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A MULTILITERACIES FRAMEWORK FOR COLLEGIATE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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CHAPTER

3

Reconceptualizing Grammar and Vocabulary as Meaning-Making Resources

For many foreign language (FL) instructors, grammar and vocabulary are the most important parts of language learning; they form the foundation for acquiring all other aspects of the language, including pronunciation, oral expression, reading and listening comprehension, and writing. Grammar and vocabulary are certainly important building blocks for developing not only linguistic accuracy, but also overall fluency, both of which contribute to learners' ability to understand and use language orally and in writing. Indeed, second language acquisition (SLA) research confirms that lexical and grammatical knowledge is crucial to development of FL proficiency and persistence in FL study (e.g., Broady, 2008; Nation, 2001; Spada, 2011; Zhang, 2012).

Yet despite—or perhaps because of—their importance, many FL instructors find teaching grammar and vocabulary effectively to be the most challenging part of their job. For some teachers, who may themselves have learned language forms through memorization of rules or word lists, it is difficult to think about how to teach grammar and vocabulary in ways that focus simultaneously on form and meaning. Moreover, it may be hard to imagine that students can interact with FL texts before they have mastered an adequate number of a language's formal features. In fact, you may already be asking yourself, after learning about the multiliteracies approach in the Introduction and in Chapter 1, how grammar and vocabulary instruction can possibly take place within a text-based lower-level FL curriculum. Such concerns often arise from exposure to or reliance on traditional, grammar-based approaches to language teaching, grounded in methods such as grammar-translation and audiolingualism, and have lived on in the current, or weak, version of communicative language teaching (CLT). Indeed, in rule-driven FL textbooks and teaching approaches, grammar and vocabulary are often presented in neutral dialogues created by textbook authors; grammar and vocabulary are developed separately from other skills, such as reading or writing; learning language forms is linked to formal
This traditional view of teaching and learning language forms reflects the beliefs of many FL students and instructors and shapes the way grammar and vocabulary are taught. For example, Schulz (1998, 2001) reported that U.S. and Colombian university students believe that grammar learning is essential to mastery, expect to be corrected by their teachers, and think about grammar rules when using the language in communicative activities. She also found that instructors believe grammar learning is important, although slightly less so than students. Jean and Simard’s (2011) survey of Quebecois high school students and teachers yielded similar results. They furthermore found that both groups see grammar as a necessary evil—they do not like learning or teaching grammar but acknowledge its importance. Likewise, Simon and Taverniers (2011) reported that advanced Dutch speaking learners of English consider vocabulary learning to be highly important because vocabulary errors can easily cause breakdowns in communication.

We agree that grammar and vocabulary play a crucial role in FL learning and recognize the importance of meeting students’ expectations related to instruction. Yet we believe that these aims can be met by focusing simultaneously on language forms and culturally authentic textual content. Indeed, studies investigating students’ perceptions of contextualized grammar and vocabulary learning suggest that this is feasible (Bournot-Trites & Séror, 2003; Manley & Calk, 1997; McQuillan, 1994). This research reports that students recognize the contribution of textual interaction to learning language forms and perceive grammar and vocabulary instruction as beneficial to increased linguistic accuracy as well as writing competence. Additionally, this research suggests the need for an integrated instructional approach to grammar and vocabulary teaching grounded within FL texts.

The purpose of this chapter is, therefore, to reconsider the role of grammar and vocabulary in lower-level language courses by moving beyond a mastery-oriented view to a meaning-oriented view in which grammar and vocabulary are two among the multiple linguistic, cultural, and social resources that learners draw on to understand and create texts. In the “Conceptual Background” section, we present key concepts related to grammar and vocabulary, review relevant SLA research, including identification of issues common to grammar and vocabulary teaching and learning, and then consider the role of language forms within the multiliteracies framework. In the “Pedagogical Applications” section, we first review how language forms are typically presented in commercially available textbooks and identify shortcomings of these materials; we then turn to an overview of text-based approaches to teaching and assessing grammar and vocabulary. Finally, we present a template for designing instruction of language forms following the multiliteracies framework and walk through a sample lesson plan and assessments based on this model. By the end of this chapter, you will have a different perspective on the role of texts in teaching grammar and vocabulary and learn how the multiliteracies approach can meet students’ and instructors’ needs for explicit instruction of FL forms while simultaneously...
focusing on culturally authentic content. To prepare to interact with the content of this chapter, complete Learning Activity 3.1.

**LEARNING ACTIVITY 3.1**

Finish the Thought

To activate your background knowledge and reflect on your beliefs about grammar and vocabulary learning, complete the following sentences based on your FL learning experiences.

1. When I was a beginning language learner, my instructors taught grammar and vocabulary by . . .
2. The most effective techniques my instructors used in teaching FL grammar and vocabulary were . . . because . . .
3. The least effective techniques my instructors used in teaching FL grammar and vocabulary were . . . because . . .
4. When I was a beginning language learner, the strategies I used to learn grammar and vocabulary were . . .
5. The most effective strategy I remember using to learn FL grammar and vocabulary was . . . because . . .
6. The least effective strategy I remember using to learn FL grammar and vocabulary was . . . because . . .

Finally, reflect on the following questions: Taken as a whole, what do your statements say about how you view the teaching and learning of language forms? What is the best way to teach and learn grammar and vocabulary? Do your experiences and beliefs reflect the traditional approach to grammar teaching and learning mentioned above? Do your experiences and beliefs reflect any of the literacy-based concepts you have learned up to this point?

**1. CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND**

This section provides an overview of SLA research on grammar and vocabulary. We begin by considering key concepts and definitions related to grammar and vocabulary and then focus on the effects of implicit and explicit instruction on the acquisition of language forms. With this background established, we then explore various perspectives on explicit grammar and vocabulary instruction, including teaching forms in isolation or in a meaningful context, deductive and inductive approaches, and the role of output. This research review provides a foundation for considering form-focused instruction in the multiliteracies framework and the role of grammar and vocabulary in the interpretation and creation of FL texts.

**1.1 Defining Grammar and Vocabulary**

Grammar and vocabulary are crucial components of any FL curriculum, and they are essential to fluent and accurate expression in a FL. It is therefore important
to understand what grammar and vocabulary are and what knowledge of these language features entails. Traditionally, grammar has been defined prescriptively as “what one should and should not say in order to speak and write a language ‘correctly’” (Katz & Blyth, 2007, p. 264). This definition implies that grammar learning involves memorization of rules and a focus on accurate production of forms. Vocabulary has been similarly defined in terms of accuracy, with the focus on retention or memorization of words in isolation without any connection to their use in context. Yet with new discoveries regarding the acquisition of formal language features, prescriptive definitions of grammar and vocabulary are no longer adequate. For example, Broady (2008) stated that “vocabulary knowledge is no longer assumed to be simple retention of words or recognition of their meaning, or somehow divorced from other language knowledge or processes” (p. 264), and the same can be said for grammar.

In SLA research, less prescriptively oriented concepts include explicit and implicit knowledge of language forms and the multidimensional nature of word knowledge. Explicit knowledge is an understanding of language forms that students can consciously learn and then explain to others. In contrast, implicit knowledge is unconscious, used in spontaneous conversation, and not easily explained (Spada & Tomita, 2010). The contrast between explicit and implicit knowledge becomes clear if we consider how native speakers know their language. As a native speaker of English, for instance, you may have implicit knowledge that allows you to use with ease subordinate clauses headed by a preposition (e.g., Here's the book to which I was referring.), but you may not have the explicit knowledge that allows you to explain what a subordinate clause is, why the preposition comes before the relative pronoun, or why there is even a preposition in the sentence at all.

Related to explicit and implicit knowledge are productive and receptive understandings of language forms. When learners have productive knowledge, they can actively use a given language form orally or in writing; when they have receptive knowledge, they are able to understand the structure and meaning of a given language form without necessarily being able to produce it. Often learners understand language forms implicitly without being able to articulate that understanding explicitly. Likewise, receptive knowledge of language forms is often more easily acquired than productive knowledge (Sonbul & Schmitt, 2010).

Because FL learning usually involves classroom instruction, we tend to focus more on explicit knowledge because it is easier to teach and assess. When we define grammar and vocabulary prescriptively, we place primary importance on explicit knowledge and the ability to understand and explain language rules. Alternatively, if we consider grammar and vocabulary within the context of other language knowledge and processes, we move away from a purely prescriptive understanding of language forms and emphasize both implicit and explicit learning.

Just as prescriptively oriented definitions of grammar focus on rule memorization, similar definitions of vocabulary focus on word memorization. Such definitions suggest there is a one-to-one correspondence between a word and its meaning, and that vocabulary knowledge entails understanding this correspondence as well as the correct spelling of the word in question. Yet word knowledge is more complex
than the prescriptive definition suggests. According to Nation (2001), vocabulary knowledge is multidimensional: It involves understanding a word’s form (spelling, pronunciation, morphology), its meaning or meanings (literal, figurative, implied), and its use (grammatical function, frequency, formality, etc.). These aspects of word knowledge, which combine productive and receptive understanding, “are interrelated, and are holistically connected” (Schmitt, 2010, p. 18). A multidimensional knowledge of words also includes understanding fixed expressions, phrases, and relationships between words (Lewis, 1993; McCarthy, 1984). For example, when considered in isolation, the word jerk is ambiguous: It could be a verb or a noun, and it has multiple meanings. When used as a verb, jerk can refer to a short, quick pulling motion as in He jerked the lawn mower to get it started. Yet in the phrase He really jerked me around, the verb takes on a figurative meaning related to treating someone badly by being underhanded. Likewise, when used as a noun, jerk can have two meanings: It can refer to a short, sharp, sudden movement, as in The lawn mower started with a jerk, and it can also refer to an obnoxious person, as in He has a reputation for being a real jerk. To further your understanding of the concept of multidimensional word knowledge, complete Learning Activity 3.2.

