Mosaic

Anthony Mollica
editor

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

Vol. 5 No. 2 ISSN 1195-7131 Winter 1998

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Conceptual Fluency Theory and Second-Language Teaching

Despite great advances in second-language teaching methodologies over the past fifty years, teachers and students alike still complain that the language they have learned in class lacks the conceptual richness of the native speakers of that language. In order to address this issue, "conceptual fluency" theory has been developed as a target for discussion over the last decade. This article presents an overall explication of this theory with practical illustrations of its viability in several languages.

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Conceptual Fluency Theory and Second-Language Teaching

Marcel Danesi and Anthony Mollica

In order for the student to be able to converse "naturally", in a conceptual accurate manner, Danesi and Mollica propose the application of conceptual metaphor theory to second-language teaching.

Introduction

The second-language classroom today has never before been so sophisticated in terms of instructional methodology and the use of advanced technology. This is because the teaching of second languages has been informed throughout this century by theories and findings coming out of psychology and linguistics, aiming to validate or refute teaching practices. This interplay between the research domain and instructional practices has produced teachers who are among the most informed and pedagogically-knowledgeable teachers of all time. As we approach the end of the twentieth century, it is, in fact, difficult to think of the second-language classroom in high school, college, or university as anything but a highly-advanced learning environment.

So, why is there, despite the apparent sophistication, still so much discussion going on in scholarly journals, and among practitioners, about what to do to make student discourse more native-like? The recent literature has even rekindled an old debate:

- Should we continue to focus on developing in the learner a functional knowledge of the uses of the target language *(communicative competence),* as we have been doing over the last three decades? Or,
- Should we return to the traditional deployment of techniques that aim to foster control of linguistic structure *(linguistic competence)*?

This debate has been reignited, no doubt, because teachers continue to be frustrated by the inability of their students to speak in ways that go beyond the "textbook literalness" of classroom discourse. The nagging and persistent problem of second-language teaching can be articulated as follows:

> Despite considerable research in second-language learning in classroom environments in this century, and despite the many pedagogical applications that such work has made possible, teachers still complain about the fact that the student's autonomous discourse lacks the conceptual accuracy that characterizes native-speaker discourse.

The manifestations of second-language discourse bear witness to

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Founded in 1993 by Anthony Mollica, **Mosaic** is a journal 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 $12.00 each
6 - 50 subscriptions $11.00 each
51+ subscriptions $ 10.00 each

Single copies $4.00. Back issues are available at regular subscription price.
Canadian orders please add 7% GST.
U.S. subscriptions same rate as above in U.S. currency.
Overseas subscriptions $35.00 each (Sent by air mail)
Advertising rates available on request.

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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

Research in Progress

International/Heritage Languages in Canada: The State of the Art

A research project is currently underway, headed by Professor Anthony Mollica, to update the status of International/Heritage Languages at all levels of instruction across Canada. The research received financial support from the Multiculturalism Program, Canadian Heritage.

The research has two main goals:

1. to compile up-to-date statistics on the variety of language programs available, student enrolment, and teacher participation and training, and
2. to define language policies at the levels of provincial and territorial governments, universities and school boards.

The first phase of our research is data gathering. We need your help in this daunting enterprise.

If you are able to provide information on any International/Heritage language program anywhere in Canada, whether it is school-based or community-based, please contact the researcher:

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We are particularly interested in any background information about institutions (school boards, private groups), and associations which offer courses in Heritage/International languages at all levels of instruction.

All information will be gratefully received and credit given to our informants.

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Conceptual Fluency

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the fact that learners have had little or no opportunity to access directly the conceptual structures inherent in the target language and culture.

The purpose of this article is to present an overview of a paradigm that was put forward a few years ago labeled *conceptual fluency theory* (e.g. Danesi 1993a, 1993b, 1994, 1995, Russo 1997) that aimed to address this very problem. Several practical projects applying conceptual fluency theory have been undertaken recently, leading to the development of various textbooks and related materials (Danesi, Lettieri, and Bancheri 1996, Danesi 1998).

In our view, conceptual fluency theory has important implications for methodology, material development and syllabus design in second-language teaching.

The Primary Claim

The notion of conceptual fluency was derived in large part from the research initiated in 1977 by Howard Pollio and his associates which showed that metaphor is hardly a frill in discourse. The average speaker of English, for instance, invents approximately 3000 metaphors per week and employs over 7000 idiomatic forms (Pollio, Barlow, Fine, and Pollio 1977). This discovery led in the 1980s to the development of two significant trends:

1. *conceptual metaphor theory* (Lakoff and Johnson 1980, Lakoff 1987, Johnson 1987), and
2. a branch of linguistics that now comes under the rubric of *cognitive linguistics* (Langacker 1987, 1990. Taylor 1995).

