<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CURRENT RESEARCH</th>
<th>TEACHER To TEACHER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>**Center for Accelerated Language Acquisition (CALA) Test Scores: Another Look at</td>
<td><strong>Talking Our Way to Successful Reading</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the Value of Implicit Language Instruction through Comprehensible Input**</td>
<td>by Michael Coxon.................................................................33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by Brian Roberts &amp; Shelley Thomas ...........2</td>
<td>**Freeze Frame: Using Frozen Tableaus to Crank Up the Comprehensible Input in Lan-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>guage Classes**                                                      ............39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Lasting Impact of a Short SSR Experience on EFL Teachers in Korea</strong></td>
<td><strong>Brazilian Music as Comprehensible Compelling Input</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by Kyung Sook Cho.........................................................13</td>
<td>by María Guerrero..............................................................41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Spinning Personalized Questions/Answers into a Story</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Instruction in the Spanish Diphthong: Results Consistent with Monitor Hypothesis</strong></td>
<td>by Jon Cowart .................................................................46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by Stephen Krashen ..............................................................17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>**A Test of the Effect of Interesting and Relevant Subject Matter on Second Lan-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guage Acquisition**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by Ali Isik.................................................................20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Urgency of Promoting Mother-Tongue-Based Education: A Case of Indonesia</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by Setiono Sugiharto .........................................................24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research Submission Stylesheet</strong> ...........29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Advertising Guidelines</strong> ............51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Center for Accelerated Language Acquisition (CALA) Test Scores: Another Look at the Value of Implicit Language Instruction through Comprehensible Input

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Abstract

This study highlights data gathered from accelerated language courses offered by the Center for Accelerated Language Acquisition (CALA). CALA uses various comprehensible input tools without explicit grammar instruction. In 2006-2008, CALA administered the National Spanish Exam to Tennessee Department of Children’s Services (DCS) staff after a 5-day accelerated course (22.5 hours). On average, CALA/DCS participants had higher scores per hour of instruction (1.25 points/hour) when compared to high school students with a year (~180 hours) of Spanish (0.20 points/hour) (p = 0.05). In 2013-2014, volunteers with no experience in the target language took the WebCAPE placement exam after the CALA Summer Language Institute (SLI) (10 days, 35 hours). On average, CALA/SLI participants scored as high as or higher than non-CALA students with 1-3 years of middle and/or high school instruction in the target language and were far superior in gains per hour. These results might encourage additional discussion about the power of implicit language instruction.

Of considerable interest to language teachers is the question of whether explicit or implicit instruction results in better second language (L2) learning. Explicit and implicit instruction have been defined by Norris and Ortega (2000) and those definitions later adopted by Spada and Tomita (2010) in their respective meta-analyses to answer this question. According to their definitions, instruction is explicit if “rule explanation comprise[s] part of the instruction” or if “learners [are] directly asked to attend to particular forms and to try to arrive at metalinguistic generalizations on their own.” By contrast, instruction is implicit if “neither rule presentation nor directions to attend to particular forms were part of a treatment.”

Both of their analyses suggest that explicit instruction results in better L2 learning. According to Norris and Ortega (2000), “the current state of findings within this research domain suggests that treatments involving an explicit focus on the rule-
The governed nature of L2 structures are more effective than treatments that do not include such a focus.” Spada and Tomita (2010) further concluded that explicit instruction not only resulted in greater gains with both simple and complex features but it also resulted in longer gains as evidenced by delayed posttest results.

Both Norris and Ortega (2000) and Spada and Tomita (2010) note, however, that “the measurement of change induced by instruction is typically carried out on instruments that seem to favor more explicit types of treatments by calling on explicit memory-based performance” (Norris & Ortega, 2000). Krashen (2003) agrees that “consciously learned knowledge can be displayed on tests of consciously learned knowledge,” but these types of tests inadequately measure a learner’s subconscious knowledge of the language’s grammar. Distinguishing conscious “learning” from this subconscious “acquisition,” Krashen (2003) cites a number of studies that suggest that implicit language instruction appealing to the latter has a “robust advantage” over explicit language instruction appealing to the former (e.g., Hammond, 1988; Isik, 2000; Nicola, 1990; Nikolov & Krashen, 1997; and Winitz, 1996). With a focus on comprehensible input, implicit language instruction “can produce both accuracy and fluency” (Krashen, 2003).

The present study corroborates this assertion with test score data collected over a period of eight years (2006-2014) by the Center for Accelerated Language Acquisition (CALA), a language instruction and teacher training program situated in the Honors College at Middle Tennessee State University (MTSU). The Center uses implicit language instruction that employs a variety of comprehensible input (CI) tools to present high-frequency vocabulary and to foster meaningful context for communication without the use of explicit grammar explanations, memorization, or drills. The CI tools used to present this vocabulary and L2 grammar include Total Physical Response (TPR) and Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS)—as well interactive, hands-on activities such as group reading, instructor/participant conversation, comprehension questions, personal questions, songs, games, rituals, and other “brain-compatible” learning activities (see Jensen, 2003).

Data Sources: Partnerships and Participants

CALA/DCS
Between July 2006 and January 2008, the Tennessee Department of Children’s Services (DCS) partnered with CALA through the Tennessee Center for Child Welfare at MTSU to deliver Spanish training to its case management and
administrative staff in its field offices throughout the state. The training program (henceforth referred to as “CALA/DCS”) featured 22.5 hours of language instruction and presupposed no prior knowledge of Spanish. A total of 325 participants, who ranged in age from 23 to 67, were tested using the National Spanish Exam (2002) at the conclusion of the 5-day course. As some (62.46%) reported having had at least one formal educational experience in Spanish during their lifetime, test scores have been separated (see Results).

**CALA/SLI**

After having taken two 5-day sessions of language (10 days, 35 hours of instruction) at the CALA 2013 and 2014 Summer Language Institutes (SLI) at MTSU, sixteen (16) participants volunteered to take the WebCAPE in Spanish, French, and German in the university’s Foreign Languages and Literatures Department. These participants ranged in age from 13 to 70 (12 of 16 reported their age: mean 37.6 and median 37.0 years) and represented a wide variety of educational backgrounds: current middle/high school and college students; adults with high school diplomas, bachelor’s, master’s, and/or doctoral degrees. None of the participant volunteers who took the test had any exposure whatsoever to the target language prior to receiving the 35 hours of CALA instruction.

**The Classroom Setting**

**Vocabulary and Grammar**

CALA’s core vocabulary set includes ~135 high-frequency words (excluding numbers 1-100): ~35 verbs (presented in present and past tense), ~45 nouns (representing the body, the family, the classroom, clothing, places, transportation, and other objects), ~20 adjectives (representing quality, quantity, color, and emotion), and ~35 other words (e.g., pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, articles). The only contact with the language occurs in the classroom (there is no “homework”), and the entirety of the classroom experience is devoted to interactive, hands-on activities that foster goal-oriented, meaningful communication both between the instructor and participants and also among participants. No time or attention is dedicated to memorization or discrete grammar exercises, and the only “error correction” results from frequent feedback received from continual exposure to comprehensible input in the target language.

**Format**

The format for the first four days involved ~2.0 hours of vocabulary processing through TPR and other CALA brain-compatible learning activities followed by
~2.5 hours of further processing of the day’s vocabulary set through a TPRS story. The final day consisted of review of the first four days followed by reading of and processing activities for the first chapter of Blaine Ray’s Pobre Ana. At the conclusion of the 22.5-hour CALA/DCS course, participants’ learning was measured using the National Spanish Exam (2002) (see Results below).

The CALA/SLI courses shared the same format in their early years (2003-2008) but, between 2008 and 2013, they evolved in light of participant feedback and research on brain-based pedagogy. By 2013, CALA had made the following changes to the CALA/SLI curriculum:

- Front-loaded most of the concrete vocabulary and TPRS expressions into the first two (2) days of the 5-day class, using an enormous amount of TPR, movement, and multisensory input (e.g., pictures, songs, games, and carefully structured meaningful and personalized verbal processing)
- Reduced the number of TPRS stories in one 5-day session from four (4) to two (2) stories
- Reduced the number of TPRS stories in the second 5-day session from two (2) to one (1)
- Added more processing activities associated with each TPRS story
- Reduced the 5-day class from 22.5 hours to 17.5 hours
- Tested participant learning after two (2) 5-day periods (35 hours of instruction) instead of just one (1) 5-day period (results below)

At the conclusion of the 35-hour CALA/SLI course, participants volunteered to take the WebCAPE placement exam to assess their learning (see Results below).

**Results**

**National Spanish Exam (NSE) 2002: CALA/DCS**
Published by the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, the NSE (2002) is a 60-item multiple-choice test that assesses both listening comprehension and reading skills in Spanish. According to its publishing body, the mean score of high school students specially prepared to take Level 1 of the NSE after one year of instruction in Spanish (~180 hours) is 35.61 out of a possible 60 points.

