Part B on this timeline:



- 9. Can we say or write Part A after Part B without changing the meaning? _____

*** STOP HERE ***

SECTION C – PUT IT ALL TOGETHER

What's the form?

subject + _____ + _____ + time expression + _____ + _____.

OR

time expression + subject + _____ , _____ + _____ + _____.

What's different in the punctuation? _____

Why do we use this form? (What does it mean?) _____

What are some common time expressions used with this form? _____

What other word commonly appears in this structure? _____

Where does it usually appear? _____

PAST CONDITIONAL

SAMPLE SENTENCES (copied from the board)

Sentence 1:

Sentence 2:

SECTION A - FORM

1. How many parts does each sentence have? _____ Draw a line between the two parts.
2. Circle the word “if” in the sample sentences. Let’s call this the “If Part” of the sentences.
3. Circle the word “had” in the “If Part” of each sentence above.
4. Underline the main verb that appears with “had”. What form is the main verb? Circle one choice below.

past

present

V3

base

4. Circle the words “would have” in the other part of the sample sentences.
5. Underline the main verb that appears with “would have” in each sentence above. What form is the main verb? Circle one choice below.

past

present

V3

base

*** STOP HERE ***

Section B – Why Use It?

6. What time period are we talking about? (Circle) one choice below.

past

present

future

7. Are we talking about situations or events that actually happened? _____

8. What is the relationship between the two ideas in the sentence? _____

9. Can we change the order of the two parts of the sentence without changing the meaning? _____

*** STOP HERE ***

SECTION C – PUT IT ALL TOGETHER

What's the form?

If + subject + _____ + _____ , _____ + _____ + _____ + _____ .

OR

Subject + _____ + _____ + _____ + if + _____ + _____ + _____ .

What's the difference in punctuation? _____

Why do we use this form? (What does it mean?) _____

PASSIVE VOICE

SAMPLE SENTENCES (copied from the board)

Sentence 1:

Sentence 2:

Sentence 3:

Sentence 4:

SECTION A - FORM

1. Circle the verb "be" in each sample sentence.
 2. Underline the main verb (the one with "be") in each sample sentence.
 3. What form is the main verb in? Circle a choice below.
 past present base V3
 4. What time periods are the sentences talking about? Circle all correct choices below.
 past present future
 5. Which word(s) tells you the time period in each sentence? _____
 6. What is in the subject position (before the verb), the doer of the verb or receiver? _____
 7. If the doer of the verb is included, what word appears directly before it (we can call this the "doer phrase")? _____
 8. If the "doer phrase" is included in the sentence, where does it occur? _____
-

*** STOP HERE ***

SECTION B – WHY USE IT?

9. What is the action (verb) in each sentence? (List them all.)

10. Who or what is the doer of the action in each sentence? (List them all.)

11. In these sentences, which is the speaker or writer more focused on, the doer of the action or the receiver? _____

12. Do we have to include the doer in each sentence? _____

13. Can you guess why the speaker or writer put the focus on the receiver of the action in each example? (There may be different reasons for different sentences.)

*** STOP HERE ***

SECTION C – PUT IT ALL TOGETHER

What’s the form? Use your answers from Section A to help you.

Subject + _____ + _____ (+ _____ _____).

What are some reasons for using this form? _____

Do you think it is more common to include the doer of the verb or leave it out when using this grammar structure? Why do you think so? _____

FUTURE PERFECT

SAMPLE SENTENCES (copied from the board)

Sentence 1:

Sentence 2:

SECTION A -FORM

1. How many parts does each sentence have? _____
2. Find the verb in Part A of each sentence above. It is made of three words: two helping verbs and a main verb.

Underline the helping verbs in Part A of each sample sentence. What are they?

Circle the main verb in Part A of each sample sentence. What form is it? Circle one choice below.

past

present

V3

base

3. Part B begins with a time expression. Which one(s) is/are used in the sample sentences? _____

4. Circle the verb in Part B of each sentence above. What form is it? Circle one choice below.

past

present

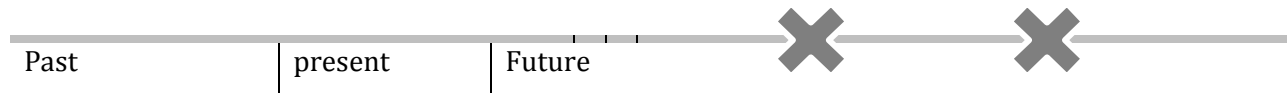
V3

base

*** STOP HERE ***

SECTION B – WHY USE IT?

