Mosaic

Anthony Mollica
editor

A Journal for Language Teachers. Published by éditions SOLEIL publishing inc.

Vol. 2, No. 2 ISSN 1195-7131 Winter 1994

In This Issue...

The Five-Step Performance-Based Model of Oral Proficiency

Rebecca M. Valette

What can language teachers learn from the football coach? The author presents a five-step model which can be used to organize instruction so that the focus is on performance, that is, on using the second language for real-life communication.

Although we second language teachers have been unanimous in proclaiming "oral proficiency" as one of our major goals of instruction, there has been much debate as to how this goal is best achieved. For instance, how important is it to provide "comprehensible input" in the classroom? What is the role of grammar and/or linguistic analysis? Are drill and practice activities useful? How much time should be spent on simulated oral communication activities: role play, information gap activities, conversational exchanges? How and when should teachers engage in error correction? The current interest in "authentic assessment" is forcing all of us to focus on evaluating the outcomes of our second language courses. In doing so, we will need to adopt a "performance-based curriculum" in which our success and that of our students will be measured in terms of how well they can use the second language for communication in real-life situations.

The term "performance-based instruction" evokes, and perhaps appropriately so, the image of a sporting event, such as a football game. Indeed, at the secondary school level, the one faculty member who is the most rigorously evaluated in terms of student performance or student outcomes is usually the football coach. Almost every weekend during the fall season, coach and players focus their attention on outcomes, or performance, namely on how well they will play in the "real" game against another school in their league. During the week, however, there is training and practice of various sorts.

In order to elaborate a second-language model for performance-based instruction based on the football analogy, we must closely observe how young people learn to play football. At first, a child is happy to zigzag down the lawn carrying the ball. But soon the young player needs to learn what real football is by:

- watching actual football games,
- learning the rules of the game, and
- drilling the skills, such as throwing, receiving, blocking and running.

Furthermore, the young player needs to gain experience in:

- scrimmage practice, and
- participating in actual games.

continued on page 2

Mosaic

Editor
Anthony Mollica
Brock University

Associate Editors
Ronald J. Cornfield
Ellen Foster

Editorial Board
Françoise Binamé
Ministère de l'Éducation, Québec

Jim Cummins
Ont. Institute for Studies in Education

Marcel Danesi
University of Toronto

Alberto DiGiovanni
Centro Canadese Scuola e Cultura

Peter Heffernan
University of Lethbridge

Louis Julé
University of Saskatchewan

Wally Lazaruk
Alberta Education

Frank Nuessel
University of Louisville

Roseann Runte
Victoria College, University of Toronto

Tony Tavares
Manitoba Education

Anna-Maria Folco
Centre de langues patrimoniales
Université de Montréal

Mosaic is a journal/newsletter published four times a year (Fall, Winter Spring, Summer) by éditions Soleil publishing inc. Manuscripts and editorial communications should be sent to: Professor Anthony Mollica, editor, *Mosaic*, P. O. Box 847, Welland, Ontario L3B 5Y5. Tel/Fax: [905] 788-2674.

All articles are refereed anonymously by a panel of readers.

Subscription Rates (4 issues per year sent to the same address):

1 - 5 subscriptions $10.00 each	51 - 75 subscriptions $ 8.00 each
6 - 50 subscriptions $ 9.00 each	76 -100 subscriptions $ 7.40 each

Canadian orders please add GST.
U.S. subscriptions same rate as above in U.S. currency.
Overseas subscriptions $25.00 each (Sent by air mail)
Advertising rates available on request.

Mail Canadian subscriptions to:
Mosaic
P.O. Box 847
Welland, Ontario L3B 5Y5

Mail U.S. subscriptions to:
Mosaic
P.O. Box 890
Lewiston, NY 14092-0890

Telephone/Fax: [905] 788-2674

Mosaic is indexed in the Canadian Education Index by Micromedia Ltd., 20 Victoria St., Toronto, Ont. M5C 2N8, Tel.: (416) 362-5211, Fax: (416) 362-6161
Mosaic is available on microfiche from the ERIC Document Research Service (ERDS) at 1-800-443-3742 or (703) 440-1400.

ISSN 1195-7131 Printed in Canada

The language graduate who never reads a professional journal and participates only minimally, if at all, in professional meetings, will stagnate. There is an onus on the profession in all areas to upgrade and keep abreast of current developments in the field.
Peter Heffernan

Oral Proficiency

continued from page 1

Clearly a young player who cannot understand the game on television, who cannot catch a pass, and who does not know what is meant by "offside", may have fun "playing football" with friends, but certainly is not "proficient" at the game.

Of course, there are levels of performance in football, each with its corresponding levels of proficiency. In the United States, young players participate in the Pop Warner League. Then they may play junior high varsity and senior high varsity, before moving to university varsity, and perhaps even professional football. Each level becomes more complex and more challenging.

Common to all levels of football, however, is the emphasis on performance. The focus is on playing the game well, that is, responding creatively and effectively to situations as they develop on the field and initiating new moves and strategies as needed. Then, during the following week, the performance in the previous game is closely studied and criticized. There is training and practice, with much of the practice time spent on drills, building strength, and developing accuracy of execution of plays and routines. Daily workouts are not simply scrimmages followed by congratulations. Even the scrimmage sessions are followed by close critiques, in an effort to improve performance the next time.

Building oral proficiency in a foreign language is very similar to building proficiency in football. In the Five-Step Performance-Based Model outlined on the next page, the first four steps each contribute to preparing students for the last step which is using the language for actual communication with native speakers.

Step 1. Guided Observation: Listening to the Spoken Language

In Step 1, the students come into contact with the second language as it is spoken in authentic situations. At its most difficult, this means listening to conversations between native speakers, watching television, listening to the radio, etc.

Listening to the second language in its most authentic manifestation is like going to a professional football game: people unfamiliar with the game have no idea what is going on, people with some notions of football follow the main movements of the game, avid fans know the players, the plays, the signals, and can analyze not only what did happen but what might have happened. At the highest level of comprehension, listening to authentic speech, like attending professional football games, requires an awareness and a sensitivity to cultural connotations and allusions.

Steps	Oral proficiency	Football
1. Guided Observation	Listening to the spoken language	Watching actual football games
2. Guided Analysis	Learning how the language works	Learning the rules of the game
3. Guided Practice	Building the skills	Training: drill and practice
4. Simulated Performance	Participating in guided conservations and role play	Scrimmage practice
5. Performance	Speaking in real-life situations	Participating in actual games

The learner needs guidance in developing this initial skill of comprehension.

- At a beginning level, Step 1 consists of listening to the simplified but none the less real language of contrived and/or scripted spoken materials. This type of activity might include TPR (Total Physical Response) activities, listening to simplified narrations, watching videos scripted for language learners but filmed on location by native speakers. This activity is like attending a Pop Warner league game, where one can observe the main features of football in a less complex environment.
- At a more advanced level, this step will include listening to authentic material that has been specifically selected or edited so as to be more comprehensible. Usually this means listening to authentic material with the opportunity of stopping and replaying parts of a recording, perhaps even using captioned versions of a video to enhance comprehension. This is like watching a football game on television where instant replays and charts help clarify the action.

What the students understand from the material they are watching and/or listening to is often termed comprehensible input. With language learning as with football, the focus must be on moving from a general notion of what is going on to increasingly more accurate levels of comprehension and more precise appreciation of the complexities of the language.

The better a student understands a second language, the more effectively that student will eventually be able to participate in a conversation, just as the more a young player understands the game of football, the better that player will eventually be able to perform on the field.

Step 2. Guided Analysis: Learning How the Language Works

In Step 2, students learn how the second language is put together, how it works.

- At first, attention is focused on isolated, individual elements, such as the sound system, syntax patterns, grammatical structures, and vocabulary. This is like learning the rules of football, such as what type of movements are considered "clipping" or "holding" and what penalty such calls carry.
- Then students are expected to recognize and understand the elements in the context of a spoken message: can they make phonemic distinctions, can they hear a gender marker and tell whether a noun is feminine or masculine, can they notice whether a verb is in the preterite or the imperfect, are they aware of the use of a subjunctive or the choice of a particular adjective and do they know how this affects the meaning of what is said. This linguistic analysis is similar to the football player or spectator recognizing an offside movement when it occurs during a game without waiting for the referee to make the call.

Study of the language itself has traditionally been the focal point for second language instruction. Many types of techniques have been developed: inductive and deductive presentations, charts and paradigms, grammars of various sorts (e.g., classical, structural, transformational), mnemonic devices, illustrated vocabularies, flash cards, etc. In the context of the Five-Step Performance-Based Model, these activities constitute one of the five essential steps, but they must be viewed in the context reaching Step 5, which is the ability to use the second language in authentic oral communication situations.

Step 3. Guided Practice: Building the Skills

In Step 3, the students move from understanding and learning to actually manipulating elements of the spoken language.

- At first, students learn to handle short meaningful phrases, for example, giving their names, exchanging greetings, describing the time and weather. Practicing these brief contextualized and meaningful phrases is like tossing the football and encouraging a young player to catch it and run.
- Then, students begin to drill and practice the second language more intensively, often by concentrating on specific elements in isolation. They may repeat verb forms, or practice difficult sounds like the French /y/, or mimic sentence intonations. They may identify colours, recite numbers, name objects on a transparency. These non-contextualized, word-level activities may be compared

to the football team's push-ups, blocking practice, and running drills.

- Finally there are the meaningful, contextualized activities where students respond to guided questions and various oral and printed cues to produce correct sentences. This is similar to drills where the football team runs through plays, with a focus on careful, accurate performance.

The above types of guided language-learning activities are not goals in themselves, but enabling outcomes. Their mastery enables learners to speak the language more effectively, just as precise drill and practice helps football players to perform more effectively during the game.

Step 4. Simulated Performance: Participating in Guided Conversations and Role Play

In Step 4, students have the opportunity to use, in simulated conversational exchanges and role play situations, the new words, phrases and patterns they have learned. The emphasis is on self-expression and conveying information fluently in a meaningful context. Much as one might try to have these exchanges resemble real-life conversations, for example by using props to establish a café scene or a TV game show, teachers and students both recognize that the context is artificial. This type of language practice is similar to football scrimmage practice. In scrimmage, the players divide into two teams and play against one another: it may look like a real game from a distance, but everyone knows that it is not. Scrimmage gives the players the opportunity of running their plays in a game-like context where the focus is on performing effectively.

An important aspect of scrimmage practice is that although the coach allows the game to go on uninterrupted, he/she afterwards brings the team together to analyze weaknesses, criticize poor moves, and outline further drill and practice activities. The scrimmage practices may even be videotaped to allow the players themselves the opportunity of seeing how they performed and where they need to improve. Similarly, Step 4 activities in language classes can be rendered much more effective if they are followed up by analysis and individualized suggestions for additional practice.

Step 5. Performance: Speaking in Real-Life Situations

Step 5 represents the ultimate desired outcome of the Performance-Based Model of Oral Proficiency. This is the point where students have the opportunity to use the second language for real communication in an authentic situation. The type of situation may vary: e.g., the student is abroad or in an area where the language is spoken and uses the language to order food or ask for a service; the student has a casual conversation with an exchange student or with members of a host family abroad; the student makes a telephone call to request information. At this step, as one becomes increasingly proficient, one needs to be aware of the more complex aspects of communication, including cultural values and expectations, linguistic registers, and conversational characteristics such as turn-taking.

In real communication, as in the real football game, the "clock is running." One cannot start over, one must continue playing. The aim is to communicate as effectively as possible within existing constraints.

After the communication event, like after the game, the student can try to recall what went well and what caused comprehension to break down. Often the teacher is not available, and the "performance" was not recorded, unless the communication event was videotaped or recorded. In the latter case, there may be the opportunity for teacher and student to review the performance and use this diagnostic information to plan for other learning activities.

Conclusion

The five steps described above are not simply moved through once in sequential order. In second-language acquisition as in learning to play football, there is a continuous upward spiralling as students improve their skills. As students move from elementary to more advanced levels, they grow to understand more complex speech, to learn about more difficult structures, to acquire a more extensive vocabulary, to practice these new linguistic aspects in more challenging activities and more complex simulated conversational exchanges. Each of the steps, however, continues to play an important role and none should be omitted.

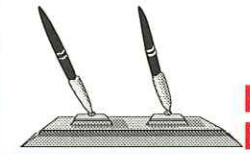
It is particularly important to recognize that scrimmage practice is meaningless unless the players demonstrate during practice that the running backs know how to hold the ball, that the quarterback can pass the ball with some degree of accuracy, and that the pass receivers know how to catch it. Similarly, it is the role of the language teacher not to engage students in Step 4 (Simulated Performance) activities until they demonstrate at Step 3 (Guided Practice) that they can pronounce the language so as to be understood by native speakers, and that they have a reasonable control of the vocabulary and structures with the role-play activity will require.

In conclusion, one might reflect on the respective roles of the teacher and the coach. The good coach is constantly asking for more demanding and more precise effort from the players, but both coach and players know that they are working together to perform well in the next game. The coach is task-master, judge and trainer, as well as facilitator and provider of encouragement and praise. The coach knows that player self-esteem is linked to a job well done, a game well played. Similarly, the effective teacher in a performance-based language program must maintain high expectations, provide appropriate practice activities, and also motivate students to want to express themselves well so that they, too, begin to view themselves as effective second-language speakers.

(Editor's Note: This text has been abridged and adapted from the opening chapter of the 1994 Northeast Conference Reports. Cf. Rebecca M. Valette, "Teaching, Testing, and Assessment:

Charles Hancock, ed., *Teaching, Testing, and Assessment: Making the Connection* (Lincolnwood Illinois: National Textbook Co., 1994), pp. 1-42.

Rebecca M. Valette is Professor of Romance Languages at Boston College. She is past President of the American Association of Teachers of French.



From the Editor's Desk

Acknowlegements

Mosaic wishes to acknowledge a genereous grant from the Honourable Sheila Finestone, Secretary of State for Multiculturalism and Status of Women, Government of Canada, for the dissemination and promotion of the journal. The grant has permitted us to do a massive mailing which yielded enthusiastic results. To-date, we have about 2,000 subscribers to *Mosaic*!

We are also grateful to more than a dozen Editors of Language Journals and Newsletters who, on receiving the complimentary copy of *Mosaic*, announced it and, in some cases, even "reviewed" it most favourably in their publications. Their collaboration has contributed to making our journal more widely known and we thank them.

– **Anthony Mollica**

The Answer to the Quiz...