After 5 days (22.5 hours) of instruction, participants in CALA/DCS Spanish earned an average of 28.16 (n = 325) on this test [24.34 (n = 122) for participants with no
Spanish experience whatsoever and 30.46 (n = 203) for participants who reported having had at least one formal educational experience in Spanish during their lifetime]. As seen in Table 1, when these scores are considered in terms of points per hour of instruction, CALA/DCS participants after 22.5 hours of instruction earned an average of 1.25 points/hour (1.08 points per hour for participants with no Spanish experience whatsoever) compared to high school students after ~180.0 hours of instruction who earned an average of 0.20 points/hour. An unpaired, two-tailed t-test was run to compare these per/hour gains for the total CALA/DCS population to those of the total high school population to assess the statistical significance of the higher CALA/DCS per/hour gains (see Table 2, p = 0.05).

**WebCAPE Computer-Adaptive Placement Exam: CALA/SLI Background.** Developed at Brigham Young University, the WebCAPE is a computer-adaptive placement test used at universities across the United States to determine the language course into which incoming students are best placed, given their abilities in the language.

**Method.** CALA participant volunteer scores on the WebCAPE were compared to those of MTSU students with 1-5 years of experience in the target language (Spanish, French, or German) in junior high and/or high school. As the demographic and language experience backgrounds of students taking the tests varied greatly (e.g., on factors such as length of study, having lived where the target language is spoken, family members speaking the language at home, etc.), the following conditions for the test taker (student) resulted in the exclusion of their associated test scores in order to create uniform comparison groups:

- Failure to complete background information (history with the target language)
- Presence of more than one (1) record of having taken the placement test
- Current enrollment in a class of the target language
- Use of the language in the home or by other family members
- Residence of more than six (6) months in a locale where the target language was spoken

These criteria applied, the present study considered at the mean score for all MTSU WebCAPE results taken at MTSU since May 2012: Spanish [n = 100 (the most recent 100 were selected)], French (n = 79), and German (n = 25).
Participant scores. As summarized in Table 3, all CALA/SLI participant volunteers tested out of at least one (1) semester and some even tested out of four (4+) semesters of a college-level language class (no results were excluded, n = 16). As seen in Table 4, the mean score across all languages for the CALA/SLI participant volunteers who had only 35 hours of exposure [289.1 (n = 16)] exceeds those of non-CALA students at MTSU who reported having had 1-3 years of instruction in the target language [mean scores of 249.3 (n = 17; not statistically significant), 207.0 (n = 55, statistically significant, p = 0.0014), and 286.9 (n = 59, not statistically significant), respectively; see Table 6].

Discussion

With their conclusions regarding the greater effectiveness of explicit language instruction, Norris and Ortega (2000) and Spada and Tomito (2010) offered these two conciliatory points, respectively: (1) “No particular sub-types of L2 instructional delivery have been the subject of systematic replication sufficient for drawing cumulative inferences about their relative effectiveness” and (2) “[The greater effectiveness of explicit instruction] may be because implicit instruction takes a longer time to be effective and none of the studies in this meta-analysis included more than 10 hr of instruction.” The present article’s description of 22.5- and 35-hour implicit language instructional programs speaks to these two points. Perhaps it will lead to continued research and discussion on the possible merits of various sub-types of implicit L2 instructional delivery.

In addition, this presentation’s test score data provide further support for Krashen’s “input/comprehension hypothesis” (2003). Without exposure to explicit instruction or learning about the language but, rather, implicit instruction with constant, meaningful, and varied comprehensible input, participants demonstrated their acquisition of the target language not only through impressive gains in their ability to engage in spontaneous communication in the target language during class, but also through their performance on the NSE and the WebCAPE (tests geared more toward assessing explicit language learning). As for the NSE, CALA/DCS participants having received implicit language instruction showed remarkable progress given the short time of instruction (1.25 points/hour compared to 0.20 points/hour among high school students nationally, p = 0.05). As for the WebCAPE, CALA/SLI participants with no background in the target language who were taught exclusively with an abundance and variety of CI tools performed exceptionally well, showing that grammatical patterns can be successfully internalized in the absence of discrete grammatical explanations. The sample size...
included in this article (n = 16) is relatively small, so CALA intends to continue WebCAPE testing with more participants.

A few points should be made about the CALA results on the WebCAPE. Foremost, they should not be generalized to make any “implicit versus explicit” conclusions. The non-CALA students who took the test received 1-5 years of instruction prior to the test, but their methods of instruction are unknown, so their performance does not necessarily represent “the fruits of explicit language instruction.” Instead, these results simply indicate that implicit language instruction can yield gains superior to those produced by explicit language instruction when assessed using “instruments that seem to favor more explicit types of treatments by calling on explicit memory-based performance” (Norris & Ortega, 2000). In addition, CALA mean scores on the WebCAPE were higher than those of non-CALA students with 1-3 years of instruction in the target language. The difference was statistically significant for those having received 2 years (p = 0.0014) but not for those having received 1 or 3 years of instruction (see Table 6). The mean scores of non-CALA participants were paradoxically lower for those having received 2 years of instruction than for those having received only 1 year of instruction. This was true both in the Spanish and French sub-groups (see Table 5). A larger sample size might have produced samples with mean scores that more closely matched expectation.

In the future, CALA intends to continue assessment of its implicit language training operation with both continued WebCAPE testing and also Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) testing of ACTFL standards with its SLI participants—to assess learning both immediately following a training session and also at various intervals after training to gauge retention and fluency in the longer-term.

REFERENCES


Nikolov, M. & Krashen, S. Need we sacrifice accuracy for fluency? *System* 25, 197-201.

**Tables**

**Table 1**

*A Comparison of CALA and Non-CALA (High School) Results on the National Spanish Exam*

Comparison of CALA/DCS participants to high school students after receiving 22.5 and ~180.0 hours of instruction in Spanish, respectively

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Mean Score</th>
<th>Hours of Instruction</th>
<th>Points/Hour of Instruction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CALA/DCS (total)</td>
<td>28.16</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CALA/DCS (new*)</td>
<td>24.34</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>35.61</td>
<td>~180.0</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* (new) denotes that participants in this group had no experience whatsoever in Spanish prior to CALA/DCS course

**Table 2**

*A Comparison of CALA and Non-CALA (High School) Results on the National Spanish Exam*

Unpaired, two-tailed t-test comparison of CALA and non-CALA results vis-à-vis points/hour of instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Mean Score</th>
<th>Points/Hour of Instruction</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CALA/DCS (total)</td>
<td>28.16</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>8.86</td>
<td>1.9306</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CALA/DCS (new)</td>
<td>24.34</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>0.9966</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>35.61</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>20,195</td>
<td>9.74</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3
CALA participant volunteer WebCAPE results, SLI 2013 and 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Total Score</th>
<th>Tested out of</th>
<th>Placed into</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>1 semester</td>
<td>2nd semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>1 semester</td>
<td>2nd semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>2 semesters</td>
<td>3rd semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>3 semesters</td>
<td>4th semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>3 semesters</td>
<td>4th semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>3 semesters</td>
<td>4th semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>3 semesters</td>
<td>4th semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>3 semesters</td>
<td>4th semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>3 semesters</td>
<td>4th semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>1 semester</td>
<td>2nd semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>2 semesters</td>
<td>3rd semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>3 semesters</td>
<td>4th semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>4 semesters</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>German</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>1 semester</td>
<td>2nd semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>German</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>2 semesters</td>
<td>3rd semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>German</td>
<td>368</td>
<td>4 semesters</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* At MTSU, students receiving scores over 360 are placed specially by the FLL Department Chair

Table 4
A comparison of CALA and non-CALA (MTSU) results on the WebCAPE (overall)

Mean WebCAPE scores and points/hour gain of CALA participant volunteers after 35 hours of instruction with those of MTSU (non-CALA) students with 1-5 years of instruction in the target language in junior high and/or high school (collectively represented as “HS”)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean Score</th>
<th>Hours Instruction</th>
<th>Points/Hour of Instruction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CALA</td>
<td>289.1</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>8.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n = 16)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5
A comparison of CALA and non-CALA (MTSU) results on the WebCAPE (by language)

Mean WebCAPE scores of CALA participant volunteers after 35 hours of instruction with those of MTSU (non-CALA) students with 1-5 years of instruction in the target language (Spanish, French, and German) in junior high and/or high school (collectively represented as “HS”)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hours Instruction</th>
<th>Spanish</th>
<th>French</th>
<th>German</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CALA 35</td>
<td>289.2</td>
<td>288.3</td>
<td>290.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n = 9)</td>
<td>(n = 4)</td>
<td>(n = 2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-CALA ~180</td>
<td>271.1</td>
<td>244.2</td>
<td>153.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 year HS)</td>
<td>(n = 10)</td>
<td>(n = 5)</td>
<td>(n = 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-CALA ~360</td>
<td>207.6</td>
<td>177.3</td>
<td>248.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2 years HS)</td>
<td>(n = 28)</td>
<td>(n = 16)</td>
<td>(n = 11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-CALA ~540</td>
<td>286.3</td>
<td>284.1</td>
<td>302.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3 years HS)</td>
<td>(n = 26)</td>
<td>(n = 27)</td>
<td>(n = 6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-CALA ~720</td>
<td>258.1</td>
<td>310.8</td>
<td>419.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4 years HS)</td>
<td>(n = 26)</td>
<td>(n = 19)</td>
<td>(n = 4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-CALA ~900</td>
<td>339.1</td>
<td>308.4</td>
<td>492.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5 years HS)</td>
<td>(n = 10)</td>
<td>(n = 12)</td>
<td>(n = 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean Score</td>
<td>Hours of Instruction</td>
<td>n</td>
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<td>--------</td>
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<td>CALA</td>
<td>289.1</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Non-CALA</td>
<td>249.3</td>
<td>~180 (1 year HS)</td>
<td>17</td>
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<tr>
<td>Non-CALA</td>
<td>207.0</td>
<td>~360 (2 years HS)</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-CALA</td>
<td>286.9</td>
<td>~540 (3 years HS)</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6
A comparison of CALA and non-CALA (MTSU) results on the WebCAPE

Unpaired, two-tailed t-test comparison of CALA and non-CALA results vis-à-vis mean score
The Lasting Impact of a Short SSR Experience on EFL Teachers in Korea

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Abstract

This follow-up study examined whether elementary school teachers in Korea who had had sustained silent reading experiences implemented self-selected reading in their English class. The results were remarkable: 70% of the teachers had implemented SSR in their English as a foreign language class. Reasons for not implementing self-selected reading among teachers were mostly a lack of time, the pressure of exams and a lack of access to English books.