But conceptual fluency theory was also born of classroom experience with student discourse. Over the last seven years, the authors of this article have undertaken several research projects designed to gear second-language teaching in all its components – methodology, materials development, testing, etc. – towards imparting conceptual fluency to the student, without underplaying the roles of both grammatical and communicative competence. The latter two, in fact, are to be considered constituent aspects of verbal fluency. Using these two notions, the problem of second-language teaching enunciated above can now be rephrased as follows:

> While student discourse often manifests a high degree of verbal fluency, it invariably seems to lack the conceptul fluency that characterizes the corresponding discourse of native speakers. To put it another way, students "speak" with the memorized formal and communicative structures of the second language, but they "think" in terms of their native conceptual systems: i.e. students typically use second-language words and communicative protocols as "carriers" of their own native language "concepts." When the native and second-language conceptual systems coincide in an area of discourse, then the student discourse is assessable as "natural"; when they do not, the student discourse manifests an asymmetry between language form and conceptual content. What student discourse often lacks, in other words, is conceptual fluency.

Conceptual Fluency Theory

The research in cognitive linguistics suggests rather strongly that to be conceptually fluent in a language is to know, in large part, how that language "reflects" or encodes concepts on the basis of metaphorical reasoning. This kind of knowledge, like grammatical and communicative (pragmatic) knowledge, is by and large unconscious in native speakers. If one were to speak about "time" in English, our mind would scan conceptual domains that typically reveal metaphorical reasoning. So, if one were to say something like

That job cost me an hour,

the conceptual reasoning enlisted by the speaker can be seen to have the form *time is money.* Of course, the speaker could have enlisted other appropriate metaphorical ideas – e.g.

1. He's wasting my time.
2. That's not worth the time or the effort *(= time is a valuable commodity).*
3. Build in some time for her too. *(= ideas are buildings);* etc. –

or combine them in various ways. The grammatical forms and categories that are used in actual discourse are, according to this line of research (e.g. Lakoff and Johnson 1980), consistently linked cohesively to such metaphorical forms.

> ***Culture is built on metaphor, since conceptual metaphors coalesce into a system of meaning that holds together the entire network of associated meanings in the culture.***

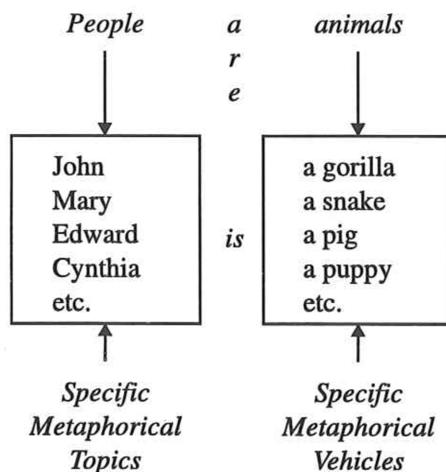
This kind of conceptual programming is exactly what seems to be lacking in student discourse (Danesi 1993a, 1993b, Russo 1997). This implies that students have had little or no opportunity to access the metaphorically-structured conceptual domains inherent in the second language. *Metaphorical competence* – to coin an analogous term to linguistic and communicative competence – is almost completely lacking from second-language learners.

The work on metaphor in anthropology and linguistics over the past three decades (e.g. Dundes 1972, Beck 1982, Lakoff and Johnson 1980, Kšvecses 1986, 1988, 1990, Lakoff 1987, Johnson 1987) has demonstrated the validity of metaphorical competence and thus can be used to sustain the notion of conceptual fluency in second-language acquisition. The implications of this line of research for second-language teaching are quite clear. The cognitive programming of discourse in metaphorical ways is a basic property of native-speaker competence. As a competence, it can be thought about pedagogically in ways that are parallel to the other competencies on which teaching methodology has

traditionally focused (linguistic and communicative).

Particularly influential in getting metaphorical competence onto the agenda of the social and cognitive sciences was George Lakoff and Mark Johnson's 1980 book *Metaphors We Live By.* The innovative claim of that book was that metaphor is the cornerstone of discourse.

First, Lakoff and Johnson assert what Aristotle claimed two millennia before, namely that there are two types of concepts – *concrete* and *abstract.* But the two scholars add a remarkable twist to this Aristotelian notion – namely that abstract concepts are built up systematically from concrete ones through metaphor. They refer to abstract concepts as conceptual metaphors. These are generalized metaphorical formulas that define specific abstractions. For example, the expression "John is a gorilla" is really a token of something more general, namely, *people are animals.* This is why we say that *John* or *Mary* or whoever *is a gorilla, snake, pig, puppy,* and so on. Each specific metaphor ("John is a gorilla," "Mary is a snake," etc.) is not an isolated example of poetic fancy. It is really an example of a more general metaphorical idea – *people are animals.* Such formulas are what Lakoff and Johnson call *conceptual metaphors*:



Each of the two parts of the *conceptual metaphor* is called a *domain: people* is called the *target domain* because it is the abstract topic itself (the "target" of the conceptual metaphor); and *animals* is called the *source domain* because it is the class of vehicle that delivers the metaphor (the "source" of the metaphorical concept). An *abstract concept* can now be defined simply as a "mapping" of one domain onto the other. This model suggests that abstract concepts are formed systematically through such mappings and that specific metaphors are traces to the target and source domains. So, when we hear people talking, for instance, of ideas in terms of geometrical figures and relations –

1. Those ideas are *circular.*
2. I don't see the *point* of your idea.
3. Her ideas are *central* to the discussion.
4. Their ideas are *diametrically* opposite. etc. –

we can now easily identify the two domains as *ideas* (= target domain) and *geometrical figures/relations* (= source domain) and, therefore, the conceptual metaphor as: *ideas are geometrical figures and relations.*

Conceptual metaphors pervade common discourse. A few examples will suffice to make this evident.

Happiness is up/ Sadness is down

1. Today she's feeling *up.*
2. Generally she feels *down.*
3. His comment *boosted* my spirits.
4. My mood *sank* after she told me what happened.
5. His joke gave me a *lift.*

Health and life are up/ Sickness and death are down

1. Everyone in my family is at the *peak* of health.
2. Unfortunately, my cousin *fell* ill.
3. My job is an *uphill* struggle.
4. Lazarus *rose* from the dead.
5. They're *sinking* fast.

Light is knowledge/ Dark is ignorance

1. The whole class was *illuminated* by that professor.
2. I was left in the *dark* about what happened.
3. Her explanation is very *clear.*
4. Quantum theory is *obscure.*
5. His example *shed light* on several matters.

Theories are buildings

1. Hers is a *well-constructed* theory.
2. His theory too is on solid *ground.*
3. But that theory needs more *support.*
4. Otherwise the theory will *collapse* under criticism.
5. Alexander put together the *framework* of a very interesting theory.

Ideas and theories are plants

1. My professor's ideas have come to *fruition.*
2. That's a *budding* theory.
3. Plato's ideas have contemporary *offshoots.*
4. That idea has become a *branch* of mathematics.

Ideas are commodities

1. My friend certainly knows how to *package* his ideas.
2. However, that idea just won't *sell.*
3. There's no *market* for that idea.
4. That's a *worthless* idea.

As Lakoff and Johnson emphasize, we do not detect the presence of metaphor in such common expressions because of repeated usage. We no longer interpret the word see in sentences such as

1. I don't see what you mean.
2. Do you see what I'm saying?

in metaphorical terms, because its use in such expressions has become so familiar to us. But the association between the biological act of seeing outside the body with the imaginary act of seeing within the mind was originally the source of the conceptual metaphor seeing is understanding/believing/thinking, which now permeates common discourse:

1. There is more to this than *meets the eye.*

2. I have a different *point of view.*
3. It all depends on how you *look* at it.
4. I take a *dim view* of the whole matter.
5. I never *see eye to eye* on things with you.
6. You have a different *worldview* than I do.
7. Your ideas have given me great *insight* into life.

The next important point made by Lakoff and Johnson is that there are three general kinds of psychological processes involved in conceptualization:

1. Mental orientation
2. Conceptualization process
3. An elaboration of the two above

1. Mental orientation

The first psychological process involves mental orientation. This produces concepts that are derived from our physical experiences of up vs. down, back vs. front, near vs. far, etc. For example, the experience of *up vs. down* underlies such conceptual metaphors as:

- *Happiness is up* = I'm feeling up.
- *Sadness is down* = She's feeling down today.
- *More is up* = My income rose (went up) last year.
- *Less is down* = Her salary went down when she changed jobs.

In later work, Lakoff and Johnson referred to orientational patterns such as *up vs. down, near vs. far,* etc. as *image schemas* (Lakoff 1987, Johnson 1987). These are defined as largely unconscious mental outlines of recurrent shapes, actions, dimensions, etc. that derive from perception and sensation. Image schemas are so deeply rooted that we are hardly ever aware of their control over conceptualization. But they can always be conjured up easily. If someone were to ask you to explain an idiom such as *spill the beans,* you would not likely have a conscious image schema involving beans and the action of spilling them. However, if that same person were to ask you the following questions

1. Where were the beans before they were spilled?
2. How big was the container?
3. Was the spilling on purpose or accidental? etc.

then you would no doubt start to visualize the appropriate schema; that is, you would see the beans as kept in a container; the container as being about the size of the human head; etc.