From page 26: "How Do You Say Achoo?" by Michelle Webber

1. *achay:* Tinginyi
2. *achee:* Mandarin, Hindi, Cantonese, Mandarin, Vietnamese
3. *achoo:* English
4. *achoom:* Tamil
5. *achum:* French
6. *apchiha:* Croatian
7. *apchik:* Polish
8. *atsee:* Farsi
9. *chhink:* Gujarati
10. *chiha:* Spanish
11. *chingk:* Urdu
12. *hapzi:* Hungarian
13. *hindisoo:* Somalian
14. *zeeha:* Turkish

Japanese in the Elementary School: Description of an Innovative Pittsburgh Program

Janis Antonek, Richard Donato and G. Richard Tucker

A description of an innovative Japanese FLES program which was introduced two and a half years ago at the Laboratory School at the University of Pittsburgh.

Why Focus on FLES Programs in the U.S.?

By all accounts the United States is not a nation achieving the level of success in its foreign or second language teaching programs necessary to enable our students to compete effectively in the world of the 21st century. Typically, very few American students study any foreign language. Even fewer study any of the so-called less commonly taught non-cognate languages. Hopefuly actions taken during the last session of Congress will provide an impetus to foreign language study across all levels of the curriculum. Recent federal legislation, Goals 2000: [the] Educate America Act, calls for American students to leave Grades 4, 8, and 12 having

> demonstrated competence over challenging subject matter including English, mathematics, science, [and] foreign languages...

If this goal is to be realized, the number of foreign language programs at all levels will need to be significantly expanded and improved. This is particularly true at the elementary level (K-6) where it has been estimated that fewer than four per cent of American students study a foreign language (Rhodes and Oxford, 1988). By expanding foreign language instruction in the elementary school, students will be more likely to have an opportunity to reach the intermediate-low level of proficiency as called for in the draft National Standards for Foreign Language Education which are currently being developed colla-boratively by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, the American Association of Teachers of French, the American Association of Teachers of German, and the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese.

Although there is a relatively broad base of research that has been conducted on foreign language immersion programs, (see, for example, Lambert and Tucker, 1972, Swain and Lapkin, 1982, Genesee, 1987), there are relatively few published evaluations of well documented FLES programs (Foreign Language in the Elementary School) in the United States. In this report, we describe the implementation and continuing documentation of a Japanese FLES program in an elementary school in Pittsburgh, Pennyslvania.

The Japanese Program at Falk School

After considerable study and discussion involving parents, teachers, the principal, and university specialists during the summer of 1992, the Executive Committee of the Falk School - the laboratory school of the University of Pittsburgh, voted to authorize and provide some modest funding for an initial three-year compulsory program in Japanese for all children in Kindergarten through Grade 5. The school had not previously offered a FLES program, nor had it offered Japanese instruction at any level. The establishment of this Japanese FLES program at the Falk School has offered a rich opportunity for innovative curriculum development, in-service education, formative and summative evaluation, and parental and community outreach.

Curriculum and Materials

The Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) program which is now in its third year consists of one 15-minute lesson each day, five days per week, for every student from Kindergarten through Grade 5. The first teacher (Ms. Mari Cato O'Connell) worked with Donato during the summer of 1992 to develop the "Scope and Sequence" for the course which focuses on helping students to develop communicative language proficiency in Japanese.[1] The template that they used for curriculum development follows the ACTFL proficiency guidelines which we believe adds to the generalizability of the program.

Observations by the teacher and a student researcher during the first year had revealed that students had strong listening comprehension skills, but that their production was limited primarily to word or phrase-level utterances, often formulaic in nature.

The curriculum reflects a proficiency orientation with attempts at content-enrichment where appropriate.[2] Each lesson or set of lessons designed by the teacher focused on thematic vocabulary presented within a context, a language function associated with the context, and some attention to the grammatical or syntactic structure necessary for carrying out the specified function (Omaggio Hadley, 1993). During the first year of the program (1992-1993), lessons also emphasized listening comprehension or receptive skills more than the productive skills although students were not discouraged from using the language when production arose spontaneously in class, as is often observed among young children learning a new language. During the first year, children received significant amounts of Japanese input from their teacher - their only source of input - and were systematically required to demonstrate comprehension through a number of Total Physical Response activities. Production, although not neglected, was not deemed as central to the children's initial contact with Japanese. When speaking was the objective of a lesson, production was limited to new lexical items, formulaic expressions for carrying out functional objectives (e.g., greeting, leave taking, stating one's address or age), or some creative, personalized responses (e.g., "What's your favourite colour? What's your favourite food?")

Observations by the teacher and a student researcher during the first year had revealed that students had strong listening comprehension skills, but that their production was limited primarily to word or phrase-level utterances, often formulaic in nature.3 The second-year curriculum for children was therefore designed to build upon themes and functions from the first year with increased opportunities for student extended language production. Thus, the inclusion of role and drama activities, games, and personalized questions represented an attempt at enabling the children to go beyond listening comprehension to more productive and creative language use. Culture also played a significantly greater role in the second-year curriculum. The teacher invoked cultural themes more frequently in Year 2 as a basis for the introduction of new vocabulary (e.g., learning about a Japanese home when learning words for rooms of a house). Thematic vocabulary introduced in Year 1 was maintained in Year 2, but amplified and elaborated upon in the second-year curriculum. This vocabulary was also used more productively than during the previous year, and students were expected to demonstrate comprehension and production of new lexical items in classroom speaking activities.

Based on the findings of the first-year parent survey, we also decided to initiate a series of interactive parent-child homework assignments. Parents reported that they wanted more information about the JFL curriculum and about the learning activities of their children. Homework packets were devised to familiarize parents with vocabulary and cultural topics introduced in class. Each interactive assignment included a short activity to be carried out by parent and child such as counting, identifying colors, simple role plays, or vocabulary practice, to name a few. Parents were also provided with phonetic keys to assist them in pronouncing the Japanese words used in the assignment. The initial reaction to the interactive homework assignments was that they were too lengthy to complete, and that often the children would become frustrated with material they had not yet entirely mastered. To remedy this situation, the assignments were shortened, after which parental response improved dramatically.

Program Documentation

Beginning in late spring 1993, near the end of the first school year, we began what has become a long term multi-faceted project to document the implementation of the program and the progress of the pupils from multiple perspectives. In general, our plan has involved undertaking activities which will permit us to:

- Describe the school ambiance within which the program has been implemented and currently operates.
- Describe the Japanese program and its implementation.
- Conduct a longitudinal assessment of Japanese language development with a randomly selected sample of students who have participated in the program.
- Describe the attitudes and views of students, parents and teachers toward the program.

In order to carry out this documentation, we developed or adapted a variety of instruments or techniques (see also Donato, Antonek and Tucker, 1994; Tucker, Donato and Antonek, 1994) which we used to collect information in May 1993 and again in May 1994.

Oral Interviews

From the approximately 195 participating students, we randomly selected pupils from the eight classrooms (two boys and two girls from each class) to participate in individual oral interviews. We refer to these pupils as "target" or "sample" children in contrast to the remaining students whom we refer to as the "population" children. Each of the

target students was interviewed by a native speaker of Japanese following a standard pretested protocol which we have called a Prochievement Interview (or Pro-I). In the Pro-I a variety of tasks is used to elicit samples of Japanese from the student (e.g., general greetings, describing or answering questions about a picture of a familiar household scene, a set of grammaticality judgments in which the child has to choose which of two Japanese alternatives "sounded better," several sentence-selection tasks, and a set of elicited repetition items which gradually become longer and more complex.
For example repeating:
apple,
red apple,
red apple on the table,
red apple on the brown table,
the red apple is on the brown table in the living room.
The interview concludes with a wrap-up session in which the child is asked to name as many of the objects from the picture as possible, and to count from one to ten. Interview sessions (which were video-recorded) lasted from 12 to 15 minutes. Another native-speaker observer assessed the child's performance using a "Student Observation Form" (SOF), adapted from the Student Oral Language Observation Matrix. With this form, the observer rates the speech of each child along a five-point scale on a set of five scales - one each for Comprehension, Fluency, Vocabulary, Pronunciation, and Grammar. At the conclusion of the Pro-I, the observer also assigned a "global" rating (e.g., novice-low, intermediate-mid, etc.) to each of the children guided by the ACTFL oral proficiency rating scale.

Japanese Vocabulary

ll pupils completed a 20-item Japanese-language adaptation of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Dunn, 1959) which we refer to as the Japanese Picture Vocabulary Test (JPVT).[4] Pupils received a 22-page booklet consisting of cover sheet, practice trial, and 20 test items. For the practice trial and the 20 test items, four pictures appeared on each sheet. The test administrator, after presenting the directions to the children in English, identified the number of the item and then twice read aloud the "target" item. The children indicated their choice, from among the four alternatives, by placing a mark somewhere over the named picture. The score is the number correct out of 20. This task was added to the testing battery during spring 1994.

Teacher's Assessment of Language Development

In addition, the Japanese teacher was asked to rate the language ability of all of the children individually using the same five scales described above from the "Student Observation Form."

Learner Questionnaires

All pupils completed an age-appropriate "Language and Culture Questionnaire" (adapted from work by Gardner and Smythe, 1981) in which they were asked to provide information about topics such as their attitudes toward school in general and the study of Japanese in particular, their perceptions of their parents' encouragement to study Japanese, and the importance of studying Japanese. The questionnaires for the K-2 pupils contained 10 questions, each of which was responded to along a four-point picture rating scale. The questionnaires for the Grade 3-5 pupils contained 17 questions using a four-point scale for responding which ranged from "agree a lot" to "disagree a lot."

Parent Questionnaires

Parents were asked to complete a 25-item questionnaire designed to collect basic information about topics such as previous language study, their encouragement of their child's study, their awareness of their child's progress, their support for the program through their completion of a series of interactive homework assignments, and their satisfaction with the program.

The Japanese Teacher

A protocol was developed for the Japanese teacher to complete at the end of each year. She was asked to reflect on her experiences during the second year of the program in relationship to those of the first with respect to her teaching, her students, the parents, her relationship with other teachers in the school, and the relationship of the Japanese program to the school.

Other Falk Teachers

A 10-item questionnaire was developed for the other primary teachers in the school to collect information about their own language study, their contact with the pupils and the program, their feelings about the program and their pupils' reactions to it, ways in which they integrated material from the program into their own content classes, and their recommendations, if any, for continuation of the program in future years.

Summary of Findings

In the section to follow, we present a brief synthesis of the results from the assessments carried out to date.

Japanese Picture Vocabulary Test

Students, in general, performed well on the JPVT answering about 65% of the items correctly (X= 13.68, SD= 2.37). Interestingly the females (X= 14.26, SD= 1.75) performed significantly better (t= 2.24, p.05) than the males (X= 13.53, SD= 2.59) although the absolute difference was small. There was no difference in the performance of the younger versus the older students. An item analysis revealed that 17 of the 20 items discriminated positively between those students who performed best on the test and those who performed most poorly.

Oral Interviews

Each of the "target" children was assigned a composite Pro-I rating using the ACTFL guidelines. The profile which emerged for the children was a very positive one which indicated substantial growth when the pattern of ratings from this year was compared with that from the Year 1 testing. At the end of Year 2, two of the children received ratings in the Intermediate range while none had been that favorably rated in the first year. In contrast, 17 of the children had been rated in the Novice-Low (or lower) range in Year 1 while only 7 were placed in the Novice-Low range in Year 2).

Discourse analysis of a subset of the sample of children interviewed revealed that the focused WH-question task (who, what, when, where, why) and sentence selection task consistently captured differences and discriminated very well among proficiency levels. It was also found that children tended to omit particle markers from their speech, but when particles did appear in their sentences, they were rarely misused or inaccurate. At the end of our second year of assessing the oral proficiency of these FLES children, we are encouraged by their ever increasing linguistic ability. The majority of children appear to be following rudimentary rules of Japanese syntax, are beginning to initiate their own utterances beyond the word-level, and are developing the ability to engage in unplanned, extended discourse about their personal feelings and reactions.

The "target" students were also rated each year by the interviewers using the Student Observation Form (SOF). With this evaluation, a score of 5 represents the highest possible evaluation, and 1 the lowest. The students were consistently rated most favourably on their pronunciation (X=3.35 in Year 1 and X=3.11 in Year 2) which is not surprising since the sound system of Japanese is quite similar to that of English. They were rated next most positively on knowledge of Japanese vocabulary, general comprehension, and fluency. Again, these findings are consistent with the general curricular focus of the program. Their grasp of grammar was rated least positively in both Year 1 (X=1.71) and in Year 2 (X= 2.24) which is once again consistent with the content of the program.

Student and parent reactions

All students were surveyed in class while parents completed and returned a questionnaire by mail that was sent home to them. In general, the students and their parents reacted positively toward the JFL program, and toward the study of a foreign language in general and Japanese in particular. Furthermore both groups indicated that they hoped that the Japanese program would continue. Parents were quite consistent in their feelings about the desirability of continuing the program. Seventy-three percent reported that they wanted the program to continue in the primary school. This feeling was evident in a number of the open-ended responses.

"Children have begun Japanese -not to continue would be foolish."

"I think it is an innovative and timely move to teach Japanese and very good for kids growing up in this era."

When the parents were asked what they hoped their child would gain from the program, a majority of them ranked "enjoyment of learning a language" as their number one objective. Similarly, a majority ranked "cultural knowledge" as the second most important outcome. "I think language instruction serves to increase cultural awareness and broadens kids' horizons and decreases cultural prejudice." A large majority of the parents also endorsed continuing the practice begun during the second year of assigning regular interactive homework.

"It seems that what we do at home has a big influence on learning. Ideally we would learn Japanese along with [our child] but that's not going to happen. Therefore the homework sheets are the vital link that can let us know what is happening and let us help, even if only a little. I found the cultural information to be fascinating, for example, how Japanese use their fingers to count and which finger they use to point to themselves."

Another parent noted, "My child does seem to be showing much mastery as demonstrated by the take home work sheets." Clearly, parents have thought about the program, their children's participation, and what exactly it is feasible to accomplish during a relatively limited amount of time (i.e., 15 minutes per day).

Classroom teachers' reactions

A majority of the regular classroom teachers (eight of the nine) indicated that their students had not experienced any difficulties in other subjects attributable to their study of Japanese. Likewise a majority (seven of the nine) stated that their students seemed to like the Japanese classes. One of the continuing teachers noted that the children seemed to participate more actively in the program in the second year than they had during the first. In response to a question concerning whether the program should continue, four said "yes" while four others indicated that it would be a good idea to wait until the results of this assessment were available. Thus, in summary, the responses by the teachers were generally positive. There seemed to have been more of an attempt by some teachers to integrate material from Japan and from the Japanese classes into their "regular" classes during the second year than there had been in the first, and there seemed to be a widespread perception that the children genuinely enjoyed their Japanese classes.