**LEARNING ACTIVITY 3.2**

**Reflecting on Multidimensional Word Knowledge**

Look at the descriptions of women’s and men’s clothing in the tables below. Underline vocabulary words in the descriptions that are similar to those presented in a typical introductory FL textbook chapter focused on clothing. Circle words that are different from those presented in a typical introductory FL textbook.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Long Tankdress</th>
<th>The Jessie Sandal</th>
<th>Silk Peplum Top</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The comfort of your favorite tank extended into a slouchy, knee-slit maxidress? Yes, please.</td>
<td>A modern take on the traditional leather gladiator, without the hassle of any buckles or ties—easy on, easy go.</td>
<td>Wear this peplum-style top with jeans, under a blazer, or with a cardigan (basically, anything) to add a bit of easy femininity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Cotton Polo**

Knit in the same cotton as our tees, this polo is the best way to get away with wearing a T-shirt to “collar-required” places.

**Ludlow Club Sportcoat**

Crafted in world-class Italian wool, our navy blazer is cut in our trim Ludlow fit and has traditional details like brass anchor buttons and a patch pocket for a vintage feel.

**Broken-In Chino**

A little worn and a little faded, they’re made from heavily washed cotton twill to give them a vintage look with the timeworn characteristics of a well-aged pair of jeans.

Source: www.madewell.com

Source: www.jcrew.com
How are clothing-related vocabulary words usually presented in an introductory FL textbook? Are those presentations different from what you see in the descriptions above? Would knowledge of typical textbook clothing vocabulary prepare learners to read descriptions such as those in the table? How does the context of the descriptions help you understand what the clothing items are like? Are there meanings or relationships between words that become clear because of the context? Are there words that would mean something different if they were not used in the context of these clothing descriptions?

Although this discussion of the definitions of grammar and vocabulary is by no means exhaustive, it should give you an idea of the complexities of these linguistic resources and why an exclusive focus on learning prescriptive rules and word lists falls short. To provide empirical support for this idea, we turn now to SLA research related to how grammar and vocabulary are best learned in light of these definitions, focusing in particular on investigations into implicit and explicit instructional approaches and their effects on FL learning.

1.2 The Case for Teaching Language Forms: Implicit Versus Explicit Instruction

As we stated at the start of this chapter, many instructors believe that grammar and vocabulary are the most important aspects of language to teach FL learners, and the teaching of language forms has a long and important history. Prior to the development of communicative approaches, language teaching meant teaching grammar, and grammar teaching meant teaching rules. This focus was evident in the grammar-translation method, which included rule explanation, memorization, and translation from the FL into the first language and vice versa; and the audiolingual method, which included habit formation through drilling, memorization of structural patterns, and repetition of language forms. Both methods were synthetic in that they focused on parts of the language in isolation; neither was concerned with developing learners’ ability to communicate independently in the language (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Indeed, these methods were ultimately considered insufficient because they did not meet learners’ communicative needs. Moreover, with developments in SLA research came the understanding that language is not acquired in a discrete, linear fashion. Instead, the acquisition of a second language is a developmental process that follows systematic patterns and sequences (e.g., Ellis, 2002; Long & Crookes, 1992; Long & Robinson, 1998).

The advent of CLT meant a shift away from an exclusive focus on language forms toward meaning-based communication. Informed by the concept of communicative competence as well as Krashen’s (1981, 1985) work suggesting that FLs are acquired implicitly and unconsciously through exposure to large amounts of comprehensible input, proponents of the strong version of CLT argued that language was learned implicitly through communication with no explicit attention to forms. Nonetheless, empirical evidence suggests that
even immersion environments, with their rich opportunities for implicit learning, are not sufficient for learners to acquire many linguistic features fully (e.g., Harley & Swain, 1984; Lapkin, Hart, & Swain, 1991; Swain, 1985).

SLA research shows us that approaches to teaching language forms focused exclusively on grammar or exclusively on communication are both inadequate. So where does this leave us? Published reviews of studies related to implicit and explicit teaching and learning support the idea that some classroom instruction related to language forms is indeed necessary and, furthermore, that this instruction should take place within a meaningful context (Broady, 2008; Nation, 2011; Norris & Ortega, 2001; Spada & Tomita, 2010). With respect to grammar, explicit instruction results in linguistic gains that are sustained over time (Norris & Ortega, 2001; Spada & Tomita, 2010) and “there is increasing evidence that instruction, including explicit FFI [form-focused instruction], can positively contribute to unanalyzed spontaneous production, its benefits not being restricted to controlled/analyzed L2 knowledge” (Spada, 2011, p. 233). With respect to vocabulary, repetition (e.g., seeing and using a word multiple times) in combination with instruction seems to play an important role in acquiring vocabulary, and some studies show that learners engage in deeper processing of vocabulary when they make a range of connections with previous knowledge and use new words in meaningful ways (Broady, 2008, p. 261). Finally, and important for considering the role of grammar and vocabulary from a multiliteracies perspective, the research suggests that explicit instruction grounded in a meaningful context is more effective than explicit instruction of forms in isolation (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998; Laufer & Girsai, 2008; Spada & Lightbown, 2008). It is to a discussion of research on explicit meaning-focused instruction of forms that we now turn.

1.3 Form-Focused Instruction = Meaning-Focused Instruction

For a number of years, researchers and practitioners have underscored the need to teach grammar and vocabulary within a communicative context. The merging of form and meaning in classroom contexts is referred to as focus on form (FoF), form-focused instruction, or integrated form-focused instruction. Form-focused instruction differs from traditional grammar activities and from explicit instruction of forms in isolation because it "entails a prerequisite engagement in meaning before attention to linguistic features can be expected to be effective...the learner's attention is drawn precisely to a linguistic feature as necessitated by a communicative demand" (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 3). Form-focused instruction can be either incidental, by drawing learners' attention to a form as it arises in communication (Long, 1991), or planned, by drawing learners' attention to pre-selected forms within a meaningful context (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2001). SLA research related to planned form-focused instruction provides evidence of its effectiveness for both grammar and vocabulary development. Several strands of research exist, and we briefly review three of them before considering the role of explicit, meaning-based instruction of language forms from a multiliteracies perspective.
One type of planned focus on form is the inductive presentation of grammar. **Inductive approaches** focus on meaning first, then on form: Grammar is usually presented in a meaningful context intended to highlight the targeted form and draw students' attention to linguistic patterns. In contrast, **deductive approaches** to grammar instruction involve direct teacher explanation of rules followed by related examples and mechanical exercises. Although both approaches have supporters and detractors, several research studies point to the effectiveness of inductive over deductive presentation of grammar. Much of this research investigates the effect of guided induction, in which learners see a language form in context and then, through leading questions and interactions with the instructor, hypothesize, reflect, and collaborate to discover grammatical patterns and explanations themselves. At introductory levels, FL learners who were exposed to grammatical forms through guided induction outperformed those who learned forms deductively on short-term and long-term written tests (Herron & Tomasello, 1992; Haight, Herron, & Cole, 2007). In a similar study at the advanced level, both groups of learners performed similarly on short-term tests, but the guided induction group outperformed the deductive group on long-term tests (Dotson, 2010). Finally, in a study investigating the effects of content-enhanced instruction and focus on form on the acquisition of grammar, vocabulary, and content knowledge, Grim (2008) found that beginning FL students who were encouraged to notice targeted forms in a meaningful context performed better on grammar and vocabulary tests than those who did not. The results of these studies suggest that a pedagogical framework consistent with the inductive approach is important for learners' acquisition of language forms.

A second strand of SLA research on planned form-focused instruction explores the relationship between reading comprehension and knowledge of language forms. In general, this research shows that grammatical and lexical knowledge correlate strongly with reading comprehension and, moreover, that a combination of instructional activities that focus on both implicit and explicit learning through reading are most effective for increasing grammar and vocabulary knowledge (e.g., Zhang, 2012). For instance, Sonbul and Schmitt (2010) found that a combination of implicit and explicit learning was effective for reading comprehension. In their study, learners were subjected to a “read only” condition—silent reading with no explicit instruction—or a “read plus” condition—silent reading in conjunction with explicit explanation of vocabulary words. Although both groups showed gains in vocabulary learning, learners in the read only condition showed very little gain in knowledge related to recall of word meaning and form, whereas learners in the read plus condition showed higher vocabulary gains in the ability to recall word form and meaning and to recognize word meaning. Likewise, Ellis (2006), investigating the grammatical knowledge of collegiate learners of English as a second language (ESL), found that both implicit and explicit knowledge of grammar were related to overall language proficiency, with explicit knowledge correlating more strongly with proficiency in reading and writing than implicit knowledge. These results not only underscore the important relationship between reading and implicit and explicit knowledge of language forms, but also suggest that explicit attention
to grammar and vocabulary while interacting with texts is essential for such learning.