Key words: sustained silent reading, self-selected reading, English as a foreign language, elementary school teacher

Introduction

A previous study showed very positive results on reading attitudes in English among Korean elementary school teachers after they participated in a two-week self-selected reading program in which they read books they selected during Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) time, a special time set aside just for reading (Cho 2013). Before the treatment, subjects were clearly not pleasure readers in English. After the treatment, they showed enthusiasm for SSR and agreed that they would try it in their classes.

The purpose of this study was to probe whether, after six months, the teachers actually showed signs of becoming pleasure readers in English and whether they actually implemented SSR in their English class.

Method

Participants: Forty-six teachers in Korean public elementary schools attending a master’s program in elementary English teaching participated in the original study. Twenty of the previous subjects participated in this follow-up study, those enrolled in the researcher’s course when the new semester started.


**Reasons for not implementing SSR:** Teachers who did not implement SSR in English class were asked why they did not. Here are the reasons for not applying SSR to elementary English class. Some teachers gave more than one reason.

Teachers mentioned a lack of class-time and the pressure of the National English Exam, which is based on the textbook. In light of consistent findings that students who do SSR do better than traditionally educated students in a variety of examinations, including reading, vocabulary, writing, and grammar (reviewed in Krashen, 2004; 2007), this reaction indicates that the research on SSR has not been disseminated widely enough; the research shows that time is better spent in SSR than in traditional skill-building and traditional test-preparation.

Several teachers did not do SSR because their students were not advanced enough to read independently. Some students, of course, are not. SSR is not for beginners, but is designed to help low intermediates improve, those who can read some texts without help. But more students might be ready for SSR than we previously thought, thanks to the availability of graded readers, comic books and magazines.

The most tragic reason was the lack of access to reading material. For some reason, governments often cheerfully spent millions and even billions on what doesn’t help (e.g. excessive testing), without investing in what does, a readily accessible supply of comprehensible and interesting reading material.

**Summary and conclusions**

Cho (2013) showed that a short (two-week) personal pleasure reading experience in English had a dramatic effect on teachers’ own reading behavior and their interest in implementing sustained silent reading in their classes. This follow-up study demonstrated that this enthusiasm remained after six months. The obvious implication is that the best way to stimulate appreciation for reading in a second language is to get people to try it themselves, a conclusion consistent with previous results (Cho & Krashen 2001; Cho 2004).

The results would have been even more spectacular if more reading material had been easily available, and if it were more widely known that self-selected reading produces very positive results in literacy and
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The results would have been even more spectacular if more reading material had been easily available, and if it were more widely known that self-selected reading produces very positive results in literacy and
language development. In both cases, testing is the problem: Over-testing bleeds funding from libraries, and inappropriate testing pushes instruction in the wrong direction, away from self-selected reading and toward far less effective alternatives.

REFERENCES


Instruction in the Spanish Diphthong: Results Consistent with Monitor Hypothesis

Stephen Krashen

Abstract
Kilpatrick and Pierce (2014) present data showing that students of Spanish can learn and apply the rule for the diphthong. Their results are consistent with hypotheses about the limitations of applying consciously learned rules.

When two vowels appear together in a Spanish word, they are pronounced as a diphthong, not as two separate vowels (eg. "radio" is pronounced [ra.djo] and not [ra.di.o]). This is only true in English for back vowels; eg "cute" is pronounced [kyut]. Thus, English speakers acquiring Spanish sometimes pronounce [ra.djo] as [ra.di.o]. Kilpatrick and Pierce (2014) noted that explanations of this rule do not appear consistently in Spanish texts and provided direct instruction on this rule to 17 intermediate and beginning students of Spanish as a foreign language.

On the pretest, subjects were asked to reproduce words presented to them and to clap on each syllable while repeating the word. Thirty nonsense words were presented, along with 58 distractors.

The treatment took place immediately after the pretest. In the treatment, subjects heard an explanation of the difference between the English and Spanish pronunciation of two adjacent vowels with examples. Then, as in the pretest, subjects heard and read target words and stated the number of syllables they thought were in the words and then clapped for each syllable while saying the words. Finally, they were asked to produce each word using only two syllables and clap for each syllable and then generalize to new words. They received feedback on the accuracy of their efforts. This lasted for 30 minutes.

The post-test was given immediately after the treatment, and was the same as the pretest, with the order of presentation of items changed. Both pre- and post-testing lasted ten minutes.

There were clear gains on the post-test from the pre-test, with nearly perfect scores on the post-test.

The purpose of this note is to point out that Kilpatrick and Pierce's results are exactly what is predicted by the Monitor hypothesis. In Krashen (1999,
2003), after a review of studies of the effect of grammar instruction on accuracy, it was hypothesized that instruction will have an effect when the conditions for Monitor use are met: the subject knows the rule, there is focus on form, and there is time to apply the rule.

Know the rule: The experimenters had explained the rule to the subjects explicitly. In addition, they made sure the subjects could apply it: Subjects were not allowed to take the post-test until they reached a mastery level of 80% in the treatment (p. 295). Also, the subjects were college students who were quite familiar with this kind of pedagogy.

Focus on form: Subjects were undoubtedly aware that the goal of the entire enterprise was to learn the diphthong rule and that they were being tested on the rule. Before taking the post-test, they had taken a very similar pretest and had experienced 30 minutes of practice in applying the rule. Also, they were involved with nothing else during the entire 50 minute session.

Time to apply the rule: No time constraints were mentioned, and subjects had only one task to do. They were no other demands, no messages to understand or produce.

The impact of instruction in this study was stronger than seen in grammar studies, but the task was simple, the post-test similar to the pre-test and the treatment, and the post-test took place immediately after the treatment.

Kilpatrick and Pierce conclude that their treatment helped their subjects improve their knowledge of the Spanish sound system. All can conclude, however, is that it improved their conscious knowledge, their "learned" competence in Spanish. There is no evidence that it impacted their "acquired" knowledge.

This is not to say that direct instruction of this kind is harmful. It can be helpful when less advanced speakers have problems making themselves understood in conversations. They can then appeal to conscious knowledge to make their utterance more comprehensible. Whether application of this specific rule increases comprehensibility remains to be demonstrated.
KRASHEN: INSTRUCTION IN THE SPANISH DIPHTHONG: RESULTS CONSISTENT WITH MONITOR HYPOTHESIS

REFERENCES

A Test of the Effect of Interesting and Relevant Subject Matter on Second Language Acquisition

Ali Isik  
*Kuleli Askeri Lisesi, Istanbul, Turkey*  
isikal@hotmail.com

**Introduction**

A number of studies have demonstrated the superiority of comprehension-based approaches over traditional approaches (Krashen 2003), but a confound exists in nearly all of them: In comprehension-based methods, the topics discussed in class are nearly always more interesting than in traditional classes. In fact, in older methods, such as grammar-translation, there may be no topic at all. In this study, an attempt was made to control for everything except subject matter.

The study was a comparison between classes following similar approaches, both based on communicative activities combined with grammar instruction. The only difference was that in one case, all activities were based on subject matter related to tourism and the students were training to work in the tourist industry. The comparison class did communicative activities unrelated to any one theme. The study was thus a test of the effect of interesting and relevant subject matter.

**Subjects**

Subjects were all native speakers of Turkish, were high school graduates and had studied English for six years: 83% of the subjects in the experimental group and 80% of the subjects in the comparison group mentioned that their instruction used standard English Language teaching materials, namely *An English Course for Turks*. Only 10% of the subjects from both groups indicated that they had had contact with native speakers of English for one year or more. There were 50 students in each group, chosen from a larger group of 154 students based on their scores on the pretest, described below.

**Method**

Experimental students were all interested in being employed in the tourism industry, as tour operators, assistant travel agents or as flight
attendants. Comparison students did not have this special motivation but were enrolled in general EFL classes in order to have better job opportunities.