Japanese teacher's reactions

The JFL teacher was asked to reflect on her teaching, student progress to date, differences between Year 1 and Year 2, and the advice she would give to an incoming FLES teacher. Three themes emerged in the narrative comments of the teacher:

1. her professional growth and development as a novice teacher
2. the importance of external influences that impact on student learning, and
3. the JFL program and its relationship to Falk School.

The teacher characterized her second year experience as "easier, more comfortable, and more familiar." She claimed to know the students, school, and teachers better. She found that instruction was easier because of the material she developed in Year 1, and that having her own office space was a "great change." She also revealed that she was learning to attend to individual differences among students concerning their attitudes and how they interact with others in class. The theme of "individual difference" is reiterated in her comments about the students when she asserted that she now can see "differences between students who were learning quickly and those who were withdrawing from learning Japanese."

She reported feeling more confident in her teaching and in her ability to assess student classroom behavior. She exhibited this confidence and sense of satisfaction with

her work in her observation that students "were able to put more than one word together to construct simple sentences. It seemed that they got the feel of Japanese." She was also able to construct activities that promoted language production (role plays) and student interaction and felt that these activities were among the most enjoyable in the class. She also noted that "students seemed to retain or retrieve a lot of Japanese from the previous year with little review." Overall, then, the composite picture that emerged is quite a positive one.

Conclusion

This brief report has described an innovative Japanese FLES program which was introduced two and a half years ago at the Laboratory School at the University of Pittsburgh. We believe that the children have, thus far, demonstrated notable progress in developing a set of building blocks in Japanese - particularly in their control of the receptive skills. Furthermore, they and their parents appear to appreciate the program, enjoy the study of Japanese, and express the desire to continue their study of Japanese. These are all positive indicators which augur well for the continued success of the program.

We hope that our continuing research with these children, their parents, and their teachers, will help to raise the awareness of parents, educators, and policy makers about the many ways in which carefully designed and well implemented FLES programs can contribute to the development of second language proficiency and cross cultural awareness and understanding on the part of the large proportion of American youngsters - a majority of whom will never have the opportunity to participate in more intensive immersion programs or developmental bilingual education programs.

In our work to date, we have been struck by a number of general observations which we believe are relevant for all concerned with the implementation of FLES programs.

- First, there is a pressing need for FLES materials in all languages, but especially for the non-cognate less commonly taught languages.
- Second, there is a need for reliable, valid, and user-friendly instruments for assessing the development of foreign language skills for young students. Appropriate materials are scarce enough for students at the secondary school level; at the elementary level they are virtually non-existent.
- Third, the implementation of sucessful FLES programs calls attention to the importance of articulation -that is, of assuring that students have the opportunity to move as seamlessly as possible from one level of study to the next.*

* The preparation of this report was supported in part by a grant from the U.S. Department of Education to G. R. Tucker and R. Donato, and in part by the Department of Modern Languages at Carnegie Mellon University and the Department of Instruction and Learning at the University of Pittsburgh.

Notes

1. Ms. O'Connell taught during the first two years of the program until her family relocated to Mexico at which time she was replaced by the current teacher Ms. Yoko Morimoto.
2. The issue of content-enrichment requires additional investigation. During the first year of an innovative FLES program and in the presence of a dynamically emerging understanding of the role of foreign language in the elementary school curriculum, expectations for systematic integration of subject area content into the foreign language curriculum may be overly optimistic.
3. This observation is not surprising given the emphasis of the first year curriculum on listening com-prehension and the learning of certain fixed expressions necessary for carrying out novice level language functions.
4. The vocabulary items tested were: bus, hand, bed, cow, knee, airplane, earring, square, waking up, arrow, book, hippo, parachute, vegetable, shoulder, many, camera, person, eyebrow, island.

References

Donato, R., J. Antonek, and G.R. Tucker. (1994). "A multiple perspectives analysis of a Japanese FLES program." *Foreign Language Annals.* 27, 365-378.

Dunn, L. M. (1959). *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test.* Nashville, TN: American Guidance Service.

Gardner, R. C. and P.C. Smythe. (1981). "On the development of the attitude/motivation test battery." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des languages vivantes,* 37, 510-525.

Genesee, F. (1987). *Learning through two languages: Studies of immersion and bilingual education.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Lambert, W. E. and G.R. Tucker. (1972). *The bilingual education of children.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Omaggio Hadley, A. (1993). *Teaching language in context.* 2nd ed. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.

Rhodes, N. C. and R. Oxford. (1988.) "Foreign languages in elementary and secondary schools: Results of a national survey." *Foreign Language Annals.* 21, 1, 51-69.

Swain, M. and S. Lapkin. (1982). *Evaluating bilingual education: A Canadian case study.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Tucker, G. R., R. Donato and J. Antonek. (1994). "Documenting an exemplary Japanese FLES program: In pursuit of Goals 2000." Unpublished research report. Carnegie Mellon University/ University of Pittsburgh.

Janis Antonek is a Doctoral candidate in Foreign Language Education at the University of Pittsburgh.
Richard Donato is Associate Professor of Foreign Language Education in the School of Educationat the University of Pittsburgh.
G. Richard Tucker is Professor of Applied Linguistics at Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh, PA.

Planning for Effective Teaching: The Unit Plan

Cher Evans Harvey

Unit planning provides a visual blueprint of what one wants to teach, but what exactly is a unit plan and what makes it good? This article offers language teachers a framework for effective unit planning.

Definition

To many teachers, careful unit planning lies at the root of their success in teaching. Unit planning can be one of the most exciting and rewarding parts of teaching since it demands the ability to relate societal and professional values to knowledge of the learner, knowledge of the subject matter and knowledge of teaching methods (Borich 1988:56). One of the greatest rewards of teaching is to see the students actively participating, experiencing success, inspired and motivated to continue learning - excited by an interesting unit of work.

What exactly is a unit plan? What makes it good? Borich (1988:113) describes unit planning as creating a diagram or visual blueprint of what one wants to teach. Unit planning is a process wherein teachers select, organize, order, evaluate and revise both what they teach and how they teach it.

Effective language teaching requires three types of planning:

- long range planning
- unit planning
- and lesson planning.

The long range plans are organized before school starts. They provide the outline of a course of study for the whole year or semester. The goals, content and evaluation relate directly to what is cited in curriculum documents of the state, province or board. The course is generally broken down into sequenced units of work which last from three to five weeks. Each unit is a whole unto itself, but the units are usually sequenced from simple to complex within the year or semester and are inter-related. The unit plan gives direction to the daily lesson plans, assuring that there is a connection between the objectives/outcomes, content, and evaluation of individual lessons and those of the unit and the course as a whole.

What do language teachers have to know to create effective unit plans? There are four main areas:

1. societal and professional values
2. knowledge of the learner
3. knowledge of the subject matter and
4. knowledge of teaching methods.

1. Societal and Professional Values

Knowledge of the societal and professional values is found in the curriculum guidelines of the country, state or province. There are usually a few broad documents that guide general education and, within that framework, guidelines related specifically to second language education provide direction for language teachers.

2. Knowledge of the Learner

Knowledge of the learner is a key factor in motivating the students to communicate in their second language. Within the classroom context, teachers would have to have an in-depth knowledge of the student needs, interests, aspirations, learning styles, and linguistic background.

1. To be aware of needs, teachers would have to be familiar with the stages of intellectual, social, emotional and physical development of the students.
2. To be aware of interests, they would have to observe children, ask the students what their interests are or distribute interest inventories. For example, junior level teachers could create an effective unit based on the underlying concept of communication, buying and selling, using hockey as the theme because children are extremely interested in buying and selling hockey cards. By organizing units based on the life experiences of the students, the second language becomes more natural and meaningful. Another way to provide interesting units is to integrate the second language unit with the units being learned in the mother tongue.
3. Knowledge of the students' aspirations would also create a motivating context for learning. A unit on ordering food and communicating in a restaurant becomes more pertinent if the students want to go to a restaurant in the target culture or participate in an exchange.
4. Knowledge of the students' learning styles, auditory, visual or kinesthetic, allows the teacher to choose resources and strategies appropriate for the learners.
5. Knowledge of the students' linguistic abilities, including maternal language, schooling (the type of language program they have been exposed to) and cultural background also helps teachers choose appropriate material.

3. Knowledge of Subject Matter

The National Core French Study, conducted in Canada to strengthen the Core French program, provides all second-language teachers with a framework for organizing content. It proposes a multidimensional curriculum centering on four areas of content: language, culture, general language education and communicative/experiential activities.

1. The language syllabus consists of the main elements of language to which learners should be exposed in order to help them communicate. If language is viewed as a means of communication, the concepts to be learned will be language functions. The communication skills include listening, speaking, reading and writing,

with a focus on students' productive skills (oral and written communication). Rather than organizing the unit around a grammatical structure, the teacher would first determine the communicative concept or language function, then determine the vocabulary and structures needed to develop the students' ability to communicate. The learners "should be exposed to a wide variety of vocabulary and grammatical forms which they use in context in meaningful communicative tasks" (Poyen, 1990:2).

2. Culture, as defined by Pierre Trescases, (cited in Poyen, 1990:3) is "the general context and way of life of a group of people. It is the behaviours and beliefs of a community of people whose history, geography, institutions and commonalties are distinct and distinguish them to a greater or lesser degree from all other groups." The cultural content would give the learners a sense of contemporary life in the target culture and the issues the people care about.
3. General language education will focus on "encouraging and facilitating reflection on and generalizations about language, culture, and language learning strategy." Developing awareness in these areas contributes generally to the overall development of the student and specifically to the language learning process (Poyen, 1990:4).
4. The communicative/experiential syllabus provides interesting themes for students to explore and discuss. Tremblay and colleagues, (Poyen, 1990:3) suggest that drawing themes from five overall fields of experience: physical, social, civil, leisure and intellectual will provide meaningful contexts for language learning. Not only will drawing themes from these fields of experience motivate students, it will add to the students' general education.

4. Knowledge of Teaching Methods

Because the whole area of teaching methods is so vast, the focus in this article will be on the unit plan itself. Most methodology teachers should agree that the organizing framework would include objectives/outcomes, teaching strategies, resources and evaluation.

Objectives/Outcomes

Learning can be organized according either to objectives, which describe the intended learning, or to outcomes, which describe demonstrated learning. There are three domains of instruction to be considered: cognitive, affective and psychomotor.

A. Cognitive

The cognitive objectives/outcomes deal with knowledge about things and the intellectual skill of how to do things. Benjamin Bloom created a hierarchy of thinking skills known as Bloom's Taxonomy which classifies cognitive behaviours into six categories ranging from simple to complex. The following chart describes the levels and the characteristic student behaviours which are key elements to be considered when organizing a unit of work. The methodological approach suggested by the National Core French Study, that of pre-activity, activity and post-activity, have been positioned with the levels of Bloom's Taxonomy (See Chart below).

B. Affective

Affective objectives/outcomes involve the development of students' feelings, attitudes, values and emotions. Since the overall focus of the affective taxonomy is the development of attitudes and values, this domain often includes attitudinal, cultural and collaborative learning objectives and outcomes.

C. Psychomotor

The area of the curriculum that deals with the development of physcial skills and abilities is known as the psychomotor domain. In language learning, objectives/outcomes for fine motor skills may include pronunciation, whereas large motor skills might involve learning a dance or game in the target language.

Strategies

A teaching strategy can be thought of as a set of actions to be taken to ensure that the learner attains the objective or demonstrates the outcome. When grouping students for learning activities, teachers should consider large group instruction, small groups, partner groupings and individual work. Language teachers should focus on "interaction among students working in small groups. With this approach, the learners become more active and more responsible for their own learning"

Methodology for second languages	Six Major Levels of Bloom's Taxonomy Level: Characteristic Student Behaviours
Pre-activity	*Knowledge:* Remembering; memorizing; recognizing; recalling *Comprehension:* Interpreting; translating from one medium to another; describing in one's own words
Activity	*Application:* Problem-solving; applying information to produce some result *Analysis:* Subdividing something to show how it is put together; finding the underlying structure of a communication; identifying motives
Post-activity	*Synthesis:* Creating a unique, original product that may be in verbal form or may be a physical object *Evaluation:* Making value decisions about issues, resolving controversies or differences of opinion (Orlich, 1990:99)

(Poyen, 1990:5). Strategies are numerous and varied but might include demonstration, inquiry, research, language games, role-playing, simulation, and presentations. The learning process is divided into three stages: the pre-activity, the activity, and the post-activity. It is hoped that students will apply their learning to a new task which could be a project, planning an event, entering a competition or preparing a message with an authentic purpose.

Resources

There are three types of resources available: print, technological and human. In language teaching it is important to use authentic resources as much as possible. Printed resources include commercial programs, newspapers, books, magazines, pamphlets, menus, photos, and posters. Technological resources include radio, television, tape recorders, video recorders, computers, and communication systems. Human resources within the classroom include parent volunteers, classroom assistants and invited guests. Outside the classroom, students will have the opportunity to meet native speakers through independent studies, visits and exchanges.

Evaluation

Evaluation should be an integral part of language teaching methodology, directly related to the objectives or outcomes, the strategies and the resources. Guidelines for evaluation come directly from curriculum documents of the state, province or board. Familiarity with the report card is essential. Teachers should consider three major types of evaluation: diagnostic, formative and summative. Formative and summative evaluation should be in every unit, while diagnostic evaluation would only be included if appropriate. The National Core French Study outlined "three broad categories of assessment: language tests; observation and record keeping; and, self-report evaluation techniques. Teachers have a wide variety of evaluation techniques from which to choose. Included under language tests are: close-ended formats, open-ended formats; cloze tests; role-playing; information gap tasks; and, editing tasks. Under observation and record-keeping are: checklists; observation grids, completion of assignments; participation; and, folders of written work and audiotape recordings. Included in self-report evaluation techniques are scales; journals; diaries; student-teacher conferences; role-playing and simulation." (Poyen, 1990:6) Since the emphasis of most language programs is on communicative competence, this should be reflected in evaluation techniques that test oral and written communicative competency.

Thinking of all the components of a unit plan may be simplified by a schematic outline. The plan should be organized horizontally so that for each objective/outcome, the teaching strategies, resources and evaluation are easily identified. A framework is provided below.