- 10. How many events are in each sentence? _____
- 11. Will they both happen in the future? _____
- 12. Which one will happen first, Part A or Part B? _____
- 13. Label Part A and Part B on this timeline:



***** STOP HERE *****

SECTION C – PUT IT TOGETHER

What's the form?

subject + _____ + _____ + _____ + time expression + subj + _____.

OR

time expression + subject + _____, subj + _____ + _____ + _____.

What's different in the punctuation? _____

Why do we use this form? (What does it mean?) _____

What are some common time expressions used with this form? _____

Teaching Notes for Specific Structures

Below are teaching ideas and recommendations for each specific grammatical structure presented in the handouts above. Under each heading, teachers will first find a formula that illustrates the form of the structure, followed by an example sentence appears to make the form clearer. Next, there is an explanation of the meaning and reasons for using the structure. Finally, special considerations, which may be useful when teaching this structure, are addressed.

Passive Voice

Form: Subject (receiver of the verb) + be verb (in the correct tense and matching the subject in number) + V3 (past participle) (+ by + doer of the verb).

The “by doer” phrase is optional and, in fact, is more often not used.

Examples: *This paper was written in 2013.*

*The house **was built** by Irish immigrants in 1882.*

*Every year prizes **are given** to the highest achieving students.*

*Two women **were attacked** last night in Central Park.*

*The winner **is chosen** based on his or her singing ability and stage presence.*

Meaning and Use: There are many reasons for using passive voice instead of active voice.

Some of the more common are: the doer of the verb is unknown; the doer of the verb is not important; the speaker or writer wants to avoid attributing responsibility to the doer; for stylistic reasons the speaker or writer wants the receiver in the subject position (this often has to do with overall cohesion of the text or the importance of/focus on the receiver).

Special considerations: Make sure the students understand the idea of doer and receiver of a verb. Start with a few simple s-v-o (subject-verb-object) examples (e.g. *John called Mary.*) and elicit the doer/receiver of each verb before asking students to complete the handout.

Include examples of past and present (more tenses can be included in future lessons or later on in input in this lesson) and use singular and plural subjects. That way students can see clearly that *be* matches the subject in number and also carries the tense. Include at least one example with the agent stated, but try to leave most sample sentences without the agent stated, as that is the most common way passive voice occurs.

When working with passive voice, it is particularly important to continually draw learners' attention to why and how it is used in context, since knowing why and how to use it is the biggest difficulty with this structure.

A good place to go for examples of passive voice is the newspaper. Find a story with a few examples and use the article first for a reading lesson. You may not find all the variety I have suggested (past and present, singular and plural subjects), but you can supplement or show those variations later in the lesson. After students have completed the handout and have a general understanding of how the passive is formed, you can have them search additional news stories for more examples and have them analyze the tenses they have found.

For a full lesson plan utilizing newspapers and ending with a productive task for students to complete, see Sample Lesson Plan 1.

Real Conditional

Form: If + subject + present tense verb, subject + will + base verb. (comma between clauses)

Subject + will + base verb + if + subject + present tense verb. (no comma)

Examples: *If it rains, I'll bring my umbrella. I'll bring my umbrella if it rains.*

Meaning and Use: This form is used when there is a real possibility that something will occur (or not occur when used negatively), and another event is dependent on the first occurrence (e.g. If it rains, we'll cancel the picnic. Rain is possible and the canceling is dependent on the rain.)

Special Considerations: Use third person singular at least once in each part of the sentence to clearly show when base verb is required as opposed to present tense. Use 'll to imitate natural speech if the sample sentences are taken from speech. Remind students that it means *will*. If you write out *will*, for example if you are using samples from more formal written language, remind students that we usually use the contraction in spoken English and informal written communication.

One idea for setting a context is to ask students what they expect to happen on the weekend. This can be what they expect to do, what the weather will be like, who they will be with, and similar topics. Then, have them ask each other questions about what will happen if those expectations don't happen. For example, if Jose says he is planning to go to the park to play soccer, someone might ask him what will happen if it rains. If Jin says she is planning to have dinner with friends, someone might ask what she will do if her friends cancel.

Unreal Conditional

Form: If + subject + past tense verb, subject + would + base verb. (comma after the first clause)

Subject + would + base verb + if + subject + past tense verb. (no comma)

Examples: *If I lived in Paris, I would speak French better. I would speak French better if I lived in Paris.*

Meaning and Use: We use this structure to talk about unreal or imaginary situations in the present.