Classes for both experimental and comparison groups were taught using a "communicative" approach. The communicative approach, as described in Krashen (1994), is based primarily on two hypotheses: (1) the "skill-building" hypothesis, the hypothesis that we acquire grammatical competence by first understanding rules and practicing them in output activities, which provides learners with a chance to make the rules "automatic" and an opportunity to get errors corrected; (2) the comprehensible output hypothesis, the view that we acquire language when we attempt to communicate and have to reformulate what we said in order to help our listener understand. Thus, in communicative classes, tasks involve both communication and also attempt to provide practice for "consolidation" of target grammar and vocabulary.

When activities are interesting, however, language acquisition can take place via comprehensible input, in agreement with the comprehension hypothesis.

Students in both groups experienced activities involving the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, and both classes included formal grammar instruction. The difference between the groups was that for experimental students, all the activities related to the tourism industry: they were tasks that tourism employees would have to carry out in the workplace, such as making flight reservations and providing information about railroad schedules. The aspects of grammar or functions to be studied were those relevant to the topic, that made the unit more comprehensible and that helped students carry out the activities. In addition, professionals from the tourism sector with very good command of English were assigned as teachers together with English teachers.

The students in the comparison group received general EFL instruction by participating in communicative classroom activities using the course-book, Headway Elementary, and other communicative materials and tasks prepared by the teacher.

The participants in both groups received more than 90 hours of language instruction, which took about two months for the experimental group and three months for the comparisons. The experimental group met on weekends, for six hours on each weekend.
day, a total of 96 hours. Comparisons had 128 hours of instruction, with classes meeting two days a week for three hours at a time.

**Measures and Results**

Both groups were given an adapted version of the grammar part of the Oxford Placement Test before the instruction as a pre-test. Scores were nearly identical (experimental mean = 29.62, sd = 6; comparison mean = 29.48, sd = 5.9) and were, as expected, not significantly different.

The Key English Test (KET) was used as a post-test. The KET consists of reading, writing, listening, and speaking components. Two scorers evaluated the writing and the speaking tests. The interrater reliability for the two raters was .89 for the writing test and .87 for the speaking test at the significance level of .001.

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ES: effect size
Standard deviations in parentheses

*Table 1. Results of post-test*

As presented in table 1, experimental group students outperformed comparisons on listening, speaking and writing, and differences for listening and speaking were statistically significant and, for listening and speaking, substantial, as revealed by the effect sizes. The reading scores were nearly the same and not significantly different.

**Discussion**

Because the courses differed only in the subject matter and not in the method, the results are consistent with the hypothesis that greater
interest results in more language acquisition. Greater interest in the subject matter could have resulted in students' paying more attention to the input, with less attention being paid to form, leading to more comprehensible input and thus greater language acquisition, as contrasted with conscious learning.

The results, however, are best considered to be suggestive. While the comparisons had exposure to more class hours, their classes were of shorter duration, and occurred more frequently, which may have been less favorable. In addition, while the intention was to make methodology similar, and it appeared to be the case that the classes were in fact similar, no fidelity check was done to determine the amount of explicit language practice each group was exposed to.

It needs to be pointed out that this study was carried out as part of a dissertation in 1990, a time when the advantages of comprehension-based instruction were not as clear as they are today. The results do not imply that the communicative approach is the most effective way to teach second languages. The value of the study is that it provides evidence of the strong effect of interest.

REFERENCES

The Urgency of Promoting Mother-Tongue-Based Education: A Case of Indonesia

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Abstract

This article argues that there is an urgent need to promote mother-tongue based education in the Indonesian context, primarily prompted by the gradual disappearance of the country’s indigenous languages, which will be accelerated by the upcoming free-trade agreement in the ASEAN community.

Introduction

The International Linguistic Conference recently held in Bandar Lampung, one of the provinces in Indonesia, was attended by some two hundred linguists worldwide. The conference, which was initiated by the Indonesian Linguistic Society, centered on a pressing issue Indonesia is facing today: the threat of both the national or official language (i.e. Bahasa Indonesia) and the international language (mainly English) to the survival of hundreds of Indonesia’s indigenous languages.

With the absence of a government policy requiring that local languages be used as a medium of instruction in schools and with the endangered status of the country’s vernacular languages, members of the Indonesian Linguistic Society nationwide have made the following recommendation:

“In the past decades, home languages have suffered from a loss of transmission to younger generations. Many youth are no longer able to speak their mother tongue, even though learning the mother tongue provides a child’s earliest opportunity to develop their academic potential as well as increasing their aptitude in learning additional languages. We the members of the Indonesian Linguistics Society pledge to pay special attention to the mother tongue languages spoken in our respective regions, to encourage their use, and to help the transmission of these languages to younger generations through education, research and community service.”

Concomitant with the observation of the International Mother Tongue Day, which falls on February 21, the above recommendation was passed in anticipation of an important event to take place in 2015. The ASEAN (Association of South East Asian Nations) free-trade agreement will go into effect. The ASEAN Road Map has made it clear that English will be
the lingua franca of ASEAN (ASEAN, 2009). For example, The ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community Roadmap contains this action: "Support the citizens of Member States to become proficient in the English language, so that the citizens of the ASEAN region are able to communicate directly with one another and participate in the broader international community" (p. 69; see also statements on pages 68 and 111). Regional languages are mentioned only briefly (p. 69).

Young people in Indonesia are preparing for ASEAN integration by avidly learning English, suffering from "English Fever" (Krashen, 2006).

The Indonesian Linguistic Society is not arguing against the use of English. Rather, the recommendation was aimed at promoting the use of mother-tongue based education and research among both teachers and researchers. This requires at least two things. First, effective mother-tongue based teaching needs supporting facilities such as locally made curricula, the availability of school textbooks and other books written in the students’ native languages, and well trained local language teachers. Second, local linguists and local teacher-researchers are encouraged to write research reports in their native languages, not necessarily in the national language. This can help document and sustain the survival of local languages.

This article discusses the current state of Indonesia’s local languages and proposes efforts that need to be taken to preserve these languages through the promotion of mother-tongue education in Indonesia, a country with some 746 indigenous languages, but with a strong tendency towards monolingualism.

The Current State of Indonesia’s Indigenous Languages

Of approximately 746 indigenous languages in Indonesia, only 450 languages are officially documented by the Indonesia’s Education and Culture Ministry (http://sosbud.kompasiana.com/2014/04/23/). Thus, some 296 undocumented local languages, scholars have suspected, have gone into extinction, with the number of native speakers being less than 500 people. Sadly, the official documented languages have been on the moribund state.

Zubaidah (2014) recorded that most of the endangered languages and those which have become extinct are local languages found in such Indonesia’s provinces as Kalimantan, Papua, Sulawesi, Maluku, and Sumatra. She pointed out that such indigenous languages as Mapia, Tandia, Bonerif, and Saponi (spoken in Papua) and Punan Merah and Kareho Uheng (spoken in Kalimantan) have disappeared, while Lom (spoken in Sumatera), Budong-budong, Dampai, Bahonsai and Baras (spoken in Sulawesi), Hoti and Kayeli (spoken in Maluku) are all in a moribund state and are predicted to disappear soon.

A variety of factors have been blamed for the disappearance of Indonesia’s indigenous languages. Chief amongst them are developing attitudes among Indonesian young generations to pride themselves as belonging to a modern society and the government’s lackadaisical attitude toward the preservation of local languages. Research on the use of local languages in Indonesia among young generations has shown a rather shocking finding in that youngsters often refrain from using their home languages in the family for reasons that
conserving in their home languages is deemed conservative and primitive, lacks of a spirit of nationalism (the use of Indonesian serves as a unifying language among peoples of different races and ethnicities), and fails to keep abreast with modern life where English has become a language of a wider communication trans-nationally. Thus, being able to converse in the Indonesian language is considered more prestigious than being able to speak in one’s native languages. Further, being able to speak in English promises better future career in the face of globalized world.

The government’s lackadaisical attitude is another factor responsible for the disappearance of local languages in the country. Despite the regional autonomy granted by the central government to all provinces in Indonesia, the education system is still highly centralized. For example, the national mandated curriculum is still imposed to all provinces, almost without exception. As for the language teaching curriculum, it is the national language (i.e. the Indonesian language) and foreign language (mainly English) that are given privileges. School textbooks and the national assessment systems are written in Indonesian, and rarely are they written using the student’s home languages. In addition, textbooks written in English are imported and distributed to meet the demands of English teaching in the provinces. Clearly, this all leads to the eventual marginalization of local languages.

The Urgency of Promoting Mother-Tongue Based Education: The Indonesian Context

Young people’s preference to shift either to the national language or an international language (nearly always English) has been seen as the greatest factor contributing to the demise of Indonesia’s local languages (see Sugiharto, 2014b). If this shift continues, it is quite possible that Indonesia will become a monolingual country where only one language (i.e. the official one) will be used as a medium of communication. This tendency has been reported by Cohn, Bowden and McKinnon (2014) who report increased exclusive use of the Indonesian language among Indonesia’s young people whose native languages are Sundanese and Javanese, two dominant ethnic languages with the greatest number of speakers in Indonesia. Ujang Suparman (personal communication, February 19, 2014) has informed me that most young native Lampung often avoid using their home language when interacting with their parents and peers, and converse in the Indonesian language instead. He imputed this shift to monolingualism to the shame of using local languages and to the prestige of the Indonesian language as the official language and unifying language among Indonesians.