Unit Outline			
Unit title:	Grade:	Subject:	Time frame:
Objectives/ Outcomes	**Teaching Strategies**	**Resources**	**Evaluation**
1. Cognitive 2. Affective 3. Psycho-motor	1. Teacher-directed • lecture • demonstraion • drill/practice • programmed instruction 2. Teacher/student • discussion • research • inquiry • critical thinking 3. Student-centred • role playing • simulation • self-managed • cooperative learning • independent projects • creative thinking	1. Print 2. Technological 3. Human	1. Formative 2. Summative 3. Diagnostic (if needed)

Conclusion

Unit planning can be exciting and interesting because it is at the very heart of teaching. Perhaps you too will discover that strong unit planning is the key to your success as an effective language teacher!

References

Borich, Gary D. 1988. *Effective Teaching Methods.* Toronto: Merrill.

Poyen, Janet. 1990. "National Core French Study Summary Report." *Canadian Association of Second Language Teachers Bulletin.* Winnipeg: CASLT

Orlich, Donald C. *et al.* 1990. *Teaching Strategies.* Third Edition. Toronto: D.C. Health.

Cher Evans-Harvey is Assistant Professor, Faculty of Education, Nipissing University, where she teaches courses in methodology for French as a second language.

Games and Puzzles in the Second-Language Classroom: A Second Look

Marcel Danesi and Anthony Mollica

Introduction

The posing and solving of puzzles, conundrums, rebuses, riddles, and the like is as old as history itself. The first surviving "think-of-a-number" puzzle dates back to an Egyptian papyrus written around 1650 BC (Wells 1992: 1). The oldest book of games in existence, known as the *Libro de juegos,* was commissioned more than 700 years ago by King Alfonso X of Castile and Leon (Mohr 1993: 11). It contains clear descriptions of how to play chess, checkers, and various card and board games. The antiquity of the puzzling instinct in human beings shows that it is a fundamental feature of the human mind. And the widespread popularity of puzzle magazines, puzzle sections in newspapers, puzzle books, TV quiz shows, game tournaments in chess, checkers, cards, etc., reveals that puzzles and games are alive and well in the contemporary human mind.

Puzzleology, to coin a term for the field that deals with the study of puzzles and games in human cultures, has enjoyed a long-standing role in the educational domain, where games, problem-solving tasks, and puzzle techniques have been the standard fare in the curricula of many school subjects for a long time. As puzzleologist James Fixx (1978: 18) once wrote, the reason for this is, no doubt, because "puzzles not only bring us pleasure but also help us to work and learn more effectively." In the area of second-language teaching, puzzleological techniques such as crosswords, word searches, scrambled words, simulations, interactive games, board games, etc. have now become intrinsic components of many approaches, and the choice of many teachers, as formats for students to review and reinforce grammar, vocabulary, and communication skills. Puzzleological activities have become such common features of commercially-available textual materials, and the topic of discussion of virtually every teacher-training seminar, that it would be impossible today to think of second-language teaching without them. They are now seen to be highly versatile techniques that serve both specific discrete-point learning tasks *(reinforcing structural and lexical knowledge)* and more interactive ones *(communication and functionality).* But it was not that long ago that the injection of this fun element in second-language teaching would have been considered a frivolous waste of time by the teaching profession. And even in today's more accepting climate, puzzleological techniques are viewed as tangential, or at best supplementary, to more mainstream techniques.

The most memory-emhancing way in which humans develop concepts, from infancy to adolescence, is through some form of recreational mental play. While the specific characteristics of such mental gymnastics might vary somewhat from culture to culture, the need to solve problems constitutes a cognitive, cross-cultural universal.

Our purpose in this essay is to revisit puzzleology in second-language teaching, in order to give the teacher an overview of what the most relevant facts on file are *vis-à-vis* their incorporation into classroom instruction and to provide an elementary typology of puzzleological techniques for the teacher interested in incorporating them in his/her language classes.

Puzzleological Techniques and Second-Language Learning

The experimental literature dealing with the learning-efficacy of puzzleological techniques is not extensive. Outside of a few scattered attempts to assess their validity and to develop a psychologically-appropriate typology for their instructional utilization, very little has been done in the way of giving this topic a thorough empirical treatment (e.g., Omaggio 1978, 1982, Mollica 1979, 1981, Wright, Betteridge and Buckby 1979, Danesi 1979, Webster and Castonon 1980, 1985a, 1987, 1981, Rixon 1981, Rodgers 1981, Jones 1982, 1986, Palmer and Rodgers 1983, Crookall 1985, Crookall, Greenblat, Cooke, Klabbers, and Watsin 1987, Crookall and Oxford 1988, Crookall and Saunders 1989, Cicogna, Danesi, and Mollica 1992). Two clear facts have emerged from the literature.

- The sketchy experimental evidence that does exist has generally shown such techniques to be supportive of language learning processes.
- For such techniques to be effective, they must be designed with specific instructional/learning objectives in mind.

The empirical work of Rodgers (1981), Palmer and Rodgers (1983), and a few others (see the studies in Crookall 1985, Crookall, Greenblat, Coote, Klabbers, and Watson 1987, Crookall and Oxford 1988, and Crookall and Saunders 1989) has shown, by and large, that games are effective learning-enhancers, but that they raise several critical questions which, to the best of our knowledge, have not as yet been addressed. So, from a purely research and learning theory perspective, the general indication would seem to be that the basis for using puzzleological techniques to complement, supplement, or even completely shape the second-language teaching process is psychologically sound. Recently, Sandra Savignon (1992) has observed that such techniques have become favourites of communicative methodologists precisely because they serve the elusive goal of meaning negotiation.

But perhaps the greatest support for puzzleological techniques in second-language teaching is anecdotal evidence and common sense. The general research in educational psychology, the corpus of case studies of learners, the everyday observations of school teachers, and the common perceptions of anyone in daily contact with children and adolescents point collectively to what appears to be a fundamental requirement of learning: namely that the most memory-enhancing way in which humans develop concepts, from infancy to adolescence, is through some form of recreational mental play. While the specific characteristics of such mental gymnastics might vary somewhat from culture to culture, the need to solve problems constitutes a cognitive, cross-cultural universal. It would seem, therefore, that the logical question for second-language teaching is not whether or not to include puzzleological techniques into its repertory of instructional options, but rather how best to tap the natural tendency to solve problems in an instructionally-meaningful way. Rodgers (1981) has shown how this can be done by highlighting five properties of puzzleological techniques that are reflective of current-day practices in second-language teaching. In our view, these properties explain why they are easily insertable into the frameworks of most contemporary proficiency-oriented approaches to second-language teaching:

1. **They are competitive.**
2. **They are rule-governed** (i.e. they have a limited numbers of specific and clearly-defined rules).
3. **They are goal-defined.**
4. **They have closure** (i.e. there is a specific point at which a puzzle is solved or a game is finished).
5. **They are engaging,** in that they constantly seem to challenge the participants.

So, it would seem that puzzleological techniques are ancillary activities that can be easily used in combination with other kinds of instructional activities in. the framework of some broader methodological blueprint for second-language teaching. Rarely has anyone ventured to design a syllabus, or teaching system, aimed at making the whole second-language teaching process puzzleological in orientation. One of the few to have done so, as reported in his Ph.D. dissertation of 1992, is Mark Miller of the University of Delaware. Miller designed an entire syllabus and instructional system based on interactive game-playing. Adopting the usual experimental-statistical approach of a controlled study, he found his game-playing design to be an effective means of imparting both linguistic and communicative competence to university language students, while at the same time allowing for the maintenance of a high level of interest and motivation in the course. While this was designed only as a pilot study, it nonetheless endorses what the previous literature has been documenting in bits and pieces.

From a purely research and learning theory perspective, the general indication would seem to be that the basis for using puzzleological techniques to complement, supplement, or even completely shape the second-language teaching process is psychologically sound.

Play vs. Game

Given the paucity of so-called hard evidence in favour of the learning-efficacy of puzzleological techniques in second-language teaching, it is perhaps useful to cast a quick glance at what psychologists have to say about the use of play, problem-solving, and games in education generally. While the meaning of the word play is certainly intuitively obvious, it turns out to be a rather difficult one to define formally. It is perhaps most useful to think of play as a kind of innate and unreflective form of psycho-motor behaviour that allows children to interact in a meaningful way both with their environment and with others. It manifests itself across cultures primarily as a form of physical involvement with people and things, invariably stimulating affective and experiential responses that lead progressively to the build-up and coding of knowledge. As Munzert (1991: 37) point out:

> Infants learn through exploration of the physical world by random movement, crawling, touching, and coming into direct contact with people and objects in the environment.

Culturally-structured or routinized forms of play are the games that children learn from their peers, older children, or adults in a participatory way. Spontaneous playing behaviours can occur within or outside of games. But a game always enlists some form of the play instinct. The essential requirement of a game is that it have a structure or a clearly-predictable format within which the play instinct can operate. For educational purposes one can refer to game-playing in classroom settings as a pedagogically-designed system for imparting knowledge or skill based on playing. (For a comprehensive treatment of the positive effect of games on cognitive development see, for example, Loftus and Loftus 1983).

Cognitively, game-playing invariably involves the deployment of problem-solving strategies. The goal, or end-state, of any game constitutes a problem that the child/adolescent must attempt to solve within the format of the game. This forces the learner to go from a random, experiential form of thinking to a more organized and representational one shaped by the structural elements of the game format. As Lesgold (1988: 190) observes, in order to solve a problem, the person must know what steps are possible and "how to represent the problem."

The solution path that the student discovers can be said to result from a creative strategy because the learner must use the given elements of the game to locate the path. Creativity can thus be constrained for the present purposes to mean the ability to arrange the given elements of a game or a puzzle in ways that bring about a solution to the problem posed by a game or puzzle. The arrangements will vary from individual to individual; but they will do so within the limits defined by the structural elements of the game or puzzle. Thus, unlike most popular

notions of the term, creativity in game-playing or puzzle-solving involves the utilization of structures within a pre-established format. It is in coming up with the solution path that the learner is forced to explore alternative and innovative ways to use the structures to access the end-state. In this sense, therefore, it can be argued that puzzle-solving and game-playing are effective means for channelling the student's innate tendency to be creative towards some specific learning goal. As Munzert (1991: 63) has aptly remarked, creativity is an educationally-meaningful notion only if it "involves a sense of purpose coupled with action." This means that the creative act "requires that emerging ideas and thoughts be organized into new or different patterns from their previous organization" (see also Perkins 1988 for empirical studies on problem-solving creativity as purposeful behaviour; and Gowan, Khatena and Torrance 1981 for a comprehensive treatment of the associated educational implications).

Puzzle-solving and game-playing are effective means for channelling the student's innate tendency to be creative towards some specific learning goal.

Arguing from this general research base, it can be hypothesized that puzzleological techniques are effective insofar as they allow the students to come up creatively with solutions to a specific problem posed. It is in formalizing each solution through the medium of language that the students come to acquire the conceptual domains underlying the puzzle or game in terms of the language structures that express them.

It is clearly beyond the scope of the present review essay to go any further into the details of the psychology of problem-solving and game-playing and of its supporting empirical base. Suffice it to say here that it can be used to understand why puzzleological techniques constantly manifest themselves as learning-enhancing activities in second-language teaching. Extrapolating from all the discussions, anecdotal experiences, and the studies that do exist on puzzleological and game-playing techniques, the following general findings, terminological clarifications, and *caveats* can now be brought to the reader's attention:

- It has been found necessary to distinguish between language teaching puzzles and language teaching games, since the former are problem-solving texts that require the individual learner to come up with a solution within the framework of the text, while the latter involve problem-solving activities involving group interaction, and therefore are more focused on contextual parameters.
- The effectiveness of language-teaching puzzles has, to the best of our knowledge, rarely, if ever, been studied experimentally. The anecdotal evidence, however, portrays them as useful primarily as control, reinforcement, and review techniques (e.g. Mollica 1981, 1992b, Danesi 1985a, Nuessel 1994).
- The research on language-teaching games (e.g. Palmer and Rodgers 1983, Crookall 1985, Crookall, Greenblat, Coote, Klabbers, and Watson 1987, Crookall and Oxford 1988, and Crookall and Saunders 1989, Miller 1992, Musumeci 1992) raises several questions that still require an answer.
  1. Are they usable with all groups of students, especially since different groups and individuals respond differently to kinds and degrees of competition?
  2. Do the same kinds of benefits that have been documented in other areas of education and development over the last two decades with the use of problem-solving and game-playing techniques (e.g. Edwards, Devries, and Snyder 1972, Livingston and Kidder 1973, Devries and Slavin 1978, Loftus and Loftus 1983, Sawyers and Rogers 1994, Berk 1994) accrue in similar ways with the use of language-teaching games in second-language teaching?
  3. Do language-teaching games encourage interaction or can they inhibit classroom participatory behaviours?

Despite such *caveats* and questions, there seems to be a general feeling among users of language-teaching puzzles and language-teaching games that they foster learning, if in no other way than through the inducement of recreational states of mind.

Language-teaching puzzles and language-teaching games should be used judiciously. They should be used to motivate students and to challenge them. They should never be used as time-fillers.

A Typology of Puzzleological Techniques

Before selecting or preparing the specific language-teaching puzzles or language-teaching games for his/her course, the teacher should always keep in mind that the age, learning styles, and previous training of the students must be taken into consideration. Children can handle language-teaching puzzles that are cast in reduced and simplified form (e.g. elementary crosswords, word searches, etc.). But very young children have great difficulty in handling such language-teaching puzzles as logic puzzles, rebuses, etc. Therefore, bearing in mind that language-teaching puzzles and language-teaching games must be synchronized to the learner's age and level of competence, teachers can generally rest assured that the use of these techniques will produce favourable results:

- Language-teaching puzzles are usable primarily for form-based and meaning-based language tasks, and language-teaching games for more communication-based and group interaction tasks.
- Both language-teaching puzzles and language-teaching games can be easily constructed and keyed to specific and general instructional objectives. Once the

learning task has been determined, the teacher can select or construct the appropriate language-teaching puzzle or language-teaching game to accomplish it.

- Language-teaching puzzles and language-teaching games are useful primarily as review, recall, reinforcement, control, and occasionally as expansion techniques.
- Language-teaching puzzles and language-teaching games should be used judiciously. They should be used to motivate students and to challenge them. They should never be used as time-fillers. So, the learners should be made to understand that they are just as much a part of the course as are other kinds of exercises, drills, activities, etc. The teacher should also keep in mind that the overuse of language-teaching puzzles and language-teaching games is not desirable. To maintain interest, the teacher should always diversify the types of language-teaching puzzles and language-teaching games used together with other kinds of techniques.