Special Considerations: Try to use sample sentences that make the time period clear. For example, when I've used *If I had a million dollars, I would travel around the world*, some students have taken it to mean *If I were to ever have a million dollars...* with a future meaning. One scenario I have used is asking the students what they would do if they had today off from school. Obviously, they don't have today off or I'm fairly certain we wouldn't be talking about grammar together, so the counterfactual meaning is clear, and we are talking about today, so the present time period is also clear. Just be sure your sample sentences use a variety of verbs, not just *had*, in order for students to clearly see the past tense pattern on a variety of verbs.

Past progressive

Form: Subject + was/were + V-ing + time clause (when) + subject + past tense verb. (No comma)

Time clause (when) + subject + past tense verb, subject + was/were + V-ing. (Comma after the first clause)

Examples: *I was sleeping when you called. When you called, I was sleeping.*

Meaning and Use: In this case, we use the structure to show that something was ongoing in the past and something else interrupted it in the past. Although this tense has other uses aside from the limited one I've presented here, I feel that this simplification is useful for learners. The other uses have a similar meaning, so most learners will be able to extrapolate from encountering other uses in context.

Special Considerations: The teacher may want to mention that it's possible to use this structure in slightly different ways from these model sentences, but that the meaning of an ongoing activity in the past is generally always part of it. (For example: *I was living in Rome in 1999.* *He was studying while we were watching TV.*)

One topic I've used to set a context for this form is to have students tell each other in pairs the most recent piece of good news they received and what they were doing when they received the news. It's important to include a sample sentence with a plural subject, too, though, so I usually supplement with my own story, using *my husband and I* as the plural subject.

See Lesson Plan 2 for a sample lesson with this tense.

Past Perfect

Form: Subject + had + (already) + V3 + time expression (when, before) + subject + past tense verb. (No comma)

Time expression + subject + past tense verb, subject + had (+ already) + V3. (Comma after the first clause)

Already is extremely common, but not necessary. Other time expressions are possible, including *by the time*, but the two I've listed tend to be both common and easy to understand.

Examples: *The students had already fallen asleep when their teacher finally arrived.*

When their teacher finally arrived, the students had already fallen asleep.

Meaning and Use: This structure is used to talk about two events in the past, when one of those events happened before the other.

Special Considerations: To set a context you could have students compare the activities of their day. This can bring about sentences like: *Jack had already been to his first class when Jasmine woke up this morning.*

Use verbs in Part A that have a different past tense and past participle form (e.g. *gone* rather than *listened*) to make it clear that past participles are being used, not past tense verbs. For time clauses, *when* is especially useful because the meaning changes depending on the verb tense. (Eg: *I ate when he arrived. I had eaten when he arrived.*) Native speakers often use simple past in both clauses when the time expression *before* is used because the meaning is clear. If students are familiar with *by the time*, or you think this grammar point is not entirely new or especially challenging for your students, go ahead and include *by the time*.

Past Conditional

Form: If + subject + had + V3, subject + would + have + V3. (Comma after first clause)

Subject + would + have + V3 + if + subject + had + V3. (No comma)

Examples: If we had gone home earlier, we would have eaten dinner with our families.

We would have eaten dinner with our families if we had gone home earlier.

Meaning and Use: This structure expresses regret or counterfactual ideas about the past.

Special Considerations: One idea is to have students read or listen to a story where something doesn't turn out particularly well. When students thoroughly comprehend the story, ask them what would have happened if the character had made other choices. They can work in pairs, small groups or as a whole class.

Use *-en* verbs in both parts of the sample sentences to make it clear that we are using past participles, not simple past tense. I usually start with all positive statements to make the basic

form salient, but you might want to also show negation before going on to more activities, since negation is very common with this form (e.g. *If I had studied more, I wouldn't have failed the test*). Students who are familiar with past perfect will find this structure easier to understand than those who are not.

Future Perfect

Form: Subject + will (+ already) + have + V3 + time expression (when, before) + subject + present tense verb. (No comma)

Time expression (when, before) + subject + present tense verb, subject + will + have (+ already) + V3. (Comma after first clause)

Already is very commonly used with this structure, but not necessary.

Examples: He will already have gone home when we arrive. When we arrive, he will have already gone home.

Meaning and Use: This structure is used to talk about two events that will happen in the future when one of those events will happen before the other. (E.g. *Mohammed will have already graduated from business school when he turns twenty-five.*)

Special Considerations: One idea for a context is have students talk about what they will have experienced and/or achieved when a specific time period ends. For example, I teach university students, so I might ask them to share with each other what things they expect to achieve or accomplish before they finish their university studies or before they return to their home countries if that is their plan. This is not a frequently used structure, so it can be tricky to create naturalistic activities for students.