This disparagement of local language varieties among their speakers reflects the effects of the strong imposition of the Indonesian language as a unifying language in education, not to mention the effects of globalization where English has seeped into all facets of life, including education.

The use of a single language in order to maintain national and international unity has been deemed fallacious. Kosonen and Benson (2013) argue that “using one language and excluding many others actually creates divisions, inequalities, inequities, because it means that hundreds of millions of people worldwide are forced to learn–or teach–through a language in which they are not proficient” (p. 2).
The use of national and international languages need not be subtractive—that is, at the expense of local languages—but many parents in Indonesia think that focusing only on the national and international language leads to better acquisition, and that local languages are only a hindrance.

The push to monolingualism in the Indonesian context is evident both through the Indonesian government's ardent promotion of the use of the official language in education and through the mushrooming marketization of English for early childhood education, the imposition of an English-only policy in many schools in Indonesia, and parents’ strong preferences for sending their children to so-called “international” schools where English is the main medium of instruction (Sugiharto, 2014a).

Mother-tongue education can certainly help counter the dominant use of the Indonesian language and the English language. This can be done more effectively if the teaching of local languages serves more than just a local content, but instead must be mandated as a compulsory subject for all the students.

Conclusion

The Indonesian Linguistic Society’s recommendation for promoting the use of the mother tongue in the Indonesian community is very opportune, not only for the preservation efforts of the indigenous languages among the younger generations but also for the anticipation of the free-trade agreement among ASEAN member states in 2015, when regional languages will be threatened by more powerful languages and more English will be demanded. Ironically, protecting and promoting the native language will contribute to solving both problems.

REFERENCES


**Acknowledgment**

Many thanks go to Professor Stephen Krashen who read and commented on the initial draft of this article.
Style Sheet for submissions to IJFLT

Please submit your articles to IJFLT as a Word or Word-compatible document and use the settings outlined below. In the interest of efficiency, articles that do not conform to these guidelines will be returned to the author for revision.

The Research and Teacher to Teacher sections have some different style requirements; please use the guidelines that apply to your submission.

Please send all submissions to ijflteditor@gmail.com.

ALL SUBMISSIONS

Paper size: 8.5" x 11"

Margins: 1.75" left and right, 1.25" top and bottom

Tabs: set at .25", .75" and 1.25"; every .5" thereafter as needed

Font: Times New Roman, 12 pt. for text, 10 pt. for abstract, footnotes, and references. If additional fonts are necessary, such as in the case of data display, please ensure that they will display correctly when the document is converted to PDF. If a fixed-width font is necessary for diagrams, use the Courier family.

Spacing: Sentences should be separated by one space. All lines should be single-spaced.

Headers and footers: None. These will be added when your article is inserted into the journal.

RESEARCH Article

Sections:

1. Title and Abstract: The entire title should be aligned left. The first word of the title and subtitle and all proper nouns should be capitalized. The first line should contain the title and subtitle of the paper in 16 pt., followed by one blank line in 16 pt., followed by the author's name in 14 pt. The next line contains the author's affiliation (such as the university) in 12 pt. italics, and the last line contains the author's email address in 12 pt. with no formatting.

Insert 2 blank lines immediately before the text of the abstract, which should be aligned at the third tab stop (1.25"). Use 10 pt. italics and use a maximum of 300 words. Insert 2 blank lines after the abstract in 12 pt.
2. **Section headings:** Should be separated by the previous section by 2 blank lines and from the section text by one blank line.

3. **Paragraphs:** The first line of paragraphs should NOT be indented. The main text of all paragraphs should be justified. Separate paragraphs with one blank line.

4. **Examples:** Should be in italics. Their glosses in running text should be in single quotes.

For numbered examples, place the number in parentheses and tabbed once (0.25"). The rest of the text for that example should be aligned with its gloss using tabs rather than spaces. Use small caps for items like case markers and other instances where items are not literally translated into English. The idiomatic gloss should be on the following line, in single quotes, and examples should be separated from the text and from other examples by one blank line.

If there are multiple examples per example number, the lettered sub-examples should be one tab stop away from the example number. So, if the example is tabbed at 0.25, the sub-example(s) should be tabbed at 0.5.

If the language variety needs to be made clear, it can be enclosed in parentheses and right-aligned on the line directly above the example.


5. **Tables:** Tables incorporated into the text must fit within the margins of the page. Ensure all borders of the table are printable so it will appear correctly in the PDF.

Each table should be consecutively numbered and titled in italics directly below the table, with a period and 2 spaces between the table number and its title:

`Table X. Title of Table`

6. **Figures:** The term figure refers here to anything that is not text, an example, or a table. Figures must fit within the text boundaries and be properly labeled and numbered as tables must.

**References, etc.:**

1. **Acknowledgements and previous versions:** Should be indicated in an initial footnote appended to the end of the main title, using an asterisk (*).

2. **Notes:** The in-text notes should be consecutively numbered footnotes in 10 pt. Times New Roman. Footnotes should be placed at the end of sentences whenever possible. In-text references should come after the final sentence's punctuation.
3. **In-text citations:** If the name of the author is part of the sentence, enclose the year and any page numbers in parentheses.

   Smith (2012)
   Smith (2012:150-2)

If the name is not part of the sentence, enclose the entire reference:

   (Smith 2012)
   (Smith 2012:150-2)

If the work has multiple authors, use the ampersand:

   (Smith & White 2012)
   (Smith, Jones, & White 2012)

A running quotation of 3 or more lines should be set off from the rest of the text by a tab and one blank line before and after. The citation should follow the last line after 2 spaces.

3. **Reference section:** Follows the final section of the article after 4 blank lines. The heading should be REFERENCES in 12 pt. small caps followed by one blank line. Each reference should follow the LSA's "A Unified Stylesheet for Linguistics" here: [http://linguistlist.org/pubs/tocs/JournalUnifiedStyleSheet2007.pdf](http://linguistlist.org/pubs/tocs/JournalUnifiedStyleSheet2007.pdf). References should be left-aligned and in 10 pt. Times New Roman. If a reference wraps to multiple lines, the second and following lines should be indented to the first tab stop (0.25).

4. **Appendices:** These should follow the References section and one blank line. Heading should be APPENDICES using small caps, followed by a blank line. Each appendix should be in the following format:

   Appendix 1: "Title of Appendix 1" (Video, .avi format)
   http://hdl.handle.net/XXX/XXX
   Appendix 2: "Title of Appendix 2: (Audio, .wav format)
   http://hdl.handle.net/XXX/XXX
   Appendix 3: "Title of Appendix 3" (Additional data, .xls format)
   http://hdl.handle.net/XXX/XXX

If you have appendices, the editor will assign you permanent URLs.

5. **Other:**

   **Quotes:** "" for direct quotation. Either directional or straight quotes can be used as long as they are consistent. "' for 'scare quotes' (keep to an absolute minimum) and quotations within quotations, as well as meta-language glosses. Unless the period is part of the quote, it should come after the final quotation mark.

   **Hyphens and Dashes:** Hyphens (-) are used for morphological boundaries and compounded words like 'hip-hop'. Em-dashes (——) are used for parentheticals—like this one—in the text. You may use either en-dashes (–) or hyphens (-) for page and year ranges, like 1996-7, or pages 203-327, but please be consistent and omit spaces between the dash and numbers.
Hyperlinks: Microsoft Word has the habit of turning typed-in http:// addresses into hyperlinks so they become blue and underlined. Please ensure that hyperlinks in your paper are clickable, but are black, rather than the standard blue, and that the underlining is removed.

TEACHER TO TEACHER Article

What do you do better than most other teachers? What do you do differently than other teachers? What do you do that other teachers would be able to adapt for themselves? Sharing those ideas is the purpose of the IJFLT Teacher to Teacher section.

In general, submissions:

- Should be a teaching idea that is applicable in the classroom by other teachers
- Should be short.
- Should not assume that readers are familiar with terminology like TPRS or CI or the 5Cs.
- Should write for an international audience, showing that the technique could be applied to any language.
- Avoid using idiomatic expressions in English.
- Avoid using informal language. (It was so cool! Can you believe it?)
- Speak of your own experience and your own strategies and provide step by step instructions for teachers who might not be familiar with the background information.

While this section is somewhat less formal than the Research section, please follow the guidelines above regarding font, page size, margins, tabs, spacing, and footnotes. Be sure to check the veracity and accuracy of that information carefully and then cite your source.
Talking Our Way to Successful Reading

Michael Coxon, Spanish teacher
Desert Vista High School, Phoenix, Arizona

Michael Coxon’s graduate work is in Spanish Literature from the University of Northern Iowa at Santiago de Compostela, Galicia, Spain. He received his B.A. in History, English, and Spanish Education from Illinois State University. Michael has taught language classes from grades 1-12 and has traveled extensively throughout Europe and Central America and continues learning new languages. Links to teaching videos and his blog can be found at the end of the article.