Finally, SLA research related to form–meaning instruction highlights the importance of production tasks for the acquisition of language forms. Overall, studies in this area show that learners who perform production tasks have greater vocabulary gains than those who do not (Atay & Kurt, 2006; Huang, Eslami, & Willson, 2012). Moreover, learners who read in a variety of textual genres (expository, narrative) and complete a variety of output tasks (fill-in-the-blank, sentence completion, composition writing) tend to have higher gains in vocabulary learning than those who do not (Huang, Eslami, & Willson, 2012). Regarding the importance of production tasks on grammar learning, Reinders (2009) investigated the correct use of negative adverbs among adult ESL learners in three types of production tasks: dictation, individual written story retelling, and collaborative written story retelling. He found that all three tasks had an effect on the correct use and acquisition of targeted grammatical forms. Taken together, this research suggests that in addition to elaborating form–meaning connections while reading, instruction should include post-reading production activities to increase grammar and vocabulary gains.

The SLA research summarized here may be a lot for you to digest, but our hope is that you now possess a general understanding of the importance of form-focused instruction and how it informs grammar and vocabulary teaching. To summarize, this research supports the idea that language forms taught in a meaningful context are more easily and effectively learned than language forms taught in isolation. Moreover, grammar and vocabulary can be taught meaningfully and effectively at multiple points in the reading (or listening or viewing) process: when introducing new forms through an inductive approach, when carrying out reading tasks, or when completing post-reading production tasks. These conclusions confirm that language forms “should never be taught as an end in [themselves] but always with reference to meaning, social factors, or discourse—or a combination of these factors” (Celce-Murcia, 1991, pp. 466–467). The research on form-focused instruction is, therefore, incompatible with the grammar-based approaches described earlier. Instead, the research points to the value of a literacy-oriented approach to grammar and vocabulary instruction grounded in texts. Learning Activity 3.3 will help prepare you to read about the role of language forms in the multiliteracies framework.

**LEARNING ACTIVITY 3.3**

**Redefining Grammar and Vocabulary**

**Part 1.** To refresh your memory about grammar, vocabulary, and the multiliteracies framework and to help you predict the content of the next section of the chapter, begin by completing activities 1–3.

1. Revisit the traditional definitions of grammar and vocabulary presented at the start of the “Conceptual Background” section and list key words you associate with these definitions.
2. How do you think grammar and vocabulary will be defined from a multiliteracies perspective? Brainstorm a second set of key words related to this definition.

3. Look at the list of multiliteracies-based concepts you read about in Chapter 1 provided below. Circle the concepts you think will be relevant to the definition of grammar and vocabulary developed in the next part of the "Conceptual Background" section.

- Literacy
- Dimensions of literacy
- Meaning design
- Linguistic Available Designs
- Schematic Available Designs
- Language use
- Conventions
- Cultural knowledge
- Interpretation
- Collaboration
- Problem solving
- Reflection
- Situated practice
- Overt instruction
- Critical framing
- Transformed practice

Part 2. After you read Section 1.4 of the "Conceptual Background" section, revisit your answers to activities 1-3. Were your ideas about how grammar and vocabulary are defined from a multiliteracies perspective correct? Do you need to add to or delete from the list of key words you brainstormed in activity 2? Should you delete or add to any of the concepts you circled in activity 3?

1.4 Grammar, Vocabulary, and the Multiliteracies Framework

The prescriptive definition of grammar and vocabulary provided at the beginning of the "Conceptual Background" section suggests that language forms are learned through memorization of rules and word lists, that individual words and rules are learned in isolation without considering their relationship to other parts of language, and that knowledge of forms must precede textual interpretation or creation. As you probably already predicted in Learning Activity 3.3, this prescriptive definition is inconsistent with the multiliteracies framework. From a multiliteracies perspective, learning entails discovering form-meaning relationships in texts and how these relationships reflect conventions of language use within certain sociocultural contexts (Kern, 2000). Grammar and vocabulary are two linguistic Available Designs, or the linguistic, social, and cultural resources that influence meaning making. These resources help learners engage in the act of meaning design, which is a dynamic process of discovering form-meaning connections through interpreting and creating written, oral, visual, audiovisual, and digital texts. What distinguishes this perspective from others, such as grammar-based approaches or the current version of CLT, is that language forms are conceptualized as "tools" or resources to be used in the comprehension and creation of oral and written discourse rather than something to be learned as an end in itself (Celce-Murcia, 1991, p. 466). Knowledge of grammar thus entails understanding not only rules, but also relationships between parts of sentences or discourse and how structures signal these relationships. Likewise, knowledge of vocabulary goes beyond definitions of isolated words provided in a dictionary or textbook glossary to encompass an understanding of how words function in context and the culturally situated meanings with which they are associated.
Relationships between parts of sentences and discourse are clearly expressed in the following example, presented earlier in this chapter: *Here's the book to which I was referring.* Not only does the subordinate clause signal a relationship to the noun in the main clause, the use of the article *the* in the main clause indicates a relationship to something previously mentioned in the discourse, namely *the book*. Taken out of context, these relationships are harder to see, but in a conversation, they are obvious. Imagine that you and your professor have a conversation after class about something you did not understand and your professor suggests that you consult a certain book to help clarify things. The next day, you go to see your professor during office hours, and upon seeing you, he or she says "Oh, John, here's the book to which I was referring yesterday," and he or she elaborates by indicating where in the book you might find the answer to your question.

As an example of the contextualized nature of vocabulary, consider the concept of dinner. This concept is tied to the time of day at which people typically eat, the duration of the meal, where the meal takes place, how the meal is presented, and what one eats; each of these notions varies across and within cultures. For instance, in the United States dinner is the main meal of the day, and while a common time to eat dinner during the week is 6:00 pm, on holidays or Sundays, dinner might take place in the early afternoon. In France, dinner is sometimes a lighter meal than lunch, which for many is the main meal of the day, and it is commonly served at 8:00 pm or later. In the United States the evening meal tends to be rather brief and most parts of the meal are served at once; in France the evening meal can last more than an hour and parts of the meal may be presented sequentially in courses. In the United States dinner is sometimes eaten in front of the TV or at a kitchen island; in France dinner is most often eaten at the dining table. Finally, an American dinner often consists of a main dish, a vegetable, and a starch; in France, dinner usually includes a main dish, salad, bread, and cheese. These general statements about dinner in the United States and France underscore that dinner is more than just a word; it is a culturally embedded concept with multiple meanings that vary from country to country, family to family. These meanings are revealed only when one is familiar with the specific sociocultural context in which the concept is used and understood.

Grammar and vocabulary conceptualized in this way fall under the literacy principle of language use, which is always contextualized, involves linguistic and sociocultural knowledge, and occurs in the FL classroom through encounters with texts. Language use also includes the linguistic Available Designs of writing and phonetic systems, coherence, and cohesion; grammar and vocabulary are linked to each of these. For instance, in the *Time* magazine cover depicted in Chapter 1, we saw that the text's coherence was dependent on relationships between words in a headline and its subheading, and its cohesion was dependent on relationships between the pronoun *their* and other grammatical and lexical features of the text. Grammar and vocabulary are also linked to the literacy principle of conventions and are thus crucial to understanding textual organization and the features of various genres. For instance, returning
to the magazine cover example in Chapter 1, the absence of verbs in headlines is an important convention in journalistic prose. By adopting this broader conceptualization of language forms, it is easy to understand that reading, writing, viewing, and listening to whole texts allows learners to see how grammar and vocabulary function in context to express linguistic relationships and contribute to the overall structure of a particular genre. Moreover, as these examples show, grammar and vocabulary are not isolated linguistic features, but rather interact with one another in complex ways.

In addition to being linked to the literacy principles of language use and conventions, the Available Designs of grammar and vocabulary also play a role within the linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural dimensions of literacy. As you read in the Introduction, the linguistic dimension of literacy includes knowledge related to syntactic, morphological, and lexical features and knowledge about how these features can be combined to create sentences and units of discourse (Kern, 2000). This dimension is clearly tied to the literacy-based principles of language use and conventions and thus to grammar and vocabulary. The cognitive dimension of literacy involves the ability to use strategies to establish connections between pieces of information and to interpret and create texts (Kucer, 2009). For example, inductive approaches to teaching linguistic forms engage learners in hypothesizing about and evaluating grammatical and lexical patterns found in contextualized language samples. This process connects with the cognitive dimension of literacy as learners use meaning-making resources to create new knowledge. Finally, grammar and vocabulary are relevant for the sociocultural dimension of literacy because their meaning and use are socially constructed and are culturally dependent (Kucer, 2009), as was evident in the dinner example provided earlier.