2. Conceptualization process

The second type of conceptualization process, according to Lakoff and Johnson, involves *ontological* thinking. This produces conceptual metaphors in which activities, emotions, ideas, etc. are associated with entities and substances:

1. *Time is a valuable commodity* = That is not worth my time.
2. *The mind is a container* = I'm full of memories.
3. *Anger is fluid in a container* = You make my blood boil.

3. An elaboration of the two above

The third type of process is an *elaboration* of the other two. This produces *structural metaphors* that distend orientational and ontological concepts. A *structural metaphor* is a conceptual metaphor built from existing conceptual metaphors of an orientational or ontological nature: for example, the structural metaphor *time is a resource* is built from *time is a resource = a quantity*:

- *Argument is war* = I demolished his argument.
- *Labor is a resource* = He was consumed by his job.
- *Time is a resource* = Time is money.

To get a firmer sense of how such abstract concepts shape discourse, consider the *argument is war* metaphor. The target domain of *argument* is conceptualized in terms of *warlike activities* (the source domain), and thus in terms

- of battles that can be won or lost,
- of positions that can be attacked or guarded,
- of ground that can be gained or lost,
- of lines of attack that can be abandoned or defended,
- and so on.

These warlike images are so embedded in our mind that we do not normally realize that they guide our perception of arguments. But they are nonetheless there, surfacing regularly in such common expressions as the following:

1. Your claims are *indefensible.*
2. You *attacked* all my *weak points.*
3. Your criticisms were *right on target.*
4. I *demolished* his argument.
5. I've never *won* an argument.
6. She *shot down* all my points.
7. If you use that *strategy,* I'll *wipe you out.*

The last relevant point made by Lakoff and Johnson in their truly fascinating book is that culture is built on metaphor, since conceptual metaphors coalesce into a system of meaning that holds together the entire network of associated meanings in the culture. This is accomplished by a kind of "higher-order" metaphorizing – that is, as target domains are associated with many kinds of source domains (orientational, ontological, structural), the concepts they underlie become increasingly more complex, leading to what Lakoff and Johnson call *cultural* or *cognitive models.* To see what this means, consider the target domain of *ideas* again.

The following three conceptual metaphors, among many others, deliver the meaning of this concept in three separate ways:

Ideas are food

1. Those ideas left a *sour taste* in my mouth.
2. It's hard to *digest* all those ideas at once.
3. Even though he is a *voracious* reader, he can't *chew* all those ideas.
4. That teacher is always *spoon-feeding* her students.
5. That idea has *deep roots.*

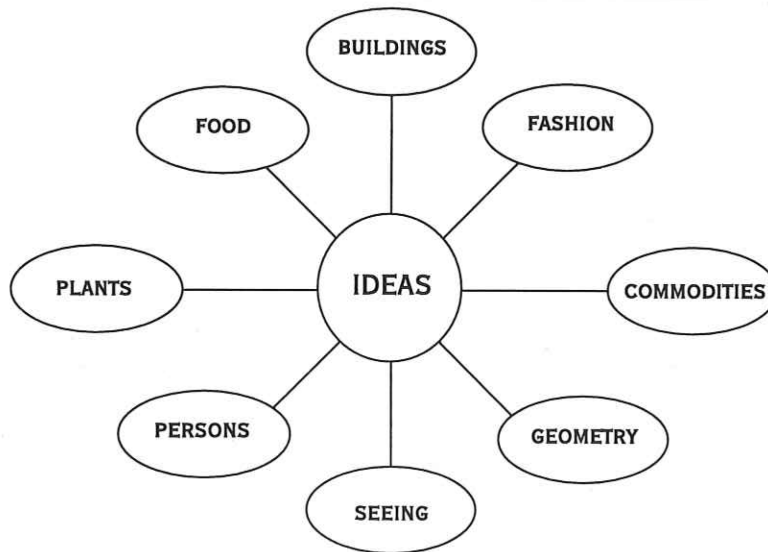


Figure 1

Ideas are persons

1. Darwin is the *father* of modern biology.
2. Those medieval ideas continue to *live on* even today.
3. Cognitive linguistics is still in its *infancy.*
4. Maybe we should *resurrect* that ancient idea.
5. She *breathed* new life into that idea.

Ideas are fashion

1. That idea went out of *style* several years ago.
2. Those scientists are the *avant garde* of their field.
3. Those revolutionary ideas are no longer in *vogue.*
4. Semiotics has become truly *chic.*
5. That idea is old *hat.*

Recall from examples of everyday discourse cited above that there are many other ways of conceptualizing ideas – for example, in terms of *buildings, plants, commodities, geometry,* and *seeing.* The constant juxtaposition of such conceptual formulas in common discourse produces, cumulatively, a *cultural model* of ideas (see Figure 1).

The gist of Lakoff and Johnson's 1980 work is that metaphor is at the basis of abstract thought and common discourse, although we are largely unaware of its presence.