Why read in a language-learning classroom?
I once heard a foreign language teacher say, “I am a Spanish teacher! I don’t know how to teach reading (that’s not my job)!” regarding the use of leveled chapter readers with sheltered content for beginning language learners. It is an honest statement, and a valid point. Why is it necessary for language teachers to emphasize reading, especially in the beginning stages of language learning when students don’t know very much?

It is my goal to facilitate the ability of my students to acquire a second language. Through an emphasis on comprehensible immersion and literacy building this is achieved. As we teach students to read in the target language we teach them to fish for a lifetime. We are fostering a love of language learning and a gateway to learning more beyond the classroom. When we teach students isolated words and grammar in a language, we give the students a fish for the day. In this way we prepare them for the formative assessments of a given curriculum. Extensive research already exists on the power of reading and its link to language acquisition. Input must be comprehensible to be acquired, so reading with beginning learners and gradually increasing the complexity of the readers throughout the program is beneficial for all.

How can teachers present language to their students in a way that fosters successful reading experiences?

Here I will offer some strategies for activating reading and captivating our students by using the target language in a series of “Talks.” The concentration and exposure of high-interest and meaningful teacher-to-student language, combined with a healthy diet of comprehensible reading materials allows for optimal language learning (Elley, 1997). The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages recommends that the target language compose at least 90% of class time (Crouse 2013). The strategies for reaching such language derive from the term “teacher talk” that comes from the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics. Teacher talk is a variety of language and a style of speech used to address language learners (Richards, 1992). By presenting language aurally to my students and using the strategies of TPRS/teaching with Comprehensible Input (CI), I can ensure that my students understand and can successfully read in the target language.
Get away from words to get students to read

Many of my students are not interested in reading. Initially, reading can be boring or unpleasant in the classroom, hindering the link between reading and language acquisition. In September, I wrote a brief blog article based on my re-reading of John Medina’s New York Time’s bestseller *Brain Rules*. If I want students to read, I keep these principals in mind:

#4 | ATTENTION | “We don’t pay attention to boring things.”

#9 | SENSORY INTEGRATION | “Stimulate more of the senses.”

#10 | VISION | “Vision trumps all other senses.”

In the classroom, students do not want to be bored. Stimulating the senses coincides with differentiated instruction, so when students can visualize as they learn, more effective learning will take place. Medina claims that teachers and business leaders should “*ditch*” the PowerPoint presentations. They are text-based and play against the strengths of the brain. If using text-based resources is less effective, what can be done to fulfill the goal of teaching reading? In the Pleasure Hypothesis, Krashen says, “activities that are good for language acquisition are usually perceived by acquirers as pleasant, while those activities that are not good for language acquisition are not consistently perceived as pleasant, and are, in fact, often perceived to be painful.”

Pre-reading/talking activities

Since all that I do in the classroom is to foster reading, everything I do is essentially a pre-reading activity. I implement a backward design, pre-teaching prior to reading. Reading requires words and text but as a prerequisite to that, there must be a negotiation of understanding of the new language. Spanish teacher Eric Herman wrote an extensive article on Ashley Hastings’ MovieTalk (Narrative/Paraphrase approach) in *IJFLT, June 2014*. In his article, he discussed several different techniques and suggestions for using a video clip in order to create interesting and comprehensible input.

MovieTalk is an activity that concentrates the target language on a video in a highly engaging way for students. Through narration and questioning, the teacher stays almost entirely in the target language. Similar to Hastings’ MovieTalk, below is a collection of other variations on “Talks” to prepare students for reading. The mixture of talking topics creates a classroom environment that has a lot of variety for students. At the same time, it allows the lessons to be conducted mostly in the target language, cultivating immersion-like learning.

PhotoTalk

When I was a younger teacher, I often thought it was unprofessional to speak of my personal life with my students. Personalization and talking about my personal life has become a point of interest for my students and starting point for introducing new language to new learners.
Using photos of friends and family members from Facebook, Instagram, or Twitter, I easily make textbook themed vocabulary and grammar relevant to teenagers of the “selfie generation.” Because the photos I use often have several different people in them, they easily lend themselves to a variety of topics: family members, physical and personal characteristics, possessive adjectives, places, time of day, and seasons. PhotoTalks are often discussed with a variety of grammatical structures and demonstrate the use of language.

From time to time, I will also ask students to send me a photo of something they did that weekend, last week, or last summer. As soon as we project it for all to see, an instant story appears. The student or students become the curriculum and, since the events of the photo already occurred, most of the grammar being used is in the past tense. This automatically increases student engagement. This type of activity is great to have ready when there is extra time in class, on Mondays to start the week, or on Fridays to end it. Some of the most organic language experiences occur when I use student photos because the lesson requires improvisation.

**PropTalk**
The use of a prop is a powerful tool to engage and re-engage students in a discussion. Sometimes I use props to start a lesson, and then that prop becomes the focus of our discussion. Many questioning techniques that provide comprehensible input can be used while presenting with a prop. Students can build a great deal of language around common objects like a cell phone, a coffee cup, or the various doors that a key might unlock. Exercise equipment, instruments, and food naturally involve students because they want to hold, use, or eat such objects.

I enjoy using stories that allow for numerous props. The story might start with a prop that is extensively used, discussed, or demonstrated. If students start to lose interest, a new item can be introduced to stimulate conversation and student interest. As we scaffold other aspects of teaching, we can also scaffold various levels of prop presentation. Since students are visually interacting with the topic and props, we continue to stimulate the senses, as Medina suggests.

**MusicTalk**
As a Spanish teacher, I have a wonderful resource in the form of Señor Wooly songs. Jim Wooldridge’s songs deliver comprehensible and interesting language. Music is the carrier to the subconscious and also manages the emotional state of the listeners (Jensen, 2008).

When we use music and music videos in the classroom there are always characters, settings, and storylines to discuss. This is the case for almost any song. Before, during, or after using a song we use various features of the target language. Lyrics of songs are forms of poetry and literature, and they can be analyzed and discussed as such. The added bonus is that music allows for students to better retain what they hear. For example, the song *Billy la Bufanda* is about a scarf that is essentially a hopeless romantic who encounters love when he meets his love interest, a pretty pair of boots. On the surface this seems ridiculous, but learning language is about telling stories. Billy goes on
adventures to various places, encountering various characters and problems along the way. Those adventures are rich with appropriate grammar, vocabulary and natural language structure for my students.

**ArtTalk**  
I often use art to target language. I love using the works of Diego Rivera to discuss the socioeconomic issues of Mexico. Picasso and Dali are other artists who help me to discuss shapes, colors, and the possibilities of characters. If at any time I run out of language to use, I point to something else or use the next piece of art. ArtTalks can be very basic questions about colors and settings, or they can lend themselves to more intricate conversations about making connections between cultures. The Metropolitan Museum of Art recently made their art collection available on-line at [http://www.openculture.com](http://www.openculture.com)

**EventTalk**  
EventTalks can be used in various ways. Sometimes the events discussed are common events like a wedding, traveling in an airport, or even something as ordinary as the morning wake-up routine. On the surface some of these events can be mundane, but one little detail can make the talks exciting and unique. For example, when discussing the event of airport travel, we use a story about the time I went to Hollywood and found a celebrity’s wallet at the airport Starbucks. Initially, the event itself seems boring, but as soon as the students discover that after a disastrous flight, I find myself at Starbucks buying a coffee and find Matt Damon’s wallet, they want to know more. The point of the event is not about the celebrity but rather about being able to demonstrate vocabulary and grammar involving travel.

**CultureTalk**  
Culture, as presented by the *Partnership for 21st Century Skills*, directs teachers to emphasize the “relationship of perspectives, practices, and products of the culture.” In my classes I seek to engage students in learning about another culture. I do not, of course, want to sacrifice language learning. CultureTalk is a great way for me to expose students to other cultures while still teaching in Spanish. For example, when discussing cultural aspects of Spain, I involve students in the stories about running with the bulls in Pamplona or bullfights in Valencia. These are stories based on life experiences and it is easy for me to relate them to the lives of my students.

Other cultural topics can be designed around information found in a text that we plan to read. When we use the Spanish reader *Los Baker van a Peru*, many talks go into the history and images of the Nasca Lines. Since the characters of the book visit such a place, we look at various images and talk about the theories of the lines. This is an obscure topic for many students; understanding the practices by the Nasca people requires care if students are to develop a cultural and/or historical awareness.

**StudentTalk**  
Many classes include students whose first language is Spanish. These students still need foreign language credits, and they often benefit from reading, writing, and language
instruction in Spanish. In these cases, these students might speak better than the teacher. These students are very much welcomed because we incorporate their skill for the benefit of teaching others. StudentTalks are sessions of conducting interview-like conversations with the native-language speakers. I slowly ask them questions, point to grammar topics or question words, and allow them to answer and clarify their responses for the benefit of all the students in the room.

Students often request more sessions with native speakers. Krashen says, “Language acquisition is a subconscious process; while it is happening we are not aware that it is happening” (Krashen, 1982). When native speakers are the center of curriculum and the information is comprehensible, the students are captivated and only care about the details of the story.