Show third person singular in Part B to make it clear that the tense is present and not bare infinitive. Use verbs in Part A that have different forms for past tense and past participle to make it clear that the form requires past participles, not past tense verbs. Try to use sentences with *when* and *before* as the time expressions for lexical simplicity. It's especially useful to illustrate how the meaning changes with the tense even when using the same time clause. (E.g. *I will leave when he arrives. I will have left when he arrives.*) If students are familiar with *by the time*, or you think this grammar point is not entirely new for the students, go ahead and include *by the time*.

Sample Lesson Plans

The first sample lesson plan below (passive voice) utilizes readings to set a communicative context for the worksheets, while the second situates the guided discovery worksheet in a more traditional PPP lesson framework (past progressive). In each case, the procedure for using the handout is the same, while the larger framework in which it appears has changed. My hope is that these sample lessons will encourage instructors in different instructional settings to use the handouts, while promoting a variety of creative lesson plans.

Sample Lesson Plan 1: Teaching Passive Voice with Newspaper Articles

1. Goals

- To raise students' awareness of passive voice to encourage noticing of this structure
- Students will be able to identify the basic formal structure of passive voice
- Students will be able to articulate some of the reasons for using passive voice
- Students will work together communicatively using linguistic problem-solving skills
- Students will use passive voice to tell their own news stories

2. Resources

- Two short newspaper articles of appropriate level containing examples of passive voice. It is best if the articles contain a variety of tenses and/or a mix of singular and plural subjects.
- Basic comprehension questions for reading
- Guided discovery worksheet
- Gapfill or other controlled practice activity

- Video recording device (optional)
3. **Timing:** 90 minutes (the length of the performance portion depends on the size of your class)
 4. **Grouping:** Solo, pairs, small groups (3-5), whole class
 5. **Sequencing**
 - Lead in
 1. Teacher distributes a brief high interest newspaper article of appropriate level that has at least a few examples of passive voice with some general comprehension questions.
 2. Students answer the comprehension questions and briefly discuss the article in pairs.
 3. Teacher checks comprehension.
 - Once students comprehend the article well, teacher shifts to a language focus by writing the passive voice examples from the text on the board and distributes the guided discovery worksheet
 1. Make sure all students are familiar with the metalanguage on the worksheet, particularly doer and receiver of a verb. Teacher can put a chart on the board showing the metalanguage next to an example, if the students need more scaffolding:

present tense	go/goes
base verb	go
V3	gone

2. Students copy the sample sentences from the board onto the worksheet.
 3. Students complete Section A (form focus). I recommend using a Think-Pair-Share model, where students work alone first, then with a partner and finally the teacher elicits the correct answers from the whole class.
 4. Students complete Section B (meaning/use focus) in the same manner.
 5. Students complete Section C (structure formula and consolidation of previous sections) in the same manner again.
 6. There are several reasons for using passive voice, all of which are probably not exemplified in one brief article. The teacher may wish to make students aware of this fact, but highlight that the general reason behind any use of passive is to draw focus onto the receiver of the action and/or away from the doer.
- Teacher distributes the second brief article.
 1. Students scan for examples of passive voice and underline them.
 2. In pairs or small groups students discuss why the writer has used passive in each case.
 3. Teacher goes over the answers when groups have finished.
 - Practice (this stage can be omitted if desired)
 1. Teacher distributes a gapfill or other controlled practice activity.
 2. Teacher checks answers to be sure students are able to form the structure.
 - In small groups of 3-5, students create their own news stories, which they will perform for the class as a news broadcast role play. Students should try to use passive voice in appropriate places, but also to be creative. Video recording these can

be fun if the students are up for it. (I use my Android to record.) Teacher takes note of any errors in passive voice.

- Closure
 1. Teacher writes errors on the board when performances are finished and students use the guided discovery worksheet to help them make corrections in pairs or small groups.
 2. Students come up to the board to write corrections. (If time is an issue, teacher can elicit the corrections and write them him/herself.)
 3. Teacher reviews the lesson and assigns homework:
 - a. Students look for an article with at least one example of passive voice. They should underline all examples of passive and write down why they think it was used. Collect this assignment next class.
 - b. Students choose one of the stories their group came up with for the news role play and write up a brief news article using appropriate examples of passive voice. Collect this assignment next class.

Sample Lesson Plan 2: Teaching Past Progressive with Good News (PPP)**1. Goals**

- Students will raise their awareness of past progressive, which will encourage noticing of this structure in future input.
- Students will be able to identify the basic formal structure of past progressive.
- Students will be able to articulate the basic reason for using past progressive (to discuss an ongoing activity in the past).
- Students will work together communicatively using linguistic problem-solving skills.
- Students will use past progressive to write a chain story in groups.