An important implication of a multiliteracies perspective on grammar and vocabulary is that the focus of instruction shifts from one of mastery to one of meaningful language use. These Available Designs are discovered within the context of texts, are incorporated into learners' existing knowledge, and are transformed to make meaning in new ways. As such, grammar and vocabulary help learners engage in the act of meaning design. Empirical evidence shows that such text-based practices do not impede grammatical and lexical development and instead help further it. For instance, Maxim (2002, 2006), who studied a comparison group in which class time was spent carrying out communicative language practice and a treatment group in which half of class time was spent reading a full-length romance novel and the other half was spent completing communicative language practice, found that students in the treatment group fared just as well on language-focused exams as those in the comparison group. Herron and Seay (1991) found similar results in their study of the effects of authentic audio texts on listening comprehension. There were no significant differences in grammar and vocabulary quiz scores between students who spent approximately half class time listening to authentic audio segments and the other half completing communicative language practice and students who spent the entire class time completing communicative language practice activities. Taken together, this research, along with the SLA research reviewed earlier,
sends the clear message that devoting class time to work with authentic texts does not compromise acquisition of language forms but rather can contribute to learners’ ability to understand and use them correctly. In the next section, we discuss strategies for teaching grammar and vocabulary through texts using multiliteracies pedagogy. Before you read on, however, go back and complete Part 2 of Learning Activity 3.3.

### 2. PEDAGOGICAL APPLICATIONS

Although we have made the case for teaching grammar and vocabulary in meaningful contexts, you may still have questions about how to teach and assess language forms using multiliteracies pedagogy while still ensuring that students are able to use these forms accurately. One obstacle to adopting a contextualized approach to grammar and vocabulary teaching and assessment may be your textbook. In fact, you may have already noticed a mismatch between the way language forms are presented in your textbook and the way we have been talking about them in this chapter. To better prepare you to teach and assess grammar and vocabulary using multiliteracies pedagogy, we first consider how these Available Designs are commonly presented in introductory FL textbooks and the types of practice activities these books provide.

#### 2.1 Presenting and Practicing Language Forms: Moving Beyond the Limitations of Introductory Textbooks

A quick perusal of your introductory FL textbook may reveal that grammar and vocabulary are presented in author-created dialogues or paragraphs followed by lists of words or rule explanations and sequenced practice that moves from several mechanical (i.e., form-focused) activities to one or two communicative (i.e., meaning-focused) activities. If this is an apt description of your textbook, you are not alone. In a survey of introductory French textbooks, Askildon (2008) found that they lacked balance between focus on meaning and focus on form, the language used to present forms was not authentic, textbooks were organized around grammatical content, and many practice activities were mechanical in nature. These findings echo a similar study by Aski (2003), who concluded that grammar activities in introductory Italian textbooks include pattern, or mechanical, practice and that these activities tend to be more frequent than those designed for communicative practice of forms. Likewise, in a study of instructor reactions to introductory French and Italian textbooks (Allen, 2008), participants reported a number of drawbacks in addition to the “rule followed by practice” format, including “a lack of usable oral student-to-student activities, relevant topics, and limited cultural content” (p. 21). Finally, in a survey of ESL textbooks to determine what aspects of vocabulary knowledge are targeted in activities, Brown (2010) found that across nine textbooks, the focus was consistently on practicing the spoken form of a word, one-to-one correspondences between a word’s form and its meaning, and the grammatical functions of words. Missing from activities to practice vocabulary were word parts, conceptual understandings of words, collocations, and constraints on word use,
among others. These traits of introductory textbooks reflect the prescriptive view discussed earlier that learning vocabulary means learning definitions and that learning grammar means learning rules.

Yet this view of language forms in textbooks does not reflect the SLA findings you learned about in the “Conceptual Background” section, particularly the idea that meaning-focused teaching of forms is more effective than isolated teaching of forms. Furthermore, the approaches taken by many textbooks suggest that mechanical practice of structural patterns is effective for acquisition of grammar and vocabulary. However, research in this area shows that the opposite is true (e.g., VanPatten, 2002; Wong & VanPatten, 2003). One consequence of presenting language forms in an artificial context and prioritizing mechanical practice activities is that “the learner is called upon to repeat structures and lexicon in ways that either strike the native speaker as unnatural, or create implicatures unintended by the [textbook] authors” (McCarthy, 1984, pp. 13-14). To further explore how language forms are treated in introductory textbooks and how this treatment is disconnected from SLA research, complete the first part of Learning Activity 3.4.

**LEARNING ACTIVITY 3.4**

**Analyzing Grammar Activities**

This Learning Activity is comprised of two parts and may take more time than some of the other activities you have completed up to this point as it involves reading and analyzing a grammar lesson plan and watching a related video. Complete Part 1 now and then come back to Part 2 after you have read the remainder of Section 2.1.

**Part 1.** The link below will take you to Lesson 1 of the Grammar module of *Foreign Language Teaching Methods*, an online resource at the University of Texas at Austin (Salaberry, 2010). You will use the downloadable lesson plans and related video within the module to complete activities 1-3.


1. Download the two grammar lessons in the textbox entitled “Analyze Two Grammar Lessons” and describe each of them according to the SLA and pedagogical concepts listed in the table below. Check Yes if the lesson reflects the concept and No if it does not.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Lesson Plan 1</th>
<th>Lesson Plan 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deductive</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inductive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isolated</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning-Focused</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued)
2. Does one lesson have a more prescriptively oriented view of language forms than the other? Does one have a more meaning-focused view? Which of the lesson plans is more reflective of introductory FL textbooks as described above? Which is more representative of the textbook you currently use?

3. Watch the video entitled “A discussion about the lesson plans” and answer the following questions, also provided in the module: What specific features of these lesson plans do [the people in the video] identify in detail? Do you agree with their analysis?

Part 2. Read the remainder of Section 2.1, entitled “Presenting and Practicing Language Forms: Moving Beyond the Limitations of Introductory Textbooks.” To review your understanding of multiliteracies pedagogy, look at the two lesson plans you downloaded for Part 1 and determine which of the four pedagogical acts, if any, are represented in each one. Use the table to organize your analysis and then compare your answers with a classmate.
The video excerpt in Learning Activity 3.4, "A discussion about the lesson plans," showed that the methods course students perceived the first lesson as more focused on the mechanics of grammar and less reflective of authentic language use, and the second lesson as more focused on meaning and more reflective of authentic language use. These perceptions are consistent with research on instructor and student perceptions of introductory FL textbooks. For instance, Askildon (2008) found that instructors perceived the heavy reliance on rule explanation followed by mechanical practice as a hindrance to students in acquiring grammatical forms. Likewise, some of the teachers Allen (2008) surveyed felt that “the textbook helped students learn about grammar, but this knowledge did not mean the forms were integrated into the students' FL” (pp. 14–15, emphasis in the original). Interestingly, students and instructors do not always perceive the treatment of forms in introductory textbooks similarly. Askildon found that although both groups were satisfied with the quantity of grammar in textbooks, they did not prioritize grammar in the same way: “Teachers do not place grammar at the center of teaching French. Students, on the other hand, demand more focus on form” (p. 219), that is, more explicit instruction of grammatical information.

The seemingly conflicting goals that teachers want more meaningful treatment of language forms whereas students want more explicit focus on form can be reconciled with a multiliteracies-oriented approach to grammar and vocabulary instruction and assessment. Learning these Available Designs through textual interpretation and creation facilitates a balance between meaning and form while still allowing for explicit, inductive instruction of grammar and vocabulary. Moreover, this approach allows students to integrate grammatical and lexical knowledge into their ability to use the language, not just to learn about it, such that these two types of knowledge are complementary. Overt instruction activities, which represent one of the four pedagogical acts of multiliteracies pedagogy, are particularly well suited for bringing together form and meaning through interaction with FL texts because they include instructor interventions that focus learners' attention on conceptualizing and developing the linguistic knowledge needed to participate in communication activities. The remaining pedagogical acts of situated practice, critical framing, and transformed practice also afford opportunities to combine knowledge about form and meaning and to apply this knowledge to authentic cultural content. Recall that situated practice activities allow learners to experience a text through spontaneous, immersive, and experiential learning; critical framing activities encourage learners to analyze and question the meaning, importance, and consequences of what they learn; and transformed practice activities provide learners with opportunities to apply the understandings, knowledge, and skills gained through textual interaction and use them to produce language in new and creative ways.

1In SLA research, there is a distinction made between focus on form and focus on forms, the former referring to grammar use in communicative contexts, the latter to explicit instruction of grammatical forms (Long, 1991). Although we argue in favor of grammar instruction that reflects a focus on form, Askildon’s data suggest that students prefer instructional approaches that reflect a focus on forms.
In the following subsections, we consider how to organize multiliteracies-oriented instructional activities and assessments that engage learners in meaning design (i.e., discovering form–meaning connections through interpreting and creating texts) by focusing on grammar and vocabulary use in texts. To do so, we draw on text-based models from pedagogical research to propose a template for creating form-focused lessons, followed by a sample lesson plan that illustrates its use. We further suggest literacy-based formative and summative assessments that complement the lesson by evaluating students’ ability to understand and use the linguistic Available Designs of grammar and vocabulary. To prepare to read this next part of the chapter, go back and complete Part 2 of Learning Activity 3.4.