**ActorTalk**

A common technique found in TPR Storytelling® is to incorporate student actors into a story (also called Reader’s Theater). One reason to do this is that it allows the student actors to provide more repetition of the target language. I often use student actors when teaching a comprehensible reader. This is a great way for students to visualize the story. It is common for students to have trouble recognizing dialogue versus narration in a story. When student actors play the role of a character in a book, it engages the imaginations of the class to think beyond just the words in the story. Such characters might fit stereotypes and face various problems within the story; these can be explored in detail, thus using more of the target language.

**Conclusion**

I know my students are most successful when they understand the messages that they hear. Once they understand these messages, I seek to expose them to as much comprehensible reading as possible. All of these “talks” just help categorize the complexities of pre-teaching reading in a language classroom. I am determined to create frequent opportunities for meaningful and comprehensible immersion everyday. One definition of immersion is “deep mental involvement, or the action of immersing oneself in something.”

Among the many intellectual pursuits available, reading is currently perhaps the most often mentioned immersion or flow activity around the world. In *Flow: The Psychology of Optimal Experience*, Mihaly Csikszentmihályi outlines his theory that people are happiest when they are in a state of flow— a state of concentration or complete absorption with the activity at hand and the situation. It is a state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter. The idea of flow is identical to the feeling of being in the zone or in the groove. The flow state is an optimal state of intrinsic motivation, where the person is fully immersed in what he is doing. He describes flow as "being completely involved in an activity for its own sake.”

It is not until I question my students about what they have learned or remind them about what they have read that they become aware of their language development. At times, some of my students do not realize they are learning because they have fun and enjoy all
of the topics in which we immerse ourselves. I want my students to be able to read happily, with ease and confidence. In order to help them accomplish this, I must be creative and thoughtful in how I provide comprehensible, compelling, contextualized, and concentrated input. “TeacherTalks” has been a great strategy for doing so.

Why do I teach reading in a language classroom? Reading is a tremendous source of comprehensible input for my students, which leads directly to language acquisition. These variations on “TeacherTalks” are part of a backwards plan for reading in the second language. For my students, reading is perceived as both comprehensible and pleasurable. When they leave my class after 180 days of instruction with the ability to read in another language, I have given them the best chance of acquiring more. By making their educational experience pleasant, I foster positive attitudes about learning new languages. Becoming a life-long language learner is the language student equivalent of learning “to fish for a lifetime.” It is my goal to facilitate the ability of my students to continue their journey in acquiring a second language. This is happily accomplished through an emphasis on comprehensible immersion and literacy building.

- Michael’s teaching blog: Optimizing Immersion: Teaching with Comprehensible Input at http://www.Srcoxon.wordpress.com
- Twitter: @coxon_mike
- Instagram: @srcoxon
- See classroom “Talk” videos: Search youtube “Michael Coxon TPRS.”

REFERENCES
Freeze Frame: Using Frozen Tableaus to Crank Up the Comprehensible Input in Language Classes

Martina Bex

Freeze Frame is a fun, interactive way to review a story and provide Comprehensible Input by assigning to students to groups that create physical depictions of scenes from a story (short film, class story, novel, etc.) in ‘freeze frame’ vignettes.

THE ACTIVITY

Freeze Frame is very simple. It requires no preparation, making it an ideal activity to use immediately after reading or listening to a story in class.

First, select 8-10 scenes from a story or text. The best scenes to use are ones that are unambiguous—moments from the story in which it is very clear what is happening. You (the teacher) can plan which scenes to use ahead of time, or you can select them upon completion of the story.

Once the scenes are selected, divide the class into groups. The groups should contain the number of characters needed to depict the scenes plus one additional student. For example, if there are 3 characters in most of the scenes, there should be 4 students in each group.

With students standing beside their group-mates, read aloud one of the scenes to the class and wait for 30 to 60 seconds for all groups to create their unique vignette depicting that scene. The extra student in the group should play the role of the director, arranging his or her group-mates to form a beautiful frozen moment.

After most groups have finished setting up their frozen moments, stop them and ask the director of each group to snap a photo of his/her group and send it to you. These images will be projected and discussed with the class at a later date. If this is not a realistic possibility, then you can unfreeze all but two groups and draw the attention of the ‘thawed’ students to the two groups that remain frozen. With the thawed students looking on, compare and contrast the two frozen groups’ depictions of the scene at hand, providing comprehensible input while comparing and contrasting the details of each scene.

Finally, ask all groups to select a new director/photographer (so that the same student doesn’t play the role of the director for all of the scenes), and read a new scene to the class. Repeat the entire process for each of the scenes that you have prepared.

THE ACTIVITY…WITH A TWIST

Freeze Frame is a highly adaptable activity, which is of great benefit to teachers who strive for novelty in their classes. By putting a slight spin on the basic Freeze Frame activity, you will be able to use it many times throughout the school year without diminishing the level of engagement that students experience.
**Frozen Frame-Off**

Divide the class into 2 teams, and bring up a set of student actors and a director from each team. Show the scene description to the directors, but do not show it to the actors or the other team members. The director must physically manipulate the actors’ bodies to form the freeze-frame vignette. The director can only give physical commands *in the target language*, like “Move your leg,” “Raise your right arm,” etc. Each actor in the group has one opportunity to guess which scene they are forming. For example, a group of 3 student actors will have 3 opportunities to correctly guess the scene. The first actor who guesses the scene correctly earns a point for his or her team. The team members who are *not* participating in the creation of the vignette can shout out suggestions to the actors in the target language as to which scene is being depicted, but a guess only becomes official when it is made by one of the actors. Each actor can only make one official guess. Once a team runs out of guesses or the other team correctly guesses the scene before it, that team cannot earn a point. As always, photograph the scenes before bringing up a new group of student actors for the next round of the competition.

**THE ACTIVITY...AND BEYOND**

The activity is over, and your inbox is filled with the photographs of the scenes that your students created. Now what? Use them to generate more comprehensible input, of course! Here are a few ideas:

- Project the images to the class one by one. Take time to describe each image in detail. As you do, ask questions and provide repetitions of the target structures, use comprehension checks to assess students’ understanding, and connecting the descriptions to your students’ lives by asking personalized questions.

- Play “Pick the Pic” (martinabex.com/2013/02/13/pick-the-pic/), or use it as a listening assessment.

- Pair up students and distribute one of the images to each pair. Have the pair of students work together to write an alternate story explaining what is going on in the picture: an explanation that is different than what actually happened in the story but still makes sense based on that image alone.

*A longer version of this article was originally published on The Comprehensible Classroom blog on October 24, 2014. [http://martinabex.com/2014/10/24/freeze-frame/](http://martinabex.com/2014/10/24/freeze-frame/)*

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Brazilian Music as Comprehensible Compelling Input

Dr. María Consuelo Guerrero is an Assistant Professor at the University of Texas Pan American in the Modern Languages and Literature Department where she teaches courses in Portuguese, Latin American Literature and Mexican cinema.

Over the last few years I have developed a 2-semester (6 credit hours) course sequence in the Portuguese language at the University of Texas Pan American, a university on the Texas-Mexico border. The vast majority of the students are native to the region and variably bilingual in Spanish and English, though a few are primarily ‘English-speaking’. For many of these students, Portuguese will be their third language.

Students typically enroll in these courses to complete the 6 hours of required foreign language study as part of the core curriculum, or they take the courses as electives. Students from all class standings are drawn to the courses. Enrollment has been quite stable over the last few years and student feedback has always been very positive, in part due to consistent use of Brazilian music and song lyrics. I believe the students’ ability to use Portuguese has benefitted greatly from this use of authentic text.

Spanish is my first language, Portuguese is my second and English is my third. Some time ago, I had a unique opportunity to acquire and learn Portuguese by immersing myself in the Brazilian language and culture in Mexico City. During that period of time, I worked in the Portuguese department at the Centro de Enseñanza de Lenguas Extranjeras (CELE) at the Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM) where I routinely interacted in Portuguese with Brazilian professors and instructors. At the same time, I completed advanced and intensive coursework that led to a Diploma (Certificado de Perfeccionamiento en Portugués) that certified my command of the language. Music, within and outside the classroom, was one of the cornerstones of my Portuguese language development, so I also sang and did theater in Portuguese for 3 years under the supervision of a Brazilian director.

In the classroom, I studied Portuguese through the Curso Ativo de Português (Silva-Gomes, Lage-Pessoa, & Åkerberg, 1985), a communicative approach to language teaching that has been the basis for the program curriculum for more than 25 years. Dr. Helena Maria Da Silva-Gomes based the curriculum on the interests of the learners, in this
case Mexican university students. Using a student survey to understand why this Spanish-speaking student population was motivated to study Portuguese, Dr. Da Silva discovered that these Mexican students were keenly interested in Brazilian music. Their motivation was neither instrumental nor linked to fulfilling some kind of university requirement. Consequently, some part of my early acquisition and learning of Brazilian Portuguese was driven by this communicative and active approach to language learning with authentic materials, including Brazilian lyrics and music. This experience was later followed by undergraduate and graduate studies in the Brazilian Portuguese language and literature.

Integrating Brazilian Music

Now with the opportunity of building this 1-year Portuguese course sequence, I decided to adopt a standard textbook to give some structure to the 2 courses. I realized that while the text offered direction and structure and was readily used across the U.S., the content and activities were not especially interesting or exciting. In an effort to respond to this void, and drawing on my own personal language learning experience, I decided to integrate Brazilian music into the courses.