Pedagogical writing in the area of language-teaching puzzles and language-teaching games within the last three decades has been rather extensive (e.g. Lee 1965, Bressan 1970, Crawshaw 1972, Wolfe 1972, Hupb 1974, Latorre and Baeza 1975, Schmidt 1977, Schloss 1977, Caré and Debyser 1978, Omaggio 1978, 1982, Wright, Betteridge and Buckby 1979, Mollica 1979, 1981, 1992, Danesi 1979, 1985a, 1985b, 1987, Hendrickson 1980, 1983, Maley and Grellet 1981, Ervin 1982, Irwing 1982, McKay 1985, Schultz and Fisher 1988, Steinberg 1991, Cicogna, Danesi, and Mollica 1992, Dickson 1992, Nuessel 1994). In general, methodologists suggest that at least three categories of these techniques can be employed in second-language teaching. These can be called as follows:

1. **form-based** language-teaching puzzles,
2. **meaning-based** language-teaching puzzles, and
3. **communication-based** language-teaching games.

This terminology attempts to synthesize into a few manageable categories the many and diverse kinds of instructional objectives suggested in the literature vis-a-vis the utilization of language-teaching puzzles and language-teaching games.

Form-Based Language-Teaching Puzzles

A form-based language-teaching puzzle focuses the individual learner's attention on language form. It is one of the most popular types of puzzeological techniques that has been in use as a regular feature in most textbooks and ancillary materials for at least three decades. Scrambled letters, crosswords, word searches, tic-tac-toe, word mazes, cryptograms, and the like make up a truly rich and broad repertory of language-teaching puzzles that can be tailored to fit specific form-based learning tasks. They are popular with both teachers and learners because they cast the reinforcement and control of spelling, grammar, and vocabulary into a challenging and recreational problem-solving format.

The following examples are suggestions that we have extracted from the literature, which we reproduce here simply to demonstrate how versatile form-based language-teaching puzzles can be. Some recent collections and discussions of such language-teaching puzzles can be found in Steinberg 1991, Mollica 1992b, and Nuessel 1994.

Word search

Danesi (1985a) created a word-search language-teaching puzzle in which he hid the French colour adjectives *rouge, noir, blanc, vert,* and *jaune*. The words can be read from left-to-right, right-to-left, up-down, and down-up. He suggests that this puzzle can be used for different objectives by simply changing the instructions for solving it. It is up to the teacher to decide which level of reading difficulty to employ. The teacher can use this puzzle for a variety of review, control and reinforcement tasks. The following are some suggested activities:

- The students can be asked simply to locate the colour adjectives in the puzzle, after having given them the words *(= simple recognition task/orthographic task).*
- The students can be asked to locate five colour adjectives in the puzzle, without telling them which ones *(= vocabulary task).*
- The students can be given definitions or incomplete sentences for each word and then asked to find the words in the puzzle *(= vocabulary review/cloze task).*
- The students can be given the feminine forms of the adjectives and then asked to locate their corresponding masculine forms in the puzzle *(= morphological task).*

The number and diversity of the instructions is limited only by the imagination and specific requirements of the teacher. All form-based language-teaching puzzles have this feature.

Mollica (1995, in press) is in the process of developing for various languages a series of word-searches in which the stimulus for the hidden word is either *print* (i.e., a word), or *non-print* (i.e., an illustration) or *both print and non-print* (i.e., word associated with the illustration.) He arbitrarily chooses 20 words on a given topic or theme and creates the first three puzzles using both print and non-print as stimuli, followed by two puzzles in which only the visual stimulus is given (Figure 1). In this way, he is encouraging the student to learn new vocabulary or review it by going from print *(word),* to non-print *(illustration associated with word)* to print *(word to be found in the puzzle.)* This repetition is designed to help the student to learn or recall vocabulary. (Figure 2).

Mollica (1981b, 1982) has also created word-search puzzles in which the form reflects the theme or topic. Moreover, he suggests on "hiding" a message closely related to the theme or topic. The student solving the puzzle, therefore, cannot help bu feel a sense of accomplishment in solving the puzzle but also in feeling satisfied in "finding" the related hidden message. Once all the words *(ange, berger, boules, cadeau, cheminée, crèche, décorations, étable, étoile, gui, renne, sac, sapin, voeux)*

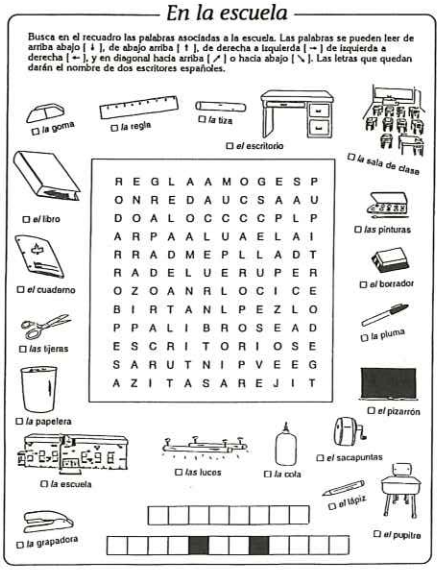


Figure 1

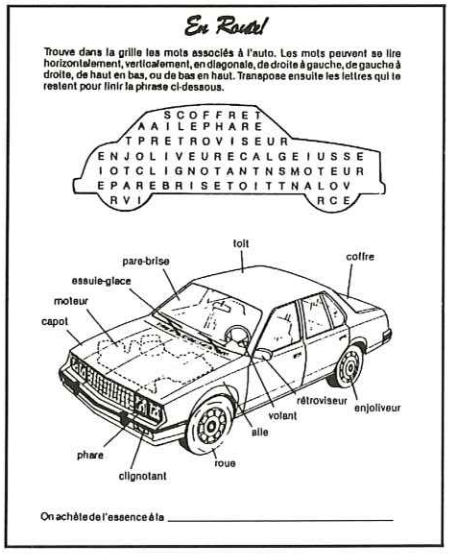


Figure 2

Figure 3

have been circled on the "Christmas tree", the hidden message revealed will spell out "Joyeux Noël. Bonne et heureuse année." (Figure 3).

A similar word-search puzzle can be created in the shape of a heart for St. Valentine's Day (Figure 4). Again, once all the words directly related with the theme are found *(aimer, amis, amitié, amour, baisers, cadeau, cartes, chocolats, coeur, embrasser, fête, fêter, filles, fleurs, garçons, gentil, joli, lettre, rose, sourire, Valentin)*, a hidden proverb related to "love" will appear: "On peut tout cacher sauf l'ivresse et l'amour." *Everything can be hidden except drunkenness and love* (Mollica 1981-1982).

Hidden messages may also be used to provide cultural, linguistic, historical or geographical information (Mollica 1992c). Teachers may decide to "hide" the various *chefs-lieux* of France *(Ajaccio, Amiens, Besançon, Bordeaux, Caen, Châolons-sur-Marne, Clermont-Ferrand, Dijon, Lille, Limoges, Lyon, Marseilles, Metz, Montpellier, Nantes, Orléans, Paris, Poitiers, Rennes, Rouen, Strasbourg, Toulouse)* in the shape of the country itself (Figure 5).

But the hidden words may not necessarily always be thematic in nature. Teachers might wish to select words which are merely *associated* with the topic or theme. In the following word-search puzzle, (Figure 6), Mollica (1992c) includes names of rivers, mountains, cities, composers, writers, wines, as well as lexical items relating to capital "C" culture and lower case "c" culture. *(Adige, Alitalia, Alpi, Arno, arte, Bari, Barolo, Capri, Dante, Elba, esploratori, espresso, Etna, Fiat, Ionio, musicista, Papa, pecorino, Pisa. Po, poeta, repubblica, Roma, scrittori, stivale, tenori, Tevere, Torino, Verdi)*. Once all the words have been found, students will realize that the hidden message will inform them that "Dante è il padre della lingua italiana."

Crossword Puzzles

When Arthur Wynne published the first crossword puzzle in the puzzle pages of Sunday's New York *World*

Figure 4

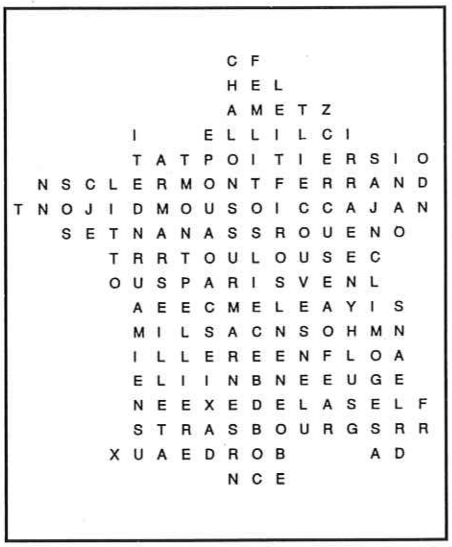


Figure 5

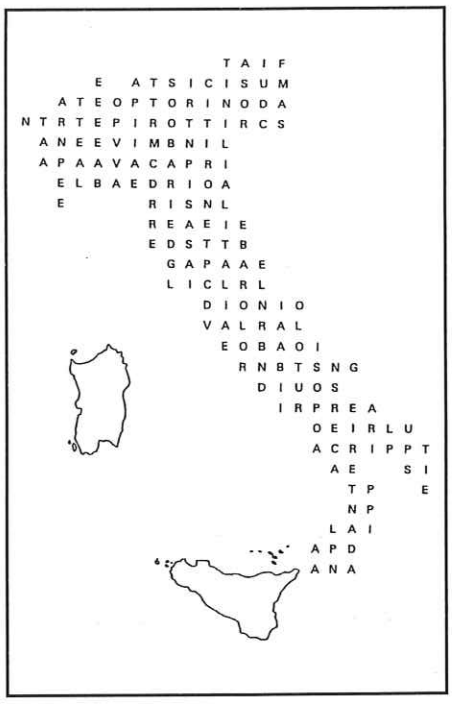


Figure 6

puzzle craze that America had ever set in motion. Roger Millington 1977: 24,25) describes the situation anecdotally. The following are some examples:

> Engaged couples announced their good news by composing appropriate crosswords and sticking them in the local paper. The Rev. George McElveen, a Baptist pastor of Pittsburgh, was the first of many preachers to use the crossword puzzle to attract bigger congregations. He announced that a large blackboard would be placed in front of his pulpit. On it was an original puzzle and the audience was required to solve it before he would begin his sermon. The solved puzzle, needless to say, proved to be the text for his sermon. In Atlantic City, crosswords were distributed in church to stir interest in a current missionary campaign in China and Persia. Chruchgoers were requested, however, not to solve the puzzles during the service [...]
>
> In December 1924, unaware the craze was shortly to achieve similar magnitudes in Britain, *The Times* took pity on America. In an articles headed AN ENSLAVED AMERICA, it noted that "All America has succumbed to the crossword pouzzle." Guessing inaccurately, it continued: "The crossword puzzle is by no means a new thing; in all likelihood it was known as long as the Civil War."The *Times* felt that the crossword was "a menace because it is making devastating inroads on working hours of every rank of society." How devastating? Well, according to their New York correspondent, five million hours daily of American people's time – most of them nominally working hours – were used in unprofitable trifling.

A great deal has been written on the crossword puzzle in the language class using the printed word as a stimulus. In his classic study of this puzzeological technique, Dino Bressan (1970), for example, likes the crossword puzzle for the obvious contribution it can make from a linguistic point of view. "A carefully graded selection of crosswords in order of complexity," maintains Bressan, "will contribute to the acquisition of new words and phrases as well as the consolidation of previous knowledge through repetition." Bressan classifies direct-definition clues into nine different headings:

1. **Generic.** *Clue:* Prénom. *Answer:* Ils
2. **Synonymic.** *Clue:* Tout naturel. *Answer:* Inné
3. **Antonymic.** *Clue:* Pas fictif. *Answer:* Réel
4. **Allusive.** *Clue:* Echappe au rêveur. *Answer:* Réalité.
5. **Allusive-negatory.** *Clue:* Bien de gens ne connaissent que sa marge. *Answer:* Loi.
6. **Definitory.** *Clue:* Dont rien ne vient troubler la quiétude. *Answer:* Sereine.
7. **Descriptive.** *Clue:* Recueillent des malheureux. *Answer:* Asiles.
8. **Punny.** *Clue:* Il avait vraiment la bosse du théâtre! *Answer:* Polichinelle.
9. **"In" clue.** *Clue:* Lettres d'amour. *Answer:* Am.

David E. Wolfe (1972) acknowledges Bressan's worthwhile contribution and offers a number of examples "as perhaps more realizable in the language class, assuming that the crossword puzzle is teacher-prepared and is based on material previously studied by the student." One of the examples Wolfe suggests is the picture clue. "Any concrete noun which the teacher can draw, " declares Wolfe, "is appropriate as a clue, assuming the noun has been taught."

Mollica (1987, 1988a,1988b, 1991a, 1991b, 1992a), for example, has published in various languages a series of line master puzzles based on everyday vocabulary themes. These puzzles are designed to test students have mastered the vocabulary and, at the same time, provide hours of fun in or outside the classroom scene. He presents four sets of puzzles, A,B,C,D, for each theme and arbitrarily chooses twenty words for each one. Each set builds upon the previous one, reviewing the words studied and then by adding new related vocabulary words to each puzzle. The final set, D, contains all 20 illustrated words without the printed words. The following is an example for the reinforcement and control of clothing vocabulary in English (Figure 7).

As it stands this language-teaching puzzle constitutes an elementary type of exercise, whereby the beginning student will simply associate each word with its visualizable referent and then write it into the crossword arrangement. More difficult

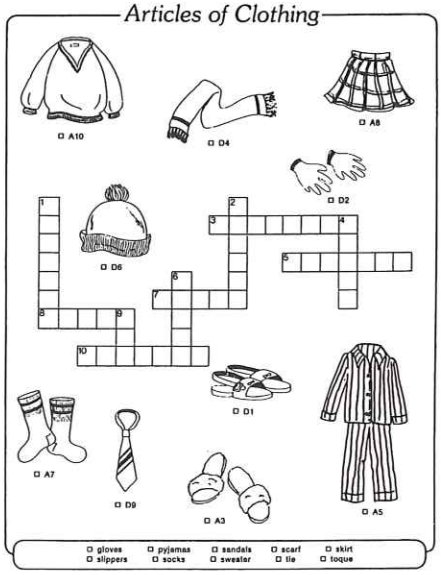


Figure 7

uses of this puzzle can be envisioned as follows:

1. the words can be removed from the puzzle;
2. the visual referents can be replaced by definitions, synonyms, antonyms, etc.;
3. a story containing the vocabulary can be written and the student asked to select the items that fit into the crossword arrangement; and so on.