2.2 Text-Based Models of Form-Focused Instruction and Assessment

Teaching language forms through texts allows us to define “student command of a language’s formal features as a function of successful comprehension and communication of learning, not as forms in isolation” (Swaffar & Arens, 2005, p. 30) and furthermore provides an authentic cultural context in which to embed form-focused instruction and assessment. Swaffar and Arens proposed that such text-based learning of language forms should be organized around instructional sequences that include a model for correct usage within a text, reproduction of the targeted form in a communicative context, language use that focuses on textual meaning, discourse-based communication, and the exchange of information. Similarly, Nation (2008) suggested that vocabulary teaching include meaning-focused input and output, deliberate vocabulary teaching through texts, and a focus on vocabulary accuracy and fluency. These suggestions are consistent with SLA-related concepts such as implicit and explicit learning, explicit instruction, inductive presentation of forms, and creative production, as well as with multiliteracies-based concepts such as meaning design, interpretation, transformation, language use, and linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural dimensions of literacy. In this section, we outline three approaches to grammar and vocabulary instruction that reflect these concepts. First, we present Paesani’s (2005) model for teaching grammar inductively through literary texts. Second, is Adair-Hauck and Donato’s (2010) PACE model, a dialogic approach to teaching grammatical forms through story telling. We conclude by outlining the model of vocabulary teaching in Français interactif, an online introductory French program (Kelton, Guilloteau, & Blyth, 2004) framed by concepts from the lexical approach (Lewis, 1993, 1997a, 1997b) and processing instruction (Lee & VanPatten, 2003).

Grounded in inductive teaching strategies and process-oriented (see Chapter 5 for details) approaches to reading, Paesani (2005) presents a model of grammar instruction in which a literary text (e.g., poem, short story, excerpt from a novel) forms the basis for the presentation of targeted grammatical forms, reading comprehension, grammar practice, and creative production activities. The three-stage model is exemplified with a French-language poem and targets relative pronouns. The instructional sequence begins with several pre-reading activities.
to prepare learners to interact with textual content. First, students brainstorm vocabulary associated with the poem's title; next, students predict the poem's story line based on a list of instructor-provided vocabulary words from the text; last, students link ideas about the new text to similar texts (e.g., film, literature, television, music) with which they are already familiar. During the while-reading phase, activities move students from global to detailed text comprehension and include a focus on the content and form of the text. It is here that learners' attention is drawn to the targeted grammar, and they are encouraged to form and test hypotheses regarding its use in the context of the text. Paesani suggests several activities for the while-reading phase, including determining the poem's chronology, formulating personal interpretations of the text, identifying language patterns, and constructing grammatical rules. Once students understand the meaning of the text and how the targeted grammar functions within it, the instructional sequence moves into the post-reading phase. The first part of this phase includes patterned practice of the targeted grammar, such as sentence rewriting and sentence completion. Next, learners critique the content of the poem by interpreting the role of the narrator or identifying themes in the text. The post-reading phase concludes with creative production, during which students imitate the genre of the text they have read by writing their own poem using the targeted grammar. Paesani's inductive and process-oriented approach allows learners to focus on meaning before form and to develop reading and writing competence. Moreover, using a literary text not only serves as authentic cultural content, but also as a tool to teach and practice grammatical forms meaningfully.

The creative writing activity that concludes the post-reading phase serves as a summative assessment for the entire lesson. Paesani suggests that instructors incorporate peer editing and revision activities into this task and that students present their work to the class during a writing roundtable or publish their work in a class blog or portfolio. This model also provides opportunities for formative assessment throughout the reading process, as exemplified by the tasks in the instructional sequence. For instance, determining the chronology of the events of the text allows instructors to gauge students' progress related to global comprehension of the text; identifying structural patterns and explaining how they work within the context of the text allows instructors to evaluate learners' problem-solving skills as they work to link form and meaning.

Adair-Hauck and Donato's (2010) PACE model builds on inductive approaches to grammar instruction using a dialogic approach in which learners are guided to consciously reflect on the meaning of language forms in context, to link form and meaning, and to problem solve in collaboration with the instructor and their fellow students. Authentic cultural stories, as represented in folktales, legends, songs, cartoons, real-life activities, and the like, form the basis for all activities within the model. The stories and activities highlight aspects of a grammatical form that are essential to understanding and communicating about the story's content. As its acronym suggests, the PACE model comprises four phases: Presentation, Attention, Co-Construction, and Extension. In the Presentation phase, the instructor orally presents the selected story, focusing students' attention on its meaning. According to Adair-Hauck and Donato, the
Presentation phase should include pre-storytelling, while-storytelling, and post-storytelling activities to make meaning clear to learners. These activities "may include focusing on prior knowledge, content, cultural references, key vocabulary, dramatization, pair-work comprehension checks, or story-retelling exercises" (p. 224). Once students understand the story, instruction moves to the Attention phase, during which learners' attention is focused on a salient form used in the story. The targeted form is highlighted through teacher questions about patterns in the text or presentation of selected phrases from the text with the relevant form highlighted. To help students build conceptual understanding of the targeted form, instruction moves to the Co-Construction phase. Here, students and instructor engage in "collaborative talk ... to reflect on, hypothesize about, and create understandings about the form, meaning, and function of the new grammar in question" (p. 225). Activities in the Co-Construction phase include asking guiding questions, applying generalizations to new situations, or building on what learners already understand. The instructional sequence concludes with the Extension phase, which allows learners to apply their new grammatical understanding in creative ways. Examples of Extension activities include role-plays, writing projects, interviews, and information-gap activities, all connected to the theme of the story on which the lesson is based.

As in Paesani's (2005) model, the post-reading, or Extension phase of the PACE model serves as a summative assessment because it creates opportunities for learners to use grammar in creative production activities. Such activities therefore provide instructors with a means for assessing learners' ability to use new forms both fluently and accurately. Formative assessments may take place throughout the four phases of the model and may include formal or informal evaluation of a number of the suggested activities. For instance, instructors might formally evaluate learners' ability to understand global meaning in the cultural story through pair-work comprehension checks during the Presentation phase, or they might informally evaluate students' ability to solve problems related to the targeted form through guided questions during the Co-Construction phase.

The final model—the approach to vocabulary instruction in *Français interactif* (Kelton, Guilloteau, & Blyth, 2004)—was developed in response to research indicating that students desire "a clearer and more deliberate progression ... from decontextualized vocabulary words to contextualized discourse" (Blyth & Davis, 2007). It is grounded in concepts related to the lexical approach (Lewis, 1993, 1997a, 1997b) and to processing instruction (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). The *Français interactif* model posits vocabulary as the central organizing principle of the curriculum; it focuses on raising students' awareness about the function of vocabulary in naturally occurring language; it highlights relationships between parts of the language and the whole; it prioritizes the role of context for learning various facets of word meaning; and it moves students from comprehension-based to production-based activities (Guilloteau, 2010; Lewis, 1993). Although this model is not as overtly text based as those presented in Paesani (2005) and Adair-Hauck and Donato (2010), it does emphasize the importance of moving beyond the study of vocabulary words in isolation to provide learners with opportunities to understand and use vocabulary at the sentence and discourse levels.
The *Français interactif* model begins with vocabulary preparation activities, completed as homework and corrected in class, intended to help students establish the basic meaning of vocabulary words associated with a unit or lesson. Examples of activities that establish basic word meaning include listening to and repeating words, writing down words, and translating words into English. Once this basic meaning is established, students then make connections across words by deciding which word does not belong within a subset organized semantically or grammatically (e.g., *brother, sister, uncle, friend*). These vocabulary preparation activities gradually move students from understanding words in isolation toward understanding them within texts. Subsequent stages in the *Français interactif* model include comprehension and production activities at the sentence level, followed by comprehension and production activities at the discourse level. The purpose of each set of activities is to gradually move from word-level understandings developed in the vocabulary preparation stage toward understanding and using vocabulary in contextualized discourse. At the sentence level, students complete activities that require them to do something with language samples that contain words learned in vocabulary preparation activities (e.g., find someone who enjoys each pastime mentioned in a set of statements). They also watch video segments of native speakers explaining vocabulary concepts along with sets of related images, and they complete language production activities that require them to create phrases using the targeted vocabulary. At the discourse level, students once again begin with text-based activities such as answering questions or filling in a form that uses the targeted vocabulary, and continue with watching unstructured interviews with native speakers and carrying out related activities such as filling in a biographical information sheet. This phase of the model ends with students completing activities that require them to produce larger chunks of discourse (e.g., summarizing, making conclusions, writing a description). Assessment can take place at any stage in the model and can be either formative or summative. For example, vocabulary preparation activities can serve as a formative assessment to gauge how well students have grasped the basic meanings of words before moving on to contextualized activities, whereas creative production activities such as writing a description or making a word list can serve as a summative assessment to evaluate how well students use vocabulary words to make meaning in context.