I select a song with some kind of connection (e.g. key grammatical structures, topic, student interest) to the unit at hand. These authentic songs are a kind of natural introduction to some language features the students might be ready to acquire or will likely study later on. I also prefer songs that are available with video on the Internet. This way students can also see the song being performed or some related visual representation of the song’s content. For example, I have the class sing the simple but enjoyable song by Rita Lee “Nem Luxo Nem Lixo” starting the first day of Portuguese I. Right after they introduce themselves, we repeat with Rita Lee, “Como vai você?” On the other hand, I end Portuguese II with the pop Brazilian rapper Marcelo D2 and his challenging lyrics of “Batucada.” The availability of these songs on the Internet being performed by the artists only adds to the students’ enthusiasm.

Students are provided with the lyrics to the song at the beginning of each textbook unit. We watch and listen to the video, and they talk about the possible meaning as a team. Then we listen to it a second time while reading the lyrics, and they discuss them again as a team. At this point they are just searching for the general meaning, and I scaffold their comprehension as needed. After that, they try to sing the song a couple of times in chorus as a whole class, and their homework is to finish studying the lyrics at home.
The next class we work the song a little more, and I fill in gaps as needed. From that point on, we sing the unit song during the last 10 minutes of class. The highlight of using this kind of authentic material is whole-class participation; some students may sing loudly enough to be heard in the next room or engage their bodies through dance.

In addition, and outside of class, students almost naturally seek out more information about the singer or band given their interest and ready access to the Internet. Each semester, students bring me not only new songs from the unit artist but also from different singers or bands they find on the Internet. If the lyrics are appropriate, I always use what they find in the classroom; in other cases they are able to research the meaning of those lyrics on their own.

Understanding the Students’ Response: A theoretical interpretation

There are several inter-related explanations that, taken collectively, help explain why my students responded so readily to Brazilian music as a component of these 2 courses:

- **Comprehensible compelling input.** Songs easily qualify as "compelling" comprehensible input, meaning input that is so interesting that the acquirer "forgets" that it is in another language; such input may be optimal for language acquisition (Krashen, 2011). In my estimation, these songs constitute the most compelling input my students have access to.

- **Song as an innate structure.** It may well be that humans are naturally drawn to rhythms in music and language; we may have an "innate receptiveness" to respond to music (Jolly, 1975). Jolly concludes that "by using songs as teaching aids in the foreign language classroom, we are merely capitalizing on this natural responsiveness" (see also Bergen, 2012).

- **Cognate languages and authentic texts.** Since a number of my students are native speakers of Spanish, this allows for a fair amount of transfer from Spanish to Portuguese and the ability to understand authentic texts early in their second language development (Carvalho, Luna-Freire and Da Silva, 2010).

- **Song and video as pedagogical material.** Beyond their linguistic richness (Nuessel and Marshall, 2008) the use of the Internet and
video representations of the songs adds greatly to the appeal of using songs for teaching Portuguese. Most university students also have some kind of device that allows them to access the Internet and the videos in question. With the lyrics in hand, they can listen to, watch, and rewind the performances repeatedly and at their leisure. In addition, it is possible that some of the images in the video help promote comprehension and, in turn, language acquisition.

Next Steps

In light of my experiences and these key pedagogical, empirical, and theoretical positions, I believe that the Brazilian songs I have come to rely on to breathe life into my Portuguese courses with these university students represent a curricular design worth expanding. The possibility of developing a 2-course sequence using a content-based approach (Lyster & Ballinger, 2011), with music at its center instead of its periphery, is both appealing and defensible. Songs entail a variety of language learning benefits and content well beyond their linguistic properties. It is not difficult envisioning the integration of themes that tap into the geography, culture, politics, history, and current events embedded within these lyrics and their video representations to recreate this yearlong course sequence.

References


The strength of a language does not lie in rejecting what is foreign but in assimilating it.  
-Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, poet, dramatist, novelist, and philosopher (1749-1832)

NEW SPANISH BOOK!  
**Don Quijote, el último caballero** is a novel for intermediate and advanced beginners in the Fluency Fast series of readers. It uses a vocabulary of fewer than 200 different Spanish words to tell a 1,400 word story in the present tense and the same story also in the past tense. It is repetitive and simple and uses many cognates to make the story comprehensible to adults and children. The stories are intentionally written to be acted out in class, but also to serve as independent reading in either the present or past tense.

**Don Quijote, el último caballero** is an amusing, ironic and - at the same time - tragic story. Don Quijote is an ordinary Spaniard with an extraordinary imagination who believes he must achieve great feats to honor a lady. He falls in love with a waitress that he considers to be the ideal lady. He and his companion Sancho Panza have adventures in which Don Quijote is always mistaken about what he finds along the way while Sancho sees what is really there. The story is based on Miguel de Cervantes’ *The Ingenious Gentleman Don Quixote of La Mancha*, published in the 17th Century. Many consider it to be the best book of fiction ever written.

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Spinning Personalized Questions/Answers into a Story

Jon Cowart teaches Spanish in a Title 1 school in South Memphis, an 80% free and reduced lunch school.

As a three-time attendee of the International Forum on Language Teaching, IFLT, a summer conferences on Comprehensible Input-Based Strategies, I have often found great ideas to take back to my classroom in August. However, many of the strategies presented at these conferences are difficult to adapt for an urban high school setting.

Comprehensible input-based strategies rely on engagement, participation, and intrinsic motivation from our students – things that do not come easily in an urban classroom setting. For the past 3 years, I’ve tried to mesh the world of teaching with TPRS and other comprehension-based strategies with my students’ backgrounds and needs. Some of it has yielded good results; some of it, not so much.

This year I attended a session at iFLT called Xtreme Personalization. Applying the techniques and strategies from the Personalization sessions this fall revolutionized my teaching. After having used personalization in my classes for years, my epiphany was that Personalized Questions/Answers (PQAs) should NOT be disconnected from the class story. In fact, PQAs should BECOME the class story.

The “Formula”
- Ask students what they did over the weekend (or yesterday) by asking questions and listening and thoughtfully responding to the responses.
- Ask several students until you get an interesting answer.
- Bring the actor/actress up to act out the story as you “tell the story” or “ask the story” using all of the information you gathered during the PQA process.
- When beginning to act out a story, ask the class a question and then confirm it with your actor/actress, putting the main character in charge of the direction of his or her own story.
- “Find the problem.” Determine the central conflict or problem in the story by asking the class to tell a secret, or share a rumor.
- Use the target vocabulary structures and repeat those structures dozens of times while asking questions of the class and recycling the information that was obtained during PQA.

Results
Every time I have used this formula, I have hit a “home run:” a story that is compelling, usually funny and in which students are engaged. Behavior issues, academic issues, or attention span issues in general go away when the “story” is about someone in the class. My most reluctant Spanish students from last year are now enthusiastic participants, and they cannot wait to have their personal life experiences spun into our
class story that day. They love to see their answers used in the class story. With the population I teach, this is exactly what I needed to reach my students.

Language is a skin: I rub my language against the other. It is as if I had words instead of fingers, or fingers at the tip of my words. My language trembles with desire.

-Roland Barthes, literary critic and philosopher (1915-1980)
“Language acquisition proceeds best when the input is not just comprehensible, but really interesting, even compelling; so interesting that you forget you are listening to or reading another language.”

Dr. Stephen Krashen
Las Aventuras de Isabela

The first novel in the Fluency Fast series for true beginners. It uses a vocabulary of only 200 Spanish words to tell a 2,200-word story. It is repetitive and simple and uses many cognates to make the book comprehensible to beginning adults and children. Set in Guanajuato, Mexico. The English version of Isabela is available on-line for free to ELA teachers in the US and EFL teachers outside of the US.

Isabela captura un congo

The second novel in the series. It uses a vocabulary of 350 high frequency words to tell a 3500-word story. Vocabulary is recycled from Isabela. Cognates and repetition of structures make the book comprehensible to true beginners of any age. Set in Costa Rica. Donations from the sale of this book are made to help injured Congos in Costa Rica.

Carl no quiere ir a México

The third novel in the Isabela series uses a vocabulary of 350 words to tell a 5000-word story. The book recycles vocabulary from the first two books and continues to use cognates and repetition to be comprehensible for all ages. Set in Guanajuato, Mexico. Donations from the sale of this book are made to help street dogs.

Isabela captura un congo

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Isabela captura un congo

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https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ta93-z-cNL0

Teachers of English in Turkey teaching children using TPRS. Lessons are uploaded for free. 17 teachers from the Turkish Military were trained in TPRS and CI Methods over 3 weeks during the summer of 2014. Their current mission is to educate other teachers in TPRS and other comprehension based methods using what they learned in the U.S. (Eyüpşütlu Education Center: www.eyupogluugitim.com). Lessons are taught by Koksal Ozturk. TPRS lessons are taught to educate the other civil professors who will teach TPRS English soon. The goal is to spread TPRS in Turkey. This is a 36 hour beginning course for kids, 3 hours per week. Videos are posted each week and are free.
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