More recently, Phillips, Brown, Bannister and MacRae (1995: 9) have proposed "cooperative crossword puzzles," whereby four different clues are given and four students must work together. They suggest that

> Students work in groups of four. Each group is given one crossword puzzle grid and each member of the group is given a different set of clues (A,B,C,D). While the clues are different, they all relate to the same answer. Students take turns reading their clues and decide together on the answers. Generally all four clues are needed to determine the answer.

It is obvious that in constructing the various clues, the "key clue" not appear always on the same set. Such a practice would give one player always the upper hand for he/she would hold the clue to the answer.

For Phillips *et al.* cooperative crosswords provide students not only an opportunity to communicate but also a forum to develop further their social skills, such as valuing the opinions of others.

Anagrams

The followings anagram that can be used for word recognition and spelling in Italian (Danesi 1988: 152). In this case the words to be unscrambled give common first-conjugation verbs in Italian:

Anagrammando le lettere seguenti, trovare dieci verbi.

1. GERLEGE (leggere)
2. ALPRARE (parlare)
3. ARMIPRAR (imparare)
4. GARANIME (mangiare)
5. ecc.

Cryptograms

A cryptogram, such as the following, can be used for obvious word-recognition, syntactic, morphological, and discourse expectancy reinforcement and control in French (Danesi 1985a: 27). The hiden message, "L'amour est une grande illusion" translates, *Love is a great illusion.*

Tic-tac-toe

A tic-tac-toe puzzle in German that

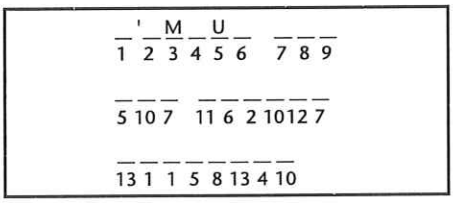


Figure 8

has an obvious lexico-semantic focus, by which the student is expected to find three words in a line that have something in common, is the following one (Danesi 1985a: 23). The answer is three types of fruits: *Apfel, Brine* and *Pfirsich.*

Word Circle

Apfel	Brine	Pfirsich
Blume	Land	Baum
Hand	Kopf	Buch

Figure 9

A word-circle puzzle in Spanish, can be used to test the plural formation of nouns (Danesi 1985a: 25).

Figure 10

Mazes

Mazes are also useful for both oral or writing (i.e., copying) activities. The task in Figure 11 is to visit all the French relatives only once, using the arrows as point of departure and point of return. As the student "visits" the relatives, each name can be either spoken or wriitten out depending on the skill the teacher wishes to emphasize. Several answers are possible, thus providing variety to the activity.

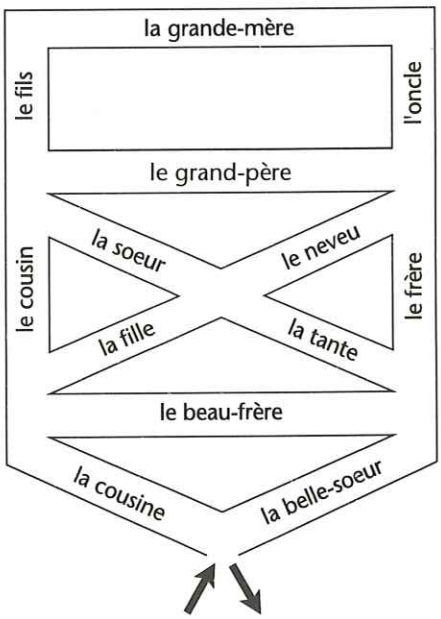


Figure 11

Meaning-Based Language-Teaching Puzzles

Language-teaching puzzles which focus the learner's attention on meaning are especially useful at intermediate and advanced levels. Riddles, sequences, logical deductions, and the like all allow the learner to employ the abstract language schemas of the target language fruitfully within the specific meaning domains outlined by the solution path of the puzzle.

Logical Puzzles

Consider, as an example, the following logical deduction puzzle in Italian (Mollica 1992: 110).

> Il giovane Marco Ferrara ha chiesto una raccomandazione a Carlo Rossi, Mario Bruni, Paolo Moretti e Gianni Martino. Purtroppo non ricorda quale professione esercitano (avvocato, architetto, chirurgo, ingegnere). Sa che...
>
> 1. Mario Bruni è più anziano dell'avvocato e dell'ingegnere.
> 2. Il chirurgo cena sempre da solo.
> 3. Mario Moretti cena spesso con Gianni Martino.
> 4. IL più anziano è anche il più ricco.
> 5. Carlo Rossi cena spesso in compagnia dell'avvocato e dell'ingegnere.
> 6. Gianni Martino è più anziano dell'avvocato e dell'ingegnere.
> 7. A Mario Bruni non piacciono le attività sportive.
>
> Sapresti dirgli quale professione esercitano questi quat tro signori?

A table (Figure 12) can be set up to help the student keep track of the possibilities, alternatives, etc. An X in a cell indicates an elimination, and an O a finding.

It is not necessary to go into the details of the simple solution to this puzzle here. The reader will be able to figure out the answer with little difficulty. The important features to note here about the solution can be summarized in point form as follows:

	avvocato	ingegnere	chirurgo	architetto
Mario				
Paolo				
Gianni				
Carlo				

Figure 12

- These language-teaching puzzles allow the learner to become cognitively involved in the problem space created by the puzzle.
- The learner must decipher the meaning of the language-teaching puzzle, making limited changes but creative ones to the components of its problem space.
- By reflecting on the whole problem-solving event in conceptual and verbal ways, the learner assimilates the meaning-to-form relations that are inherent in the puzzle.

A few more examples will suffice to show the features that such puzzles embody.

Legal Cases

In a legal case such as the following French one (Mollica 1992b: 124-125), the student has to verbalize a plausible solution:

> Si vous étiez le juge...
>
> En écoutant le testament de feu M. Henri Marchand, Georges est très content d'apprendre qu'il va hériter du portefueill de son oncle. En recevant et en examinant le portefeuille, il y trouve dix billets de cent dollars. Son cousin, jaloux, exige qu'il partage la somme avec lui. Georges soutient que son oncle lui a laissé à lui le portefeuille et, par conséquent, tout ce qu'il contient. Ce cas finit au tribunal.
>
> Si vous étiez le juge, diviseriez-vous l'argent parmi le deux cousins ou donneriez-vous la somme entière àGeorges?
>
> (Choisissez parmi vous deux avocats: un qui plaidera ;la cause de Georges, l'autre qui représentera son cousin.

Sequencing

In the following sequencing problem in French (Mollica 1992b: 126), students are told that two anecdotes are out of sequence:

> Un mauvais écrivain et un agent de police.
>
> 1. Arrivé à "Conclusion du test d'haleine", il inscrit consciencieusement:
> 2. Un mauvais écrivain confie à un ami:
> 3. Puis l'agent rédige son rapport.
> 4. - Tiens! Il sait déjà lire!
> 5. Un agent de police arrête un automobiliste en état d'ébriété et le conduit au poste de police.
> 6. - Quelle catastrophe! Mon fils de quatre ans a jeté au feu mon manuscrit.
> 7. "Saint Émilion 1953."
> 8. On lui fait passer tous les tests, y inclus un examen à l'alcotest.
>
> (Answer: 5,8,3,1,7; 2,6,4.)

More examples and discussions of meaning-based language-teaching puzzles can be found in Wright, Betteridge, and Buckby 1979, Maley and Grellet 1981, McKay 1985, Danesi 1985a, and Mollica 1992b.

Communication-Based Language-Teaching Games

The literature on this type of language-teaching game is quite extensive, but the reader can consult Schultz and Fisher (1988) for a good comprehensive typology. The general definition of a language-teaching game is a problem-solving game that involves more than one learner. So, it unfolds in terms of a group-based, interactive format that focuses on language use and meaning negotiation. Games like *Charades, What's My Line?* and others (including board and card games), that create contexts in which the language is used in discourse-appropriate ways, constitute communication-based language-teaching games. Here are some examples that are self-explanatory.

Charades

Danesi (1985a: 45) proposes the following activity for charades:

Rules/Procedures:

> The class can be divided into two teams once again, and the object is to guess a word or expression that a member of each team must act out in pantomime. Team members are allowed to ask questions and make statements in the target language. The words or expressions are prepared in advance by the teacher and put into a box from which each team draws. The team taking the least time overall to guess the answer wins.

Instructional Objectives/Types of Communication Skills:

> By tying the words and expressions to some theme or unit, the primary objective of this game is to review vocabulary. However, since it requires the students to participate verbally in finding a solution, it also encourages the use of the language in an autonomous and meaningful way.

Family Feud

Danesi (1985a: 48) suggests that even the ever popular TV show "Family Feud" can be a source for communication-based language-teaching games.

Rules/Procedures:

> The teacher should survey a group of students on a series of general questions (your favorite colour, make of car, type of food, and so on). The frequency of each response is then tabulated. The class is divided into two teams. Ten questions are asked by the teacher in the target language and a student delegated by each team must attempt to respond to all questions within a specified time frame (for example, one minute). The answers of the two students must be different. The more popular the answer according to the survey, the higher the score. Each team then chooses a different player for the next ten questions, and the game continues as before. At the end, the scores are added up, and the team with the highest score is declared the winner.

Instructional Objectives/Types of Communicative Skills:

> This game is clearly useful in building up the ability to understand and respond to target language messages. This type of activity con- sequently develops fluency. Vocabulary is also practised.

Biographical Bingo

Dickson 1992: 231-232) suggests Biographical Bingo For the achievement of similar objectives.

> Played in the same way as "Find Someone who...," but uses a Bingo grid for the actions. As in Bingo, the winner is the student who finds people for 5 spaces in a row.

Questions and Answers

For a questions-and-answer activity, designed to stimulate oral participation in thje classroom, Dickson (1992: 237) proposes the following:

> Form two teams. Using a large picture or map on the wall, the teacher calls out a word indicating an object or a place. One team must form a question about that object or place and the other team must answer the question. Each team wins points for correct questions or answers.
>
> Purpose: Students get practice in both asking and answering questions. If a picture is used, the game can review

certain vocabulary. If a map is used, it could review geography.

Predicaments

For this interactive activity, Dickson (1992: 236) suggets that:

> One student leaves the room while the other students think of a predicament such as running out of gas, the school burning down, losing their money, getting home long after their curfew, etc. The student who went out returns and asks the others in turn: "Qu'est-ce tu ferais si ceci t'arivais?" Each person must give a reasonable answer based on the predicament agreed on. The student whose answer finally reveals the predicament is "It" next.

Concluding Remarks

It is perhaps useful to conclude this essays by reviewing some of the main aspects of puzzleological techniques in second-language teaching in point form:

- These techniques have an important role to play in second-anguage teaching as versatile exercises, drills, etc. alongside other kinds of practice and reinforcement techniques.
- Although there is no experimental literature on the learning-efficacy of language-teaching puzzles, and only a handful of studies on the psychological effectiveness of language-teaching games, there are no indications or evidence to the contrary, namely data showing that puzzleological techniques are ineffectual or detrimental. More research is obviously required in this domain.
- Language-teaching puzzles are useful as form-based and meaning-based reinforcement and control activities.
- Lnguage-teaching games are useful as communication-based activities.
- Although there exists some evidence that entire courses or curricula can be based on a language-teaching game approach (e.g. Palmer and Rodgers 1983, Miller 1991), by and large puzzleological techniques are useful primarily as supplementary or complementary activities that can be used in tandem with other techniques within broader methodological and curricular frameworks.
- These techniques should be given the same treatment and weight as other exercises, drills, and activities; otherwise the student will tend not to take them seriously.
- Both teacher and students must find puzzleological technique enjoyable; otherwise they will become counterproductive.
- Given all these provisions, we are convinced, as have been many teachers over the last three decades, that puzzleological techniques have as much a role to play in second-language teaching as they have been shown to have in many other areas of education.

Our purpose in this revisitation was not to be exhaustive, nor to be innovative in showing how language-teaching puzzles and language-teaching games can be incorporated into second-language teaching. Our goal was simply to highlight the diversity and versatility of these recreational forms of language and communication exercise and practice. We conclude by emphasizing one more time to the reader that puzzleological techniques do not constitute a method or an educational paradigm. They are enjoyable activities that can be used together with other kinds of practice devices for reinforcement, review, thinking, control, and communication in the classroom. All these techniques really aim to do is to achieve the same kinds of exercise and practice goals that more traditional drills and activities do. But, they inject so much fun into the process that they end up invariably fostering a positive attitude in teacher and students alike to the learning tasks at hand. And this is the primary condition for learning to occur.

References

Berk, L.E. (1994). "Vygotsky's Theory: The Importance of Make-Believe Play." *Young Children*. 50/1: 30-39.

Bressan, D. (1970). "Crossword Puzzles in Modern Language Teaching." *Audio-Visual Language Journal*. 8: 93-95.

Caré, J.M. and F. Debyser. (1978). *Jeu, langage et creativité*. Paris: Hachette.

Cicogna, Caterina, Marcel Danesi, and Anthony Mollica, eds. (1992). *Problem-Solving in Second-Language Teaching*. Welland, Ontario: éditions Soleil publishing inc.

Crawshaw, B.E. (1972). *Let's Play Games in French*. Skokie: National Textbook Co.

Crookall, D., ed. (1985). *Simulation Applications in L2 Education and Research*. Special Issue. *System*. 13, No. 3.

Crookall, D. and R. Oxford, eds. (1988). *Language Learning Through Simulation/Gaming*. New York: Newbury House-Harper and Row.

Crookall, D. and D. Saunders, eds. (1989). *Communication and Simulation: From Two Fields to One Theme*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Crookall, D., C. Greenblat, A. Coote, J. Klabbers, and D.R. Watson, eds. (1987). *Simulation-Gaming in the Late 1980's*. New York: Pergamon.

Danesi, Marcel. (1979). "Puzzles in Language Teaching." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*. 35: 269-277.

Danesi, Marcel. (1985a). *A Guide to Puzzles and Games in Second Language Pedagogy*. Toronto: OISE Press.