The three pedagogical models outlined in this chapter are summarized in Table 3.1. Although informed by a variety of approaches, these models share a number of commonalities. First, all are examples of meaning-based explicit instruction of language forms: Each one stresses the importance of contextualized language use and of creating connections between form and meaning. In addition, all three prioritize learner involvement in understanding language patterns and relationships between words and phrases through consciousness-raising activities, hypothesizing, and problem solving. Finally, although not explicitly literacy based, each model engages learners in the act of meaning design through interpretation of authentic cultural content and creative production activities based on that content.
Table 3.1 Text-Based Models of Form-Focused Instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1</strong> Pre-reading</td>
<td>Presentation (pre-, while-, post-storytelling activities to focus on meaning)</td>
<td>Vocabulary preparation (establishing basic word meaning and relationships)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(brainstorming, predicting, linking known to new)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2</strong> While-reading (global to detailed comprehension, hypothesis testing, form-meaning connections)</td>
<td>Attention (consciousness raising about forms used in story)</td>
<td>Sentence-level activities (input to output; authentic video)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3</strong> Post-reading (practice of language forms, textual analysis, creative production)</td>
<td>Co-Construction (collaborative talk about grammatical forms)</td>
<td>Discourse-level activities (input to output; authentic video)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4</strong></td>
<td>Expansion (application of new understandings of forms creatively)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of instructional sequencing, a comparison of the stages summarized in Table 3.1 reveals additional similarities across the models. First, all three include an initial stage that prepares learners to interact with language forms in context. Next, each proposes a progression of activities to move learners from textual interpretation to textual production. Finally, the three models conclude with activities that allow learners to use language forms creatively. With these commonalities in mind, in the next subsection we propose a general format for teaching language forms based on the multiliteracies approach.

2.3 A Template for Organizing Multiliteracies Instruction and Assessment of Language Forms

To effectively implement meaningful grammar and vocabulary instruction grounded in textual interaction and allow students to both learn about and use these language forms, we propose the five-stage template below for designing multiliteracies-oriented, form-focused lessons. This instructional sequence may be used to introduce language forms in an authentic context or to deepen students’ understanding of previously studied forms.

1. **Introducing ideas** to access background knowledge and prepare learners to interact with the grammatical and lexical content of the text;
2. **Understanding meaning** to gain global and detailed understanding of the text;
3. **Hypothesizing** to notice language patterns, construct rules, and see connections between parts of language and the whole text;
4. **Establishing relationships** to explore choices related to language forms and understand their effect on textual meaning; and
5. **Applying knowledge** to use new knowledge of language forms in creative production tasks.
At this point, some of you may be concerned about selecting appropriate texts for use with this instructional sequence. Indeed, a common concern among FL instructors is finding what they believe is the rare, perfect text for teaching language forms, one that has multiple examples of a specific grammatical form or that includes a large percentage of the vocabulary words form a particular lesson in the textbook. This lesson plan template can help shift thinking away from finding the perfect text toward developing activities that include a focus on language forms. In other words, if the activities you develop provide linguistic support that targets the grammar and vocabulary that will be the focus of your activities, the actual number or type of forms in the text you select becomes less important. Additional considerations that can help relieve the burden of finding the perfect text include selecting texts that interest both you and your students, that make connections to course content or topics of cultural relevance, that are linguistically accessible to your students, that lend themselves to a multi-stage pedagogy such as the model proposed here, and that can be expanded upon through activities within the pedagogy (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 2010) (see Chapter 2 for additional discussion of text selection).

As we suggested earlier in the “Pedagogical Applications” section, because the lesson plan template is focused on grammar and vocabulary, overt instruction activities (i.e., those that encourage learners to conceptualize information in a text through examination of its formal and functional components) take center stage. Nonetheless, all four pedagogical acts of the multiliteracies framework (situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing, transformed practice) should be implemented to engage students in the learning processes of interpretation, collaboration, problem solving, reflection, and self-reflection and to tap into various Available Designs including, but not limited to, grammar and vocabulary. Examples of learning activities that might be used in each stage of the sequence are provided in Table 3.2. Note that in some cases, the learning activity is reflective of more than one pedagogical act.

2.3.1 INTRODUCING IDEAS. The purpose of the introducing ideas stage is to prepare students to interact with language forms and cultural content in an authentic text. Brainstorming, a situated practice activity, achieves this goal by tapping into the knowledge and ideas learners bring to a topic. One way to structure a brainstorming activity is to have learners first write down their initial ideas about a topic on notecards, one idea per notecard. Next, students work in small groups to identify like ideas, name or categorize each group of ideas, and create logical connections between idea groups (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012).

To help students generate initial ideas that are more closely linked to language forms and their contribution to textual meaning, they can preview using text aids. Text aids include headings or subheadings, topic sentences, boldfaced or italicized type, charts or tables, and so on. The instructor may select text aids that help students comprehend the content of the text, highlight salient grammatical or lexical forms, or a combination of both. Students then identify the purpose of the text aids and make predictions about the topic of the text. After reading, listening to, or viewing the text, students go back to their predictions.
### TABLE 3.2 Suggested Learning Activities for Teaching Language Forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional Stage</th>
<th>Suggested Learning Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Introducing ideas</td>
<td>Brainstorming (Situated practice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Previewing using text aids (Situated practice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Word associations (Situated practice / Overt instruction)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Understanding meaning</td>
<td>Clink and clunk (Situated practice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading matrix (Situated practice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selected deletion (Overt instruction / Transformed practice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Hypothesizing</td>
<td>Inductive reasoning (Critical framing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sentence data sets (Overt instruction / Critical framing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Text annotation (Overt instruction)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Establishing relationships</td>
<td>Extra words (Overt instruction)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Substitutions (Overt instruction)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dictionary work (Overt instruction)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Applying knowledge</td>
<td>Imitate the genre (Transformed practice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Critical lenses (Critical framing / Transformed practice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Revising and editing (Overt instruction)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and compare them with the ideas they gleaned from the text (Kucer & Silva, 2009).

Even more overtly focused on language forms are word association activities. Here, students make connections between words from the text and related sets of words, which can include known or new vocabulary. In so doing, students begin to understand how language forms are connected to one another and in subsequent activities can more easily see how selected words contribute to textual meaning.

#### 2.3.2 UNDERSTANDING MEANING.
Activities such as clink and clunk, a reading matrix, and selected deletion help learners determine the main facts of a text and link these facts to language use in the understanding meaning stage. **Clink and clunk**, a situated practice activity, assesses what students have learned from a text and what needs to be discussed in more detail. After reading, viewing, or listening to a text for the first time, students list what they understand well in the “clink” column of a table, and they write what they do not understand well in the “clunk” column. In small groups, students discuss and clarify information while the teacher circulates to assess which areas are posing difficulties (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012).

A **reading matrix** also focuses on understanding the facts of a text and furthermore links these facts to language forms. After entering facts, ideas, or scenes from a text into the matrix, students identify language patterns used for
expressing these facts, ideas, or scenes. According to Swaffar and Arens (2005),
the reading matrix leads “to more informed reading” (p. 87), joins language with
ideas, and thus helps avoid the tendency to read word for word (see Chapters 5
and 6 for additional uses of the reading matrix).

Finally, selected deletion activities focus even more closely on language
forms and their contribution to textual meaning. Students read a version of
the text with selected words deleted (e.g., words targeted in the introducing
ideas stage, words related to a chapter theme). As they read, they complete the
text by inserting a logical word or phrase into each blank space. As a group,
students then share ideas and discuss which is the most plausible insertion for
each blank (Kucer & Silva, 2009). This activity thus encourages students to use
context to help them understand words in the text and furthermore targets spe-
cific language forms and how they affect textual meaning.

2.3.3 HYPOThESISInG. In the hypothesizing stage, learners interact with a text
more carefully to identify language patterns and to understand how the Available
Designs of grammar and vocabulary connect with other parts of the text
to make meaning. Inductive reasoning, a critical framing activity, is similar to
the inductive and dialogic approaches you have already read about. Students’
attention is drawn to specific features of the text, and they are asked to draw
conclusions about language patterns or rules based on these features.

Sentence data sets activities are similar to inductive reasoning because
learners generalize language patterns and rules based on various sets of fea-
tures from the text. For instance, students may identify and classify simple and
compound sentences and then determine a general pattern or rule for each set
of sentences based on the way they are used in the text.

Finally, in text annotation activities, students mark up the text as they
read it to focus on various language features. For instance, they might underline
words or phrases that advance the chronology of the story, put a question mark
next to a vocabulary word that is unclear to them, color code words or phrases
that are related to one another semantically or morphologically, or circle words
that refer to one or more characters in the story. Each of these activities draws
students’ attention to language forms and encourages them to hypothesize
about their function within the text.

2.3.4 EXPLORING RELATIONSHIPS. Students continue to look closely at lan-
guage forms and delve more deeply into their effect on textual meaning during
the exploring relationships phase. In extra words activities, students work with
their instructor to determine which words are less essential to a text and dis-
cuss how overall textual meaning changes if these extra words are eliminated.
In some cases, the instructor may direct students to focus on specific extra
words (e.g., adjectives, adverbs); in other cases, students determine on their
own which words they think may be deleted (Kucer & Silva, 2009).

Similarly, in substitution activities, students focus on aspects of grammar
by identifying a particular feature and substituting an alternative. For instance,
if focusing on pronouns, students might change a text from third person to first
person. Students then consider the effects of the change on the text's meaning (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012).