Everything written in this essay, too, has been structured by metaphorical cultural models. These have served us well in exposing the subject matter of semiotics. So, too, with every verbal text.

Metaphor is at the basis of abstract thought and common discourse, although we are largely unaware of its presence.

There are, of course, other figures of speech that occur in everyday discourse. But following Lakoff and Johnson's discovery of conceptual metaphors, these are now considered subcategories of the general process of metaphorization. Nevertheless, there are two that are regularly studied separately – *metonymy* and *irony* – because of their particular semantic characteristics.

Metonymy is the use of an entity to refer to another that is related to it:

1. She likes to read *Emily Dickinson.* (= the writings of Emily Dickinson).
2. He's in *dance.* (= the dancing profession).
3. My mom frowns on *blue jeans.* (= the wearing of blue jeans).
4. New *windshield wipers* will satisfy him. (= the state of having new wipers).

Synecdoche is a particular type of metonymy; it is the use of the part to represent the whole:

1. The *automobile* is destroying our health. (= the collection of automobiles).
2. We need a couple of *strong bodies* for our teams. (= strong people).
3. I've got a new *set of wheels.* (= car).
4. We need *new blood* in this organization. (= new people).

A conceptual formula of this type that requires special mention is: *the face is the person:*

1. He's just another *pretty face.*
2. There are an awful lot of *faces* in the audience.
3. We need some new *faces* around here.

It is interesting to note that metaphorical and metonymic cultural models permeate other facets of cultural expression and behaviour. The *face is the person* concept, for instance, also crystallizes in the nonverbal domain, especially in the art of portraiture. In other words, conceptual metaphors surface not only in common discourse, but also in nonverbal codes, rituals, and behaviours as well. The metaphorical formula *justice is blind,* for example, crops up not only in conversations, but also in pictorial representations. This is why there are statues of blindfolded women inside courtrooms to symbolize *justice.* The metaphorical expression *the scales of justice,* too, is evident in the sculptures of scales near or inside justice buildings. Similarly, the *love is a sweet taste* concept finds expression not only in discourse

1. She's my *sweetheart.*
2. I love my *honey.* etc.

but in rituals of love-making in Western culture. This is why sweets are given to a loved one on St. Valentine's day, why matrimonial love is symbolized at a wedding ceremony by the eating of a cake, why lovers sweeten their breaths with candy before kissing, and so on. Any ritualistic display of *love* will depend on what con-

cept people infer to be more representative of a specific situation; for example, at weddings the *sweetness* concept would probably be seen to fit the situation; whereas the *physical attraction* concept would most likely be considered pertinent during other kinds of courtship performances.

Concepts and Grammar

The above discussion lays the basis for an outline of conceptual fluency theory in second-language teaching. But the question that now arises is whether or not conceptual fluency teaching is really no more than a fancy term for the study of idiomatic expressions. First, as the above examples show, the use of metaphor in discourse is not an idiomatic option. It is the basis of abstract conceptualization, forming a system of thought that permeates all of discourse. Second, conceptual fluency teaching has been extended to provide a framework for relating grammatical categories to metaphorical concepts (Langacker 1990, Taylor 1995, Danesi 1998).

The use of metaphor in discourse is not an idiomatic option. It is the basis of abstract conceptualization, forming a system of thought that permeates all of discourse.

As a concrete example of how the two areas are interrelated, consider the use of the prepositions since and for in sentences such as the following in English:

1. I have been living here *since* 1980.
2. I have known Lucy *since* November.
3. I have not been able to sleep *since* Monday.

1. I have been living here *for* fifteen years.
2. I have known Lucy *for* nine months.
3. I have not been able to sleep *for* five days.

An analysis of the complements that follow *since* or *for* reveals that those that follow *since* are "points in time," i.e. they are complements that reflect a conception of time as a "point" on a "timeline" which shows specific years, months, etc.: "1980," "November," "Monday," etc. Complements that follow *for*, on the other hand, reflect a conception of time as a "quantity": "fifteen years," "nine months," "five days," etc. These two conceptual domains – *time is a point* and *time is a quantity* – have an underlying metaphorical form, reflecting a propensity to imagine an abstract notion like "time" in terms of something concrete. These can now be seen to have a specific effect at the level of syntax by motivating a grammatical dichotomy – complements introduced by *since* are reflexes of the conceptual domain *time is a point*; those introduced by *for* are reflexes of the conceptual domain *time is a (measurable) quantity.* This is, in fact, the kind of rule of grammar that conceptual fluency teaching makes possible – it now relates how two specific domains of conceptualization have worked their way into the grammar. In a word, this rule stipulates how a grammatical dichotomy reflects a conceptual dichotomy. In French, Italian, and Spanish, on the other hand, this rule does not exist; *depuis, da* and *desde,* respectively, is used in both instances:

French

J'habite ici *depuis* 1980.