Danesi, Marcel. (1985b). *Language Games in Italian*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Danesi, Marcel. (1987). "The Psychology and Methodology of Puzzles and Games in L2 Teaching." In: J. Lantolf and A. Labarca, eds., *Research in Second Language Learning: Focus on the Classroom*, pp. 107-116. Norwood, N.J.: Ablex.

Danesi, Marcel. (1988). *Manuale di tecniche per la didattica delle lingue moderne*. Roma: Armando.

De Vries, D.L. and R.E. Slavin. (1978). "Teams Games Tournaments: Review of Ten Classroom Experiments." *Journal of Research and Development in Education*. 12: 23-38.

Dickson, P. S. (1992). "Quick and Easy Games for Language Learning." In Caterina Cicogna, Marcel Danesi, and Anthony Mollica, eds. *Problem-Solving in Second-Language Teaching*, pp. 223-241. Welland, Ont.: éditions Soleil publishing inc..

Edwards, K., D.L. De Vries, and J.P. Snyder. (1972). "Games and Teams: A Winning Combination." *Simulation and Games*. 3:247-269

Ervin, G. L. (1982). "Using Warm-Ups, Wind-Ups, and Fillers: *All* of Your Class Time is Valuable." *Foreign Language Annals*. 15:95-99.

Fixx, J. F. (1983). *Solve It!* London: Muller.

Gowan, J.C., J. Khatena, and E.P. Torrance, eds. (1981). *Creativity: Its*

Educational Implications. Dubuque: Kendall/Hunt.

Hendrickson, J. M. (1980). "Listening and Speaking Activities for Foreign Language Learners." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*. 36:735-748.

Hendrickson, J.M. (1983). "Listening and Speaking Activities for Foreign Language Learners: Second Collection." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*. 39: 267-284.

Hupb, L.B. (1974). *Let's Play Games in Spanish*. Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Co.

Irwing, P. (1982). "Games for Use at the Intermediate Level." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*. 38: 726-727.

Jones, K. (1982). *Simulations in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jones, K. (1986). *Designing Your Own Simulations*. New York.: Methuen.

Latorre, G. and G. Baeza. (1975). "The Construction and Use of EFL Crossword Puzzles." *English Language Teaching Journal*. 30:45-55.

Lee, W.R. (1965). *Language Teaching Games and Contests*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lesgold, A. (1988). "Problem Solving." In R. J. Sternberg and E.E. Smith, eds., *The Psychology of Human Thought*, pp. 188-213. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Livingston, S.A. and S.J. Kidder. (1973). "Role Identification and Game Structure: Effects on Political Attitudes." *Simulation and Games*. 4:131-144.

Loftus, G.R. and E.F. Loftus. (1983). *Mind at Play*. New York: Basic Books.

Maley, A. and F. Grellet. (1981). *Mind Matters*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

McKay, S. L. (1985). *Teaching Grammar*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Millington, Roger. (1977). *Crossword Puzzles. Their History and Their Cult*. New Yor: Pocket Books.

Miller, M.C. (1992). *Two Experimental Studies of the Effectiveness of Interactive Game-Playing in the Acquisition of Japanese by American Students*. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Delaware.

Mohr, M.S. (1993). *The Games Treasury*. Shelburne: Chapters.

Mollica, Anthony. (1979). "Games and Activities in the Italian High School Classroom." *Foreign Language Annals*. 12:347-354.

Mollica, Anthony. (1980-1981). *Les Gamins*. Toronto: Grolier.

Mollica, Anthony. (1981). "Visual Puzzles in the Second Language Classroom." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*. 37:583-622.

Mollica, Anthony. (1987) *Mots croisés pour les débutants*. Welland, Ontario: éditions Soleil publishing inc.

Mollica, Anthony. (1988a) *Crossword Puzzles for Beginners*. Welland, Ontario: éditions Soleil publishing inc.

Mollica, Anthony. (1988b). *Crucigramas para principiantes*.. Welland, Ontario: éditions Soleil publishing inc.

Mollica, Anthony. (1991a). *Parole crociate per principianti*. Welland, Ontario: éditions Soleil publishing inc.

Mollica, Anthony. (1991b) *Latin Crossword Puzzles for Beginners*. Welland, Ontario: éditions Soleil publishing inc.

Mollica, Anthony. (1992a) *Palavras cruzadas para principiantes*.. Welland, Ontario: éditions Soleil publishing inc.

Mollica, Anthony. (1992b). "Reinforcing Language Skills through Problem-Solving and Pencil and Paper Activities." In Caterina Cicogna, Marcel Danesi, and Anthony Mollica, eds. *Problem-Solving in Second-Language Teaching*, pp. 102-129. Welland, Ontario: éditions Soleil publishing inc.

Mollica, Anthony. (1992c). *A te la scelta! Libro primo*.. Welland, Ontario: éditions Soleil publishing inc.

Mollica, Anthony. (1995 in press) *Buscapalabras*. Welland, Ontario: éditions Soleil publishing inc.

Munzert, A.W. (1991). *Test Your I.Q*. New York: Prentice-Hall.

Musumeci, D. (1992). "Selecting Games for the Second-Language Classroom: Criteria for Multiple Functions." In Caterina Cicogna, Marcel Danesi, and Anthony Mollica, eds., *Problem-Solving in Second-Language Teaching*, pp. 242-253. Welland, Ontario: éditions Soleil publishing inc.

Nuessel, F. (1994). "Recreational Problem-Solving Activities for Teaching Vocabulary and Intermediate Spanish." *Hispania* 77:118-124.

Omaggio, A. (1978). *Games and Simulations in the Foreign Language Classroom*. Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Omaggio, A. (1982). "Using Games and Interactional Activities for the Development of Functional Proficiency in a Second Language." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*. 38:515-546.

Palmer, A. and T.S. Rodgers. (1983). "Games in Language Teaching." *Language Teaching*. 16:2-21.

Perkins, D.N. (1988). "Creativity and the Quest for Mechanism." In R.J. Sternberg and E.E. Smith, eds., *The Psychology of Human Thought*, pp. 309-336. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Phillips, Gail, Doreen Brown, Sheila Bannister, and Lori MacRae. (1995) "Cooperative Crosswords." *Cummunication*. (Newsletter of The Ontario Modern Language Teachers' Association). Winter, 9-10.

Rixon, S. (1981). *How to Use Games in Language Teaching*. London: Macmillan.

Rodgers, T.S. (1981). "A Framework for Making and Using Language Teaching Games." In *Guidelines for Language Games*, pp. 1-7. Singapore: RELC.

Savignon, S. (1992). "Problem-Solving and the Negotiation of Meaning in Second-Language Theory and Practice." In Caterina Cicogna, Marcel Danesi, and Anthony Mollica, eds., *Problem-Solving in Second-Language Teaching*, pp. 11-25. Welland, Ont.ario: éditions Soleil publishing inc..

Sawyers, J.K. and C.S. Rogers. (1994). *Helping Children Develop through Play*. Washington: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Schloss, B. (1977). *Jeux linguistiques*. Toronto: OISE Press.

Schmidt, E. (1977). *Let's Play Games in German*. Skokie: National Textbook Co.

Schultz, M. and A. Fisher. (1988). *Games for All Reasons: Interacting in the Language Classroom*. Reading: Addison-Wesley.

Steinberg, J. (1991). *Games Language People Play*. Markham, Ontario: Dominie Press.

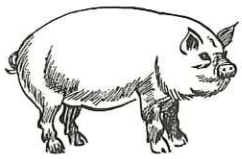
Webster, M. and E. Castonon. (1980). *Crosstalk: Communication Tasks and Games at the Elementary, Preintermediate and Intermediate Levels*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wells, D. (1992). *The Penguin Book of Curious and Interesting Puzzles*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Wolfe, D. E. (1972). "Teacher-Made Crossword Puzzles." *Audio-Visual Language Journal*. 10:177-181.

Wright, A., D. Betteridge, and M. Buckby. (1979). *Games for Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Marcel Danesi is Professor of Semiotics, Victoria College, University of Toronto.
Anthony Mollica is Professor of Education, Faculty of Education, Brock University.



Teaching Culture in a North American Context: The Chinese New Year

Cheng Luo

Introduction

One of the most significant developments in second language (SL) learning in recent years has been the recognition of the close relationship between language and culture. Among the questions that are often asked by teachers regarding the teaching of culture are: *what* to teach and *how* to teach it. The answer, especially to the first question, depends, among other things, upon how we define *culture*. According to Brooks (1982: 20-21), culture may be defined as the *best* of everything in human life, e.g. the observable Culture MLA (music, letters, and arts); or as *everything* in human life, that is, the nonobservable Culture BBV (belief, behaviour and values). While neither perspective is sufficient for giving a full definition of culture, many SL teachers seem to emphasize MLA more than BBV. If this is indeed the case, then it appears that a more balanced approach is needed in teaching culture, such that both MLA and BBV receive due attention in the SL teaching/ learning process.

This article addresses the above issue by looking at a particular cultural event: the Chinese New Year. The reason for selecting this event is twofold:

- major cultural festivals like the Chinese New Year encompass both MLA and BBV;
- some festivals manifest the close relationship between language and culture.

In addition, ethnographic description on the Chinese New Year and how people celebrate it will be provided, both for information purposes and as the basis of suggested language and cultural activities for the Chinese as a second language class.

The Chinese New Year

Of all the Chinese festivals, the Chinese New Year, also known as the Spring Festival, is the most important and most celebrated. It is the first day of the year according to the Chinese lunar calendar, which works somewhat differently from the Christian Gregorian (solar) calendar. Because of this, the exact date of the Chinese New Year varies from year to year somewhere: between January 15 and February 20 on the solar calendar. For 1995, it falls on January 31.

Origin

The Chinese have celebrated their New Year for about 5,000 years. The traditional term for the event is 過年 *Guo Nian*, literally "to get over Nian". According to an ancient Chinese legend, *Nian* was a fierce animal that came out to devour people on the last night of the year. Once *Nian* went to a village where someone was cracking a whip. At the sound, *Nian* ran away. When it got to the next village, *Nian* saw some red clothes that had been hung out to dry. Again, it was scared away. At the third village, the sight of a fire once again kept *Nian* from the villagers. Now that people knew what *Nian* was afraid of, they set off firecrackers, put up red spring couplets on doors (see Suggested Activities, section 4), and hung out lanterns on the same night every year, in order to "get over Nian". This practice, together with the people's ever-renewing wish for a better life in the new year, formed the tradition of Chinese New Year celebrations.

The Chinese Zodiac

Celebration of a particular New Year is based on a 12-year cycle on the Chinese zodiac, with each year named after an animal that represents an Earthly Branch. 1995 marks the year of the Pig. The animal ruling the year of one's birth becomes that person's animal sign and is believed to influence his or her character and destiny. For example, those born in the year of the Pig (1947, 1959, 1971, 1983, 1995) are said to be honest and brave. Traditionally, decisions about marriage, friendship, business, etc. are made according to the guidelines of one's animal sign. The Appendix shows a horoscope of the Chinese Zodiac. Beginning with the Mouse, the cycle reads counter-clockwise.

Stories about the zodiac animals abound. According to one, the Heavenly Jade Emperor once invited twelve earthly animals to his palace the next day to become zodiac animals. Among the invited was the Cat, who at the time was a good friend of the Mouse. Early the next morning, the Mouse, who had not been invited, went with the other animals without waking up the Cat. Just before they entered the Heavenly Gate, the Mouse jumped onto the horn of the Ox, who happened to lead the team, and was the first to be seen and appointed by the Jade Emperor. By the time the Cat woke up and hurried to the Heavenly Palace, all the zodiac animals had already been named. Furious, the Cat vowed to revenge itself on the Mouse who has since been its arch enemy.

Preparations

Household preparations for the New Year start about one week before the New Year. These include house cleaning, festival shopping, making new clothes, window decoration (with paper cuttings), hanging New Year pictures, writing spring scrolls, and preparing festival food, including *jiaozi* and New Year cakes. It is a common practice to put on the door an upside down character 福 (*fu* "happiness"), because "upside down" (倒 *dao*) in Chinese sounds the same as the word for "arrive" (到 *dao*). The intention is to elicit 福倒了 *Fu dao le* "The *happiness* is upside down", which is interpreted as "Happiness has arrived."

New Year's Eve

The New Year's Eve is the time for all the family members, including those away from home, to come together to share a sumptuous feast, to

drink atoast to each other's happiness, to give out "lucky money" in red envelopes to children, and to stay up throughout the night chatting, playing games or watching special TV programs. When the clock strikes midnight, a new round of firecrackers is set off, people bid farewell to the old year, cheer the coming of the new, and eat 餃子 *jiaozi,* a kind of stuffed dumplings whose pronunciation comes from the phrase 交子 *jiao zi* "reach midnight", and which symbolizes smooth transition into the new year.

New Year's Day

On New Year's Day, people put on new clothes, offer ritual homage and thanksgiving to their ancestors and gods, pay respects to senior members of the family, wish each other good luck, and exchange gifts. Then they go out to bring New Year greetings to their friends and relatives. Favoured greetings include 恭喜發財 *Gongxi facai* "Wish you great fortune" and 新年好 *Xin nian hao* "Happy New Year". The New Year feast, which is shared with visiting relatives and friends, is as sumptuous as the New Year's Eve feast, and must include a course of whole fish to symbolize a surplus year to come, because, again, "fish" (魚 *yu*) sounds like "surplus" (餘 *yu*).

Throughout the festival, the crackling of firecrackers continues, and dragon and lion dances are performed on the streets. In some areas, the festivities last about two weeks till the Lantern Festival.

Suggested Activities

1. Stories

Stories about the Chinese New Year, such as "Guo Nian" and "How the Mouse became a zodiac animal", may be told to the students, who may then roleplay the story. Advanced students may, under the teacher's guidance, write down their own version of the story in the form of a short play and then they act it out.

2. The Lunar Calendar

A Chinese lunar year consists of 12 months, five of which have 29 days and seven have 30 days. There is a leap year about every three years which contains an extra month. 1995 happens to be a leap year with an extra August. Students may compare the different ways the Chinese lunar calendar and the western solar calendar work and, in small groups, work out the corresponding dates of the Chinese New Year on the solar calendar for the next two or three years.

3. The Chinese Zodiac

Using the horoscope (see Appendix), students may work in groups to find out each other's animal sign, alleged character and destiny, as well as the do's and don'ts for individual students according to the Chinese zodiac. It should be pointed out to the students, however, that the alleged do's and don'ts, as well as the characterization, are merely cultural beliefs and do not have to be taken literally. In addition, students may also discuss and compare animal images in Chinese and other cultures.