2. Resources

- Guided discovery worksheet
- A brief story (or excerpt) of appropriate level containing examples of past progressive
- Basic comprehension and reaction questions for the reading
- Gapfill
- Sentence completion worksheet
- Situation cards for story ideas (or students could create these themselves)

3. Timing: 90 - 100 minutes**4. Grouping:** Solo, pairs, small groups (4-5), whole class**5. Sequencing**

- Context Setting (8 minutes)
 1. Instructor sets a communicative context by having students briefly discuss these two questions in pairs:

- a. What was the last piece of good news you received?
 - b. What were you doing when you heard the news?
2. Students talk for 4 or 5 minutes about the questions.
 3. Instructor elicits a few of the answers and writes them on the board to use as sample sentences. Make any corrections necessary for grammatical accuracy, but do not explain the corrections. Label the two parts of the sentences: Part A and Part B.
- Presentation (20 minutes)
 1. Make sure all students are familiar with the metalanguage on the worksheet, including *helping verb*, *main verb*, and *time expression*. The teacher can put a chart on the board showing metalanguage next to an example, if the students need more scaffolding:

present tense	go/goes
base verb	go
V3	gone

2. Students copy the sample sentences from the board onto the worksheet.
3. Students complete Section A (form focus). I recommend using a Think-Pair-Share model, where students work alone first, then with a partner and finally the teacher elicits the correct answers from the whole class.
4. Students complete Section B (meaning/use focus) in the same manner.
5. Students complete Section C (structure formula and consolidation of previous sections) in the same manner again.

6. There are other situations where we use past progressive, which are not exemplified on this handout. The teacher may wish to make students aware of this fact, but highlight that the general reason behind any use of past progressive is to discuss an ongoing activity in the past.
- Practice 1 (10-15 minutes) - notice
 1. Distribute a brief story (or excerpt) with examples of past progressive in it. The story should have some good news in it. Students scan for examples of past progressive and underline them.
 2. Students read the story and answer comprehension questions and reaction questions. It is best if these questions require or at least encourage use of the target form.
 3. In pairs or small groups students check their underlining and discuss the comprehension/reaction questions. If any of the examples in this reading differ from the use they have just learned, have them discuss why the writer used past progressive. Can they extrapolate any new rules?
 4. Teacher goes over the answers and answers questions when groups have finished.
 - Practice 2 (10-15 minutes) - gapfill
 1. Distribute a gap fill with sentences that mirror the sample sentences (past progressive + simple past). Supply the verbs in parentheses, but have students write in the correct tenses.
 2. Students check their work in pairs or small groups.
 3. Teacher goes over the answers and answers questions.

- Practice 3 (10 minutes) – sentence completion
 1. Distribute a sentence completion handout with examples of past progressive sentences. Ask students to complete them with their own ideas. Give the beginnings of some sentences and the ends of others. Alternate between using the past progressive in the first part of the sentence and the second part.
 2. Students complete the handout in pairs.
 3. Instructor elicits answers, eliciting error corrections where necessary.
 4. Instructor collects handouts to check thoroughly after class.

- Produce – a chain story (20 minutes)
 1. Students get into groups of 4 or 5 (or do this as a whole class activity, if the class is small enough).
 2. One student should be the recorder and write down the story. Sometimes students share this duty, passing the paper around the group, but they should still be talking, so everyone hears the story unfolding.
 3. Students receive a card with a “good news” event on it (such as “...money started falling from the sky.”) Instructor can give different ideas to different groups or not.
 4. The first student should say what s/he was doing when money started falling from the sky (or whatever event you want to use). The next student should continue the story, using past progressive somewhere in his/her part of the story. Students continue until everyone in the group has contributed at least once. Then, together they create an ending for the story. Let them know they probably won't be able to use past progressive in each sentence. That's fine!

5. Instructor monitors for errors.
- Closure (15 minutes)
 1. Teacher writes errors on the board when stories are finished and students use the guided discovery worksheet to help them make corrections in their groups.
 2. Students come up to the board to write corrections. (If time is an issue, teacher can elicit the corrections and write them him/herself.)
 3. Teacher collects the corrected stories to create a booklet for publishing.
 4. Teacher summarizes the lesson and assigns homework:
 - a. Distribute another excerpt from a story with examples of past progressive and comprehension questions. Students should underline all examples of past progressive and complete the questions. Review this assignment next class.
 - b. Students write a brief story about the good news they recently received and what was happening at that time. They can use the class and homework readings as models. Collect this assignment next class and create an error correction activity from it.

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