J'habite ici *depuis* quinze ans.

Italian

Vivo qui *dal* 1980.

Vivo qui da quindici anni.

Spanish

Vivo aquí *desde* 1980

Vivo aquí desde quince años.

and so on. Our claim is that students will be in a better position to avoid making typical "errors" such as

French

*J'habite ici pour quinze ans.

Italian

*Vivo qui per quindici anni.

Spanish

*Vivo aquí por quince años.

only when they learn to conceptualize "time" in French,Italian, or Spanish, appropriately, grasping the conceptual differences between "time in English" and "time in French, Italian, or Spanish". Explaining the phenomenon of *depuis, da* and *desde* in such cases in any other way (e.g. in grammatical or lexical terms) will continue, in our view, to prove ineffectual.

Take, as one other example, the selection of certain verbs in particular types of sentences in French, Italian and Spanish. The verb *faire, fare* and *hacer* "to make" is used to convey a weather situation

Il fait chaud. Il fait froid.

Fa caldo. Fa freddo

Hace calor. Hace frío.

(literally) "it makes hot","it makes cold." The physical state of "hotness" and "coldness" is conveyed instead by the verb *être, essere* and *estar* "to be" when referring to objects

French

L'eau *est* chaude.

L'eau *est* froide.

Italian

L'acqua *è* calda.

L'acqua *è* fredda.

Spanish

El agua *está* caliente.

El agua *está* fría.

by *avoir, avere* and *tener* "to have" when referring to people.

French

Il *a* chaud. Il *a* froid.,

Italian

Ha caldo. *Ha* freddo.

Spanish

Tiene calor. *Tiene* frío.

The use of one verb or the other

faire, être, avoir

fare, essere, avere

hacer, estar, tener

is motivated by an underlying metaphorical conceptualization of bodies and the environment as containers. So, the "containment context" in which the quality of "coldness" or "hotness" is located determines the verbal category to be employed. If it is in the environ-

ment, it is "made" by Nature (*Il fait chaud. Fa freddo. Hace frío*); if it is in a human being, then the body "has" it (*Il a froid. Ha freddo. Tiene frío.*); and if it is in an object, then the object "is" its container (*L'eau est froide. L'acqua è fredda. El agua está fría.*)

Knowledge of such differentiated reflexive properties is what guides competent translators implicitly when they convert one language text into another successfully.

The point to be made here is that our unconsciously-embedded concept of "time" as a "point on a line" and as a "quantity," or of "hotness" and "coldness" as being contained in Nature, people, or things, constitute conceptual domains that have reflexes or leave reflexes in the grammars of specific languages. Knowledge of such differentiated reflexive properties is what guides competent translators implicitly when they convert one language text into another successfully. Grammar in conceptual fluency teaching is definable, therefore, as a system that reflects the underlying conceptual system guiding thought and language.

As a final consideration, any refinement or elaboration of the notion of "reflexive grammatical rule" will have to take into account the presence of different "orders" of metaphor. Take, for instance, the following conceptual models of "ideas." These models are represented by an instance frequently in common discourse by utterances such as the following:

Model 1:

ideas/thoughts are food

1. What he said left a *bitter taste* in my mouth.
2. I cannot *digest* all that information.
3. He is a *voracious* reader.
4. We do not need *to spoon feed* our students.
5. That idea has been *fermenting* in me for years.

Model 2:

ideas/thoughts are people

1. Darwin is the *father* of modern biology.
2. Medieval ideas are *alive* and *well.*
3. Artificial Intelligence is still in its *infancy.*
4. That idea should be *resurrected.*
5. She *breathed* new life into that idea.

Model 3:

ideas/thoughts are clothing/fashion

1. That idea is not *in vogue* any longer.
2. New York has become a center for *avant garde* thinking.
3. Revolution is *out of style* these days.
4. Studying semiotics has become quite *chic.*
5. That idea is old *hat.*

These sentences suggest that we conceptualize thought processes as extensions or analogues of physical objects and people. Thoughts, like food, can be taken into the mind, like clothing can be in style or not, and so on. Often, however, the conceptual process involves reference to other pre-established conceptual domains, such as, for instance, those based on Euclidean geometry:

Model 4:

thoughts are geometrical figures

1. I don't see the *point* of your idea.
2. Your ideas are *tangential* to what I'm thinking.
3. Those ideas are logically *circular.*

These examples show that there are different degrees or "orders" of concepts. The *ideas are food* model, for example, is a lower-order concept because it connects a universal physical process – *eating* – to an abstraction – *thinking* – directly. But, the *thoughts are geometrical figures* model reveals a higher-order conceptualization, since geometrical figures and notions are themselves concepts.