Finally, dictionary work can take a number of forms. Beyond looking up unknown words, students can use the dictionary to explore alternate definitions and see which fits best with the way the word is used in context. Alternatively, they can define targeted vocabulary in their own words and then compare their definition with that of the dictionary. In all of these overt instruction activities, students are mindfully reflecting on how the Available Designs of grammar and vocabulary are used to present ideas, and how textual meaning changes as a result of their modification.

2.3.5 APPLYING KNOWLEDGE. Imitate the genre, critical lenses, and revising and editing are all activities that require students to apply knowledge related to grammar and vocabulary through language production. Imitate the genre, a transformed practice activity, requires students to create an original text based on the genre they have read, viewed, or listened to. In each case, the text students create makes use of the Available Designs targeted in previous activities. For instance, if students read a poem that features relative pronouns, they then write a poem of the same type on a topic of their choice; if they watch a television interview show, they then create a similar program that incorporates interrogative structures.

Exploring textual meaning through different points of view is the purpose of critical lenses activities. Here, students may retell a story from the perspective of a different character, or they may analyze a text targeted to young people from the perspective of older populations. Because such activities require students to step back from the text to explore different viewpoints as well as apply new knowledge creatively, critical lenses activities span both critical framing and transformed practice (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012). Finally, an applying knowledge activity that focuses on overt instruction is revising and editing. Kern (2000) suggests that instructors lead whole-class discussion of student work to teach learners how to edit expression of ideas, textual organization, grammar, and so on. He furthermore proposes a number of strategies to treat in such discussions, including paragraphing, sentence combining, and rereading.

2.3.6 ASSESSMENT. The five-stage lesson plan template can also serve as a model for designing multiliteracies-based exams that focus on students' ability to use grammar and vocabulary accurately and fluently through interaction with a written text. Such an exam might have the following format: (1) the introducing ideas activity of word associations to target vocabulary in the text; (2) the understanding meaning activity of selected deletion that targets vocabulary from the word associations activity; (3) the hypothesizing activity of sentence data sets to classify phrases using the targeted vocabulary into logical groupings; (4) the establishing relationships activity of substitutions in which students replace targeted words with items from the word associations list and comment on how this changes overall meaning; and (5) the applying knowledge activity of critical lenses in which students explore the text from a different viewpoint.
To ensure student success in meaningfully using language forms, exams should be based on a text they have already read, the continuation of a text they have already read, or a text that treats a similar topic to one treated in class.

In addition to serving as a model for creating formal tests, this template provides opportunities for various formative and summative assessments. A number of the suggested introducing ideas, understanding meaning, hypothesizing, and establishing relationships activities can function as formative assessments carried out through in-class discussion or homework. Moreover, the suggested applying knowledge activities may serve as summative assessments that conclude the treatment of particular language forms. A sample lesson plan that targets both grammar and vocabulary and provides examples of assessment activities is presented in the next section.

2.4 Sample Form-Focused Lesson Plan

In Table 3.3, we present a sample lesson plan based on Barrette, Paesani, and Vinall (2010) and organized according to the template presented earlier. Activities implemented in the lesson represent one of the three illustrative activity types presented in Table 3.2 for each stage in the template. This lesson is intended for use in a third- or fourth-semester intermediate Spanish course during an instructional unit on narrating in the past. The goals of this lesson are to enable students to formulate hypotheses about, understand, and use the preterit and imperfect verb forms, to recognize contextually dependent uses of the preterit and imperfect in the text, to understand and use transition words to advance a narrative story, and to interpret and reproduce the genre of a narrative short story. The text that forms the basis of the lesson is the short story Apocalipsis (Apocalypse) (Denevi, 1974), which recounts the disappearance of the human race at the end of the thirty-second century (see Appendix). Interestingly, this resolution is presented in the first sentence of the story, and is followed by the events leading up to it. In the last sentence of the story, the narrator—one of the machines who destroyed the human race—reveals its identity. This “non-traditional narrative sequence shifts the focus in the development of the story from what happens to how it happens” (Barrette, Paesani, & Vinall, 2010, p. 219). Moreover, the use of the imperfect to narrate most of the story, rather than the preterit, “accentuates the ongoing process of the actions as opposed to their finality” (p. 220). Students are likely to be familiar with the apocalypse theme from movies, television, and fiction and will furthermore have an understanding of the form and expected uses of the preterit and imperfect prior to reading the text.

The activities in this five-stage lesson plan allow students to learn about language forms and use them in a meaningful context. Indeed, language use, one of the seven principles of literacy, is foregrounded in the lesson plan in activities that encourage hypothesizing, reflection, analysis, and establishing connections related to transition words and preterit and imperfect verb forms used in the text. By implementing activities that reflect all four pedagogical acts, students also engage in the act of meaning design: They explore form–meaning connections through textual interpretation and creation; they work with the linguistic
### TABLE 3.3 Sample Instructional Sequence, Form-Focused Lesson: Apocalipsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional Stage</th>
<th>Learning Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1 Introducing ideas | a Students and teacher work together to brainstorm ideas about characteristics of the science fiction genre: common themes, characters, events, chronology. Next, in small groups, students are given the title of the short story and they brainstorm characters, events, and chronology specific to the science fiction theme of the apocalypse. During follow up, the teacher makes a master list of ideas, organized by category, on the board. (Situated practice)  
   b Next, students complete a word associations activity based on an instructor-provided list of transition words common in narrative texts (e.g., *in the beginning*, *next*, *later*, *finally*). In small groups, students classify items in the word list according to whether they introduce an idea or event, move the story along, or conclude an idea or event. The instructor provides a second set of transition words from the text and students then add these words to the categories they have created, justifying their choices during whole-class follow up. (Situated practice / Overt instruction) |
| 2 Understanding meaning | a To focus students on the characters, events, and chronology of the story, they read the text and individually complete a reading matrix. Students compare their matrix with a partner, reaching a consensus on the important characters, events, and chronology of the story, and then together identify language patterns or samples in the text used to express this information. During follow-up discussion, the instructor and students highlight the unusual chronology in the story as well as the fact that the narrator is a machine, linking both ideas to language samples from the text. (Situated practice)  
   b Students then read the text a second time, with all of the transition words deleted. During this selected deletion activity, students work on their own to insert logical transition words from the list provided in the word associations activity. In small groups, students then share their choices and discuss which is most plausible. During follow up, students present their choices, compare them with the transition words used in the original text, and discuss how these choices affect overall textual meaning. (Overt instruction / Transformed practice) |

(Continued)
TABLE 3.3 Sample Instructional Sequence, Form-Focused Lesson: Apocalipsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional Stage</th>
<th>Learning Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 3 Hypothesizing      | a To focus on verb forms used in the text, students return to their reading matrix and identify language samples that include instances of the preterit and imperfect. The instructor then leads an inductive reasoning activity during which students draw conclusions about how these verb forms are used within the context of the text. (Critical framing)  
  
  b To deepen their understanding of how past tense forms are used in the text, students engage in text annotation by rereading the text and underlining all examples of the preterit and imperfect. They then determine whether all uses of these verb forms reflect the conclusions made in the inductive reasoning activity. They furthermore note any uses of the preterit and imperfect that differ from what they have already learned about these forms. (Overt instruction) |
| 4 Establishing       | a To highlight the unusual use of the imperfect in the text, students complete a substitutions activity, changing all examples of the imperfect to the preterit. During follow-up discussion, the instructor guides students in considering the effects of this change on the overall meaning of the text. (Overt instruction)  
  
  b Students complete a critical lenses activity and retell the story in the past from the point of view of a human. Students are instructed to include information about characters, events, and chronology based on their reading matrix, including the language samples they have culled. They are furthermore encouraged to use transition words they learned during the lesson. (Critical framing / Transformed practice) |
| 5 Applying knowledge | a Students complete a critical lenses activity and retell the story in the past from the point of view of a human. Students are instructed to include information about characters, events, and chronology based on their reading matrix, including the language samples they have culled. They are furthermore encouraged to use transition words they learned during the lesson. (Critical framing / Transformed practice)  
  
  b The teacher provides feedback on students’ drafts, focusing on the appropriate use of the preterit and imperfect, words and phrases from the reading matrix, and transition words. Students then revise and edit their story retelling and share it with their classmates in a subsequent class period. (Overt instruction) |

and schematic resources that contribute to the text’s meaning; and they draw on their own background knowledge about the genre they read. Furthermore, the instructional sequence engages students in the learning processes of interpretation, collaboration, problem solving, and reflection. Students interpret the effect of Available Designs on overall textual meaning; they collaborate by interacting with the text and other learners to design meaning; they solve problems by figuring out relationships between words and between words and textual content; and they reflect on language patterns, meaning, and their own writing.
This sample lesson affords a number of opportunities for both formative and summative assessment. For instance, instructors can provide formative feedback after the word associations, selected deletion, and text annotation activities to ensure that students understand both the form and meaning of the targeted grammar and vocabulary. Likewise, instructors may wish to provide formative feedback during the follow-up part of the reading matrix activity when students explain why they have associated specific pieces of language from the text with information about the characters, events, and chronology of the story. Each of these activities can also be completed as homework and assigned a grade for completion and accuracy related to form-meaning connections. Finally, the writing and revising activities from the applying knowledge phase of the lesson plan can serve as a summative assessment for the instructional sequence. Instructor feedback and evaluation would focus not only on accurate use of transition words and past tense forms, but also on how the present and imperfect affect narration, how well students expressed the characters, events, and chronology of the story, and how effectively they narrated the story from a different point of view.