4. Spring Couplets

These are the poetic couplets written vertically on red scrolls in strictly symmetrical forms, with a short phrase written horizontally as a conclusion. The content expresses such themes as thanksgiving, prosperity, newness, goodwill and social or natural harmony. These couplets are a good source of folk literature that may be appreciated by advanced students through guided analysis of sample couplets such as:

The right scroll:

五 谷 豐 登 辭　　舊 歲
wu gu feng-deng ci　　*jiu sui*
five crop abound farewell-to old year

"Farewell to the old year in bumper harvest of the five crops."

The left scroll:

六畜　興 旺 迎　　新 春
liu xu　xing-wang ying　xin chun
six animal thrive　welcome new

spring "Welcome in the new spring with thriving prospect of the six animals."

The horizontal scroll:

年 年 有 餘
nian nian you yu
year year have surplus

"(There's) surplus year after year."

5. Colours

Colours have culture-specific symbolic meanings. For example, *red* in Chinese symbolizes happiness, luck or success, and is the favoured colour for festivals, weddings, opening ceremonies, etc. Students may discuss the symbolic meanings of different colours in Chinese and compare them to those of other cultures they are familiar with. The following is a short list of common colour terms and their symbolic meaning in Chinese (Luo 1992). Other colour- meaning correspondences can be elicited from the students.

Colour	*Meaning*	*Example*
red	happiness	wedding dress
	luck	*"red luck"* 紅運
yellow	noble	royal colour
white	purity	"innocent" 清白
	sadness	funeral dress
green	life	
black	wickedness	"black gang" 黑幫

6. Linguistic Preferisms

These are socio-psychologically favoured expressions, especially at festival times, for example:

- 恭喜發財 *Gongxi fa cai* "Wish you great fortune"
- 萬事如意 *Wan shi ruyi* "Everything as you wish", 福到了 *Fu dao le* "Happiness has arrived", and
- 年年有餘 *Nian nian you yu* "Surplus year after year."

Also to be noted is the number "eight" (八 *ba*), which rhymes with the word for "(fortune) expansion" (發 *fa*) and therefore gains popularity among Chinese. These and other similar expressions tell about cultural beliefs and values of the Chinese, and should be made known to the students, who can then use them, first in simulated, and then in real, communicative situations.

7. Window Decoration

The traditional art of paper cutting is most popularly used in New Year window decoration. Students may learn to papercut simple patterns from demonstrations by invited folk artists or by following instructions in relevant books.

8. Making *jiaozi*

There is no festival without food. A popular food for the New Year is *jiaozi*, whose symbolic meaning is explained under New Year's Eve, above. The teacher may give a demo on how to make *jiaozi* and ask the

students to make some on their own. Where feasible, tasting of other New Year food such as the New Year cake and spring rolls will also enrich students' cultural experience.

Conclusion

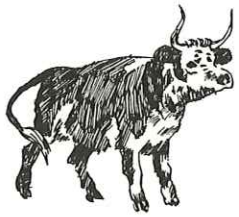
The major themes of the Chinese New Year include thanksgiving, wish for prosperity, newness, and social cohesiveness (kinship, friendship, etc.), which reflect the cultural belief, behaviour, and values (BBV) of the Chinese. On the other hand, music, letters and arts (MLA) are reflected in such festival elements as dragon or lion dances, spring couplets, and papercut window decoration. Such a balance provides not only rich input of cultural content (i.e. what to teach) for the language classroom, but also an appropriate source for enriched language learning activities (i.e. how to teach).

Appendix
Horoscope of the Chinese Zodiac

The Chinese Zodiac consists of a 12-year cycle, with each year names after a different animal that distinctly characterizes its year. Many Chinese believe that the year of a person's birth is the primary factor determining that person's personality throughout his lifetime. To learn about your Animal Sign, find the year of your birth in the sequence below.

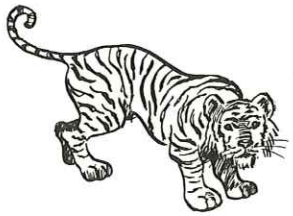
Mouse/Rat

1936, 1948, 1960, 1972, 1984, 1996. You are ambitious yet honest. You like to invent things and are a good artist. Prone to spend freely. Most compatible with Dragons and Monkeys; least compatible with Horses.



Ox

1937, 1949, 1961, 1973, 1985, 1997. You are dependable, patient, and bright, with strong ideas to inspire others. You can be happy by yourself, yet make an outstanding parent. Marry a Snake or a Rooster. The Sheep will bring trouble.



Tiger

1938, 1950, 1962, 1974, 1986, 1998. You are aggressive, courageous. candid, and sensitive. People respect you for your deep thoughts and courageous actions. Look to the Horse and Dog for happiness.Beware of the Monkey.

Rabbit

1939, 1951, 1963, 1975,1987, 1999. Luckiest of all signs, you are talented, good-natured and articulate. Affectionate yet shy, you seek peace throughout your life. Marry a Sheep or Pig. Your opponent is the Rooster.

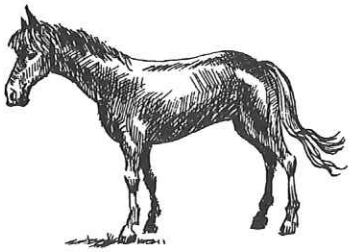
Dragon

1940, 1952, 1964, 1976, 1988, 2000. Healthy, energetic, and passionate, you make a good friend because you listen to others carefully. Your life is complex. Marry a Monkey or Rabbit late in life. Avoid the Dog.

Snake

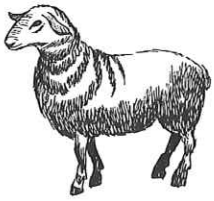
1941, 1953, 1965, 1977, 1989, 2001.

You are wise and a passionate lover of good books, food, music and plays. Though lucky with money, you are vain and high tempered. The Rooster or the Ox is your best sign.



Horse

1942, 1954, 1966, 1978, 1990, 2002. You are hard-working,cheerful, popular and attractive to the opposite sex. Yet you are often ostentatious and impatient. You need people. Marry a Tiger or a Dog early, but never a Mouse.



Sheep

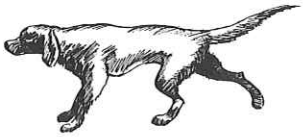
1943, 1955, 1967, 1979, 1991, 2003. Elegant, inquisitive, and creative, you have good taste and make a good artist. Yet you are timid and prefer anonymity. You are most compatible with the Pig and the Rabbit, but never the Ox.

Monkey

1944, 1956, 1968, 1980, 1992, 2004. An enthusiatsic achiever, you are intelligent, funny and good at solving problems. But you are easily discouraged and confused. Avoid Tigers. Seek a Dragon or a Mouse.

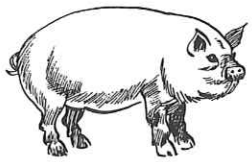
Rooster

1945, 1957, 1969,1981, 1993, 2005 A pioneer in spirit, you are talented, hard-working, and a deep thinker in questing after knowledge. You are selfish and eccentric. Rabbits are trouble.



Dog

1946, 1958, 1970, 1982, 1994, 2006. Loyal, honest and a good secret-keeper, you work well with others. You are generous yet stubborn, and sometimes selfish. Look to the Horse or Tiger. Watch out for Dragons.



Pig

1947, 1959, 1971, 1983, 1995, 2007. Noble, chivalrous and honest, you make a good student for always finishing projects or assignments. Your friends will be lifelong, yet you are prone to marital strife. Avoid other Pigs. Marry a Rabbit or a Sheep.

References

Brooks, N. 1982. "The analysis of foreign and familiar cultures," in R.C. Lafayette, H.B. Atman and R. Schulz, eds., *The Culture Revolution in Foreign Language Teaching,* 19-31. Skokie, Ill.: National Textbook Co.

Cheng, H-T. 1976. *The Chinese New Year.* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Luo, C. 1992. "Culture in vocabulary," in G. Irons and T.S. Paribakht, eds., *Make Changes, Make a Difference,* 171-186. Welland, Ontario: éditions Soleil publishing inc.

Robinson, G.N. 1985. *Crosscultural Understanding.* New York: Pergamon.

Modern Chinese: Beginner's Course, Vol. 3. Beijing: Beijing Language Institute Press.

Traditional Chinese Culture in Taiwan (2nd ed.), 1991. Taipei: Kwang Hwa Publishing Co.

Cheng Luo holds a Ph.D. in Linguistics and TESL from the University of Manitoba. He is currently teaching at Brock University.

How Do You Say "Achoo"?

Michelle Webber

Last year I was struck by the way one of my students referred to sneezing as "achee". This lead to an investigation the results of which is the following light-hearted exercise. As the weather gets colder and colds become more frequent, take a breather from the daily routine and use the following exercise for a bit of cross-cultural sharing.

Ask the students to try and match the sneeze with the language. Once they've done this, follow it up with what North Americans say after a sneeze and then find out what they say to someone they hear sneezing.

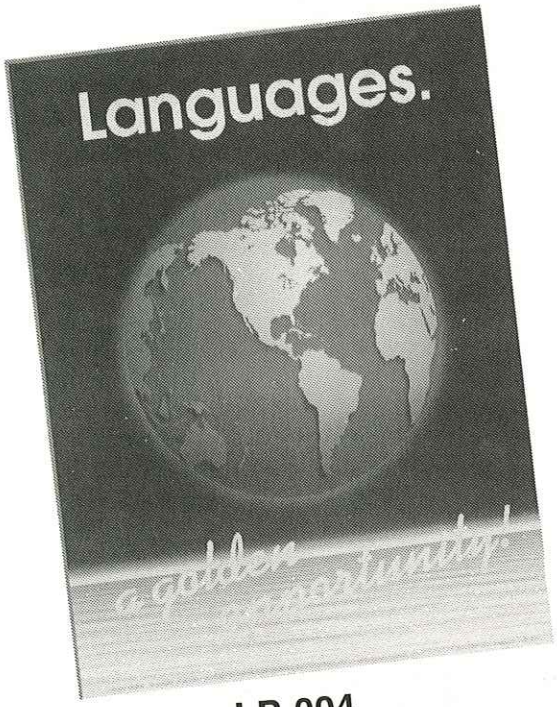
(Note: The sneezes are as close as possible to the phonetic equivalent of what the student said.)

1. achay	A. English
2. achee	B. Farsi
3. achoo	C. French
4. achoom	D. Gujarati
5. achum	F. Hungarian
6. apchiha	F. Mandarin, Cantonese, Vietnamese, Hindi
7. apchik	G. Polish
8. atsee	H. Croatian
9. chhink	I. Somalian
10. chiha	J. Spanish
11. chingk	K. Tamil
12. hapzi	L. Tigrinyi
13. hindisoo	M. Turkishih
14. zeeha	N. Urdu

Editor's Note: Reprinted from *Practical Ideas in the Classroom,* 915 Bathurst St., Toronto, Ontario M5R 3G4. By permission of the Editor.

See p. 5 for answers.

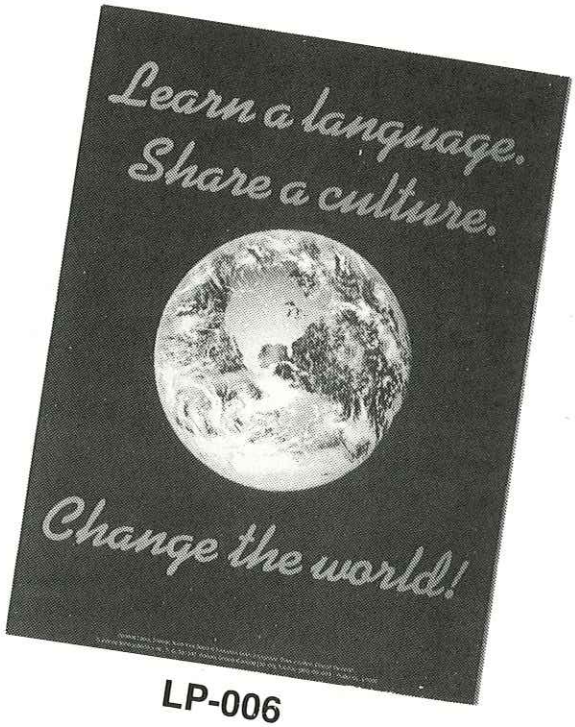
Promote languages with our colour posters!



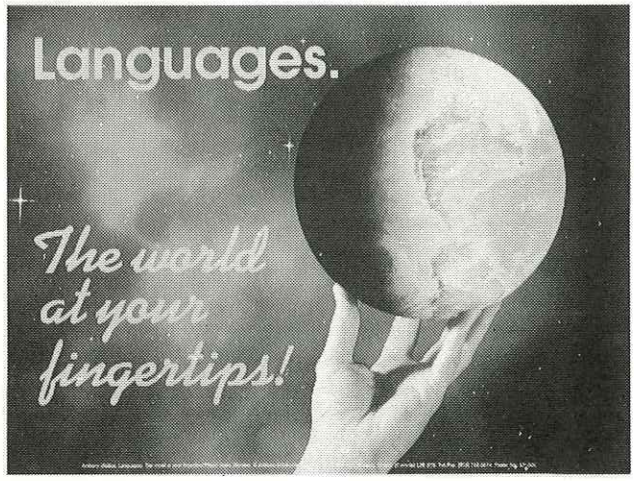
LP-004

Actual size
18"x24"

Ask for our catalogue!



LP-006



LP-005

Cultural Tapestries

folklore ✻ myths and legends from the far reaches of the globe ✻ multicultural tales, fables and stories

Dominie Press offers three new titles that will stir and spark a child's imagination. Stories from cultures around the world integrate the necessary listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Incorporating universal themes, these books will help students develop a better cross-cultural awareness.
Illustrations are magnificent and of a class rarely seen in educational materials, making these books a must for home and school.

Other titles in this series include:
In the Magic Corridor, Beyond the Hidden Door
Through the Eye of the Needle

Bridge Across Asia

Story: Why the Moon Goes Away

ISBN 56270-046-4
$13.95

Bridge Across the Americas

Story: Pedro De Urdemalas and the Magic Cooking Pot

ISBN 56270-017-0
$13.95

A Treasury of Asian Folktales

Story: Sohrab & Rustum

ISBN 56270-054-5
$21.95

PUBLISHING SINCE 1844 150 years gage Educational Publishing Company BEYOND EXPECTATION

Dominie Press materials, available exclusively from:

Gage Educational Publishing Company
164 Commander Blvd., Scarborough, Ontario M1S 3C7
416-293-8464 Fax: 416-293-9009