In terms of second-language teaching, the idea would be at first to identify and catalogue the vehicles that underlie specific topics, and then match them to the grammatical categories that reflect them. So, for instance, when analyzing sentences that allude to the "hotness" or "coldness" in French, Italian or Spanish (the topic), it will be necessary to keep in mind how the conceptualization of hotness/coldness as substances that are contained in specific contexts (the vehicles) is codified into a selection rule involving the verbs *faire, avoir,* and *être – fare, avere, essere – hacer, tener. estar* – (including relevant morphological information). It is interesting to note that in French, Italian, and Spnaish "being right", "being sleepy", etc. are also conceptualized as "contained" substances. This is why to say "I am right," "I am sleepy," etc. in French, Italian and Spanish one must say

French:

J'ai raison.

J'ai sommeil.

Italian:

Ho ragione.

Ho sonno.

Spanish:

Tengo razón.

Tengo sueño.

Pedagogical Implications

Research conducted previously on university students of Italian (Danesi 1992, 1993a) suggests that typical classroom learners show virtually no traces of metaphorical competence, even after several years of study. The reason for this is not that they are incapable of learning metaphor, but more likely that they have never been exposed in formal ways to the conceptual system of the target language and culture. To be "conceptually fluent" in the second language the student must be able to convert common experiences into conceptually and linguistically appropriate models. At the present time there seems to be very little in

second-language methodology that takes this into account.

Metaphorical competence is as teachable as linguistic or communicative competence. It can be claimed, in fact, that this can be done by simply structuring designated units of study around conceptual domains (time, weather, love, etc.), and then by teaching the appropriate grammar and communication patterns of the language as "reflexes" of these domains. If the grammatical system is viewed as a reflexive code of an underlying conceptual system, then a radical rethinking of the second-language classroom will have to be envisaged.

Actually, suggestions exist in the relevant pedagogical literature which we think fit in nicely with the idea of conceptual fluency. Masella and Portner (1981), for instance, show how the term *capo* for "head" can be taught as the onceptual source for *capostazione, capoluogo* and *capo d'anno; naso* ("nose") as the source for *ficcanaso, annusare,* etc. Nuessel and Cicogna (1993) suggest simply presenting students with metaphorical statements – e.g. *Lui è una volpe* ("He's a fox") – and then following this up with questions designed to unravel the conceptual structure of the statements:

- What activities are common to both elements in the metaphor? (verbs)
- How are these activities carried out? (adverbs)
- What characteristics do both elements possess? (adjectives)? (Nuessel and Cicogna 1993: 324).

And Maiguashca (1988) shows how contrasting native-language metaphorical vehicles with the target language will prove to be effective in imparting conceptual fluency,

A Practical Example

In preparing instructional methodology or materials focusing on conceptual fluency, teachers should first examine the concepts to be taught. Let us take, as a case in point, the theme of "sports" in Italian. The first step is to identify the main conceptual domains that allow native speakers to deliver this concept in discourse. The following seven examples coincide with English conceptual domains (see Figure 2).

This informs the teacher that in order for students to talk or write in a conceptually-natural way about *sport* in Italian, they will have to be exposed to these domains, which cohere into the following cultural model that the student must acquire (see Figure 3).

After this initial analysis, the rest consists in straightforward traditional pedagogy: i.e. the teacher would want to do such things as:

- prepare dialogues that exemplify this model;
- expose the students to actual sports broadcasts; highlighting how this model is employed;
- prepare exercise and activity material, whereby the students must identify the domains and explain them;
- require the students to write their own sportscast using the above as a framework;
- etc.

So, for instance, when teaching English-speaking students about the weather in Italian (the topic), it will be necessary:

1. to inform them about the conceptualization of hotness/coldness as substances that are contained in specific contexts (the vehicles);
2. to teach them how to use the verbs *fare, avere,* and *essere* as reflexes of the vehicles (including relevant morphosyntactic information);
3. to develop appropriate textual and practice materials based on this explanatory framework.

Considerations

There are many similar ways in which conceptual-fluency teaching can be incorporated into classroom practice. Shibles (1989), too, has shown how easily metaphorical vehicles for emotion in German can be compared to English ones for pedagogical purposes in ways that are very similar to the ones suggested here. But in our view, the most significant implication of conceptual-fluency teaching is in the area of syllabus design. How can a conceptually-based syllabus be organized? In our view, the main idea would be to identify and catalogue the conceptual domains that deliver specific topics in discourse, together with a "reflexive" analysis of the grammatical/communicative categories that encode them. This entails the development of appropriate techniques for identifying grammatical and semantic units in terms of the conceptual domains they reflect. A "conceptual syllabus" would, then, connect the

CONCEPTUAL DOMAIN	EXAMPLES IN ACTUAL DISCOURSE
fortuna *(luck)*	Quella squadra è *fortunata.* La loro vincita è *imprevedibile.*
guerra *(war)*	Quella squadra è stata *sconfitta.* Quella squadra ha un buon attacco e una buona *tattica.* Quella partita è stata una *battaglia*
gioco *(game)*	Che bella *mossa*! Quella squadra ha *centrato.*
economia *(economy)*	Quella squadra ha *incassato* dei gol. Quella squadra ha *pagato* il gol.
alimentazione *(food)*	Quella squadra ha una *fame* di vincere. Loro sono *digiuni* di vittorie.
scienza *(science)*	Sono giocatori *sperimentati.*

Figure 2

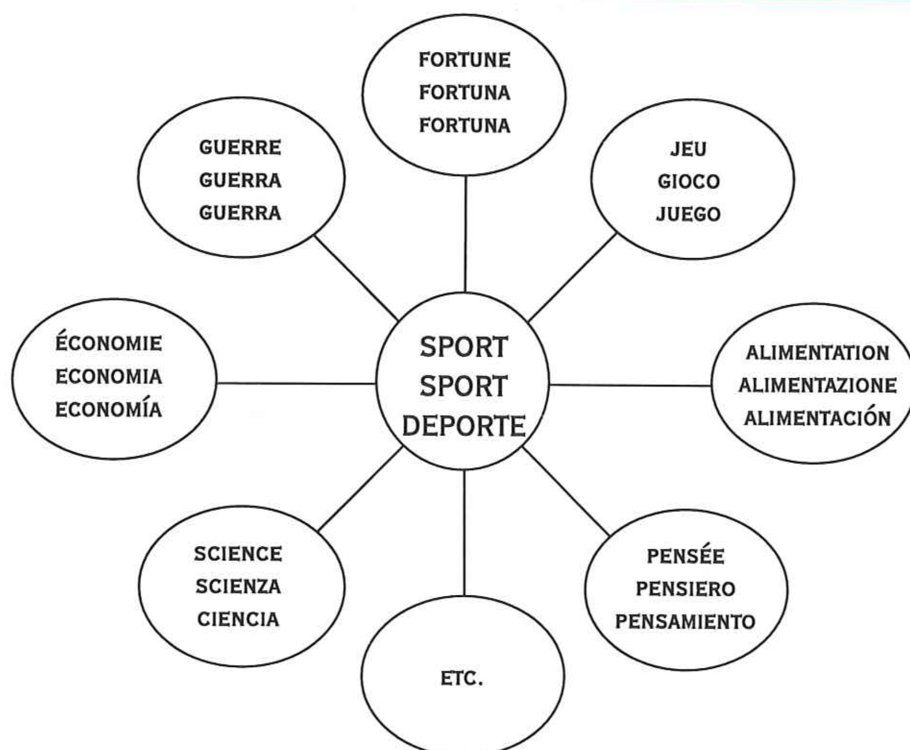


Figure 3

verbal categories to be learned with their related conceptual domains.

Actually, the idea of making concepts the basis for the teaching syllabus was forged by the so-called "notional-functional" theorists of the early '70s (e.g. Van Ek 1975, Wilkins 1976), who deployed speech-act and notional typologies as the organizing frameworks for developing the syllabus (and more recently for developing reading skills [see also Kaplan 1978, Piper 1985, Grabe 1991, Leki 1991 on this point]). Throughout the 1970s, and for most of the 1980s, this new functionalism in language teaching was greeted with widespread enthusiasm throughout Europe and America. Unlike the traditional grammar-based methods, it provided the teacher with greater room for imparting conceptual fluency. But now that the wave of enthusiasm has passed, it has become obvious that notional-functional teaching leaves many gaps to fill and many important questions unanswered. In our view, the main problem with the "notions" delineated by the notional-functional theorists was that they were not conceived in terms of conceptual-fluency teaching. The teacher was simply given a typology of the notions with verbal illustrations. A conceptual-fluency analysis, such as the ones illustrated in this paper, was never envisaged by the functional-notional methodologists. This is not to belittle the excellent work done by those theorists. The research on metaphor that has now become so widely known was really not available to them at the time.

Conceptual-fluency teaching also entails a re-deployment of contrastive analysis as a heuristic pedagogical technique. In its original form, contrastive analysis came to be accepted both as a theory of second-language acquisition and as an organizing principle around which to plan for language teaching. The view was that the native language was a template used by the learner for deciphering and organizing the linguistic and communicative categories of the target language. Perhaps the greatest problem with contrastive analysis is that it portrays the process of second-language acquisition solely in terms of a flow from the native to the target language, assigning no active role to the role of conceptualization in this process.

With or without contrastive analysis, modern instructional techniques have been rather successful in training language learners to gain a firm control over grammar and communication. So, the issue of whether grammatical syllabi and formalistic instructional styles are more or less productive than communicative or functional ones is, in our view, a moot one.

By documenting and analyzing many student discourse errors on