To help you reflect on this sample form-focused lesson plan, read through it a second time and find answers to the following questions:

1. What are the objectives of the lesson and how do they fit within the course curriculum?
2. Is the selected text appropriate to meet these objectives? What elements of the text might be challenging for FL learners to understand?
3. In what ways do students both learn about and use language forms in the lesson? How do they establish form-meaning connections through the various activities in the lesson?
4. Why are the different lesson plan activities labeled as situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing, or transformed practice?
5. Are the basic elements of instruction—conventions, cultural knowledge, and language use—represented in the lesson?
6. Are the learning processes of interpretation, collaboration, problem solving, and reflection/self-reflection represented in the lesson?

As you think about planning your own form-focused lesson plans and assessments using the template above, come back to these questions as a way to help you organize your ideas and apply your understanding of multiliteracies-based pedagogy to the teaching of grammar and vocabulary. Learning Activity 3.5 will help get you started.

**LEARNING ACTIVITY 3.5**

**Developing a Form-Focused Lesson Plan**

Go back to the lesson plans you analyzed in Learning Activity 3.4 and create a revised lesson using the multiliteracies-oriented template presented here. Before beginning this task, first evaluate the effectiveness of the lessons by asking the
questions presented above. Once you have identified areas that need improvement, create a revised lesson using the five-stage model and suggested learning activities in Tables 3.2 and 3.3. When the lesson plan is finished, ask yourself the same set of questions above to help you justify your pedagogical choices.

3. FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

In this chapter, we established a conceptual base for considering the teaching of FL grammar and vocabulary within the multiliteracies framework. Essential to this base is the idea that language forms are more than sets of rules or lists and that their meaning is contextually dependent. We further established that grammar and vocabulary are meaning-making resources that help learners make form-meaning relationships and engage in the act of meaning design.

This conceptual base informed the form-focused pedagogy we developed in this chapter, a pedagogy whose primary goal is simultaneously to help students learn about language forms and use language in culturally authentic contexts. This pedagogy is grounded in the multiliteracies-based concepts of meaning design, language use, and Available Designs. Through activities reflecting the four pedagogical acts of situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing, and transformed practice, students not only establish form-meaning connections, but they also interpret, collaborate, solve problems, and reflect about the language and content of FL texts.

As you read the remaining chapters of this book, keep in mind that grammar and vocabulary are two among a number of Available Designs that learners tap into to interpret and transform FL texts. As such, grammar and vocabulary—although essential for successful FL learning—are not the only aspects of language use that contribute to learning, nor is language use the only element of instruction on which we should focus our efforts. Instruction of language forms should be balanced with other aspects of language use, such as phonetic systems, organizational patterns, or genre, and with other elements of instruction such as conventions and cultural knowledge. Indeed, to communicate effectively, students need a working knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, but without contextualizing these resources within specific cultural contexts or textual genres, they are devoid of meaning. We hope that you will remember this final consideration as you reflect on the content of this chapter and move ahead to explore the content of Chapter 4, “Scaffolding Oral Language Use in the Classroom.”

4. TRANSFORMING KNOWLEDGE

4.1 Reflective Journal Entry

What are the benefits and pitfalls of teaching grammar and vocabulary through FL texts? Is a multiliteracies approach to teaching language forms consistent with the beliefs and experiences related to FL teaching and learning you identified in Chapter 1 or in Learning Activity 3.1? How have your views about teaching and learning grammar and vocabulary changed as a result of reading this chapter?
4.2 Researching Grammar and Vocabulary

Examine the way grammar and vocabulary are presented and practiced in two or three introductory-level textbooks for the language you teach. What is the approach to teaching grammar in each textbook? What is the approach to teaching vocabulary? Are the approaches in each reflective of grammar-based approaches, CLT-oriented approaches, literacy-oriented approaches, or a combination of these? Are there commonalities or differences across the textbooks surveyed? What overall conclusions can you make about the view of grammar instruction in commercially available FL textbooks based upon your research? What overall conclusions can you make about the view of vocabulary instruction in commercially available FL textbooks based upon your research?

Key Resources

Adair-Hauck, B., & Donato, R. (2010). Using a story-based approach to teach grammar. In J. Shrum & E. Glisan (Authors), Teacher's handbook: Contextualized foreign language instruction (4th ed., pp. 216–243). Boston, MA: Heinle. This chapter of Teacher's Handbook outlines the PACE model for teaching grammar in FL classrooms. To set up the model, Adair-Hauck and Donato first discuss issues related to communicatively oriented grammar instruction and to inductive and deductive teaching approaches. They then argue that a dialogic approach to grammar instruction, in which teacher and learners collaborate to construct grammar rules and explanations, is ideal. The PACE model—Presentation, Attention, Co-Construction, Evaluation—exemplifies this dialogic approach and grounds grammar teaching in authentic cultural stories. After explaining the model and providing a sample lesson plan, the authors conclude by highlighting advantages of the PACE model over traditional approaches to grammar instruction and providing suggestions for implementing the model in the FL classroom.

Guilloteau, N. (2010). Vocabulary. In C. Blyth (Ed.), Foreign language teaching methods. Austin, TX: Texas Language Technology Center, University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved from www.coerll.utexas.edu/methods/. This module on vocabulary is part of the online methods course, Foreign Language Teaching Methods, at the University of Texas at Austin. Guilloteau guides course participants through a number of theoretical and practical issues related to the teaching and learning of vocabulary, including pitfalls associated with training instructors to teach vocabulary, teaching vocabulary in context, the lexical approach to vocabulary instruction, vocabulary practice activities, and input-to-output activities. Throughout, Guilloteau uses the approach to vocabulary instruction in Français interactif (Kelton, Guilloteau, & Blyth, 2004) to illustrate key concepts and teaching techniques. The module includes both print and video elements and has a number of reflective activities for course participants to complete as they progress through the module.

Maxim, H. H. (2009). Developing advanced formal language abilities along a genre-based curriculum. In S. L. Katz & J. Watzinger-Tharp (Eds.), Conceptions of L2 grammar: Theoretical approaches and their application in the L2 classroom (pp. 172–188). Boston, MA: Heinle. In this chapter, Maxim argues for a view of grammar in which form and meaning are merged to discover a text's communicative purpose. He then proposes a three-part
genre-based pedagogy for implementing texts in the FL curriculum. The purpose of the pedagogy is to lead students to understand the purpose, function, context, and resources associated with a text or genre and to then construct their own version of the genre in writing. Focusing on an advanced-level German course, Maxim suggests organizing the curriculum using a narrative-expository continuum that moves students from private to public spheres. The chapter includes an example of how the course is organized as well as sample instructional sequences for four genres (personal letter, diary entry, film review, literary analysis) based on the proposed three-part pedagogy.

**For Further Reading**


La extinción de la raza de los hombres se situó aproximadamente a fines del siglo XXXII. La cosa ocurrió así: las máquinas habían alcanzado tal perfección que los hombres ya no necesitaban comer, ni dormir, ni hablar, ni leer, ni escribir, ni pensar, ni hacer nada. Les bastaba apretar un botón y las máquinas lo hacían todo por ellos. Gradualmente fueron desapareciendo las mesas, las sillas, las rosas, los discos con las nueve sinfonías de Beethoven, las tiendas de antigüedades, los vinos de Burdeos, las gondolinas, los tapices flamencos, todo Verdi, el ajedrez, los telescopios, las catedrales góticas, los estadios de fútbol, la Piedad de Miguel Ángel, los mapas, las ruinas del Foro Trajano, los automóviles, el arroz, las sequoias gigantes, el Partenón. Sólo había máquinas. Después los hombres empezaron a notar que ellos mismos iban desapareciendo paulatinamente y que en cambio las máquinas se multiplicaban. Bastó poco tiempo para que el número de los hombres quedase reducido a la mitad y el de las máquinas se duplicase. Las máquinas terminaron por ocupar todos los sitios disponibles. No se podía dar un paso ni hacer un ademan sin tropezarse con una de ellas. Finalmente los hombres fueron eliminados. Como el último se olvidó de desconectar las máquinas, desde entonces seguimos funcionando (Denevi, 1974, p. 113).

**Apocalypse**

The extinction of the human race occurred around the end of the thirty-second century. It happened like this: machines had become so perfect that men no longer needed to eat, drink, speak, read, write, think, or do anything. They only had to press a button and the machines did everything for them. Tables, chairs, roses, records with Beethoven's nine symphonies, antique stores, Bordeaux wines, swallows, Flemish tapestries, all of Verdi's work, the game of chess, telescopes, gothic cathedrals, soccer stadiums, Michelangelo's Pietà, maps, the ruins of Trajan's Forum, cars, rice, giant sequoias, and the Parthenon all gradually disappeared. There were only machines. The humans began to notice that they too were gradually disappearing, while the number of machines continued to multiply. Little time passed before the number of humans on Earth was cut in half, and the machines doubled in population. The machines occupied every available space. You could not make a move or take a step without coming across one of them. In the end, the humans were eliminated. Since the last one forgot to unplug the machines, we have remained on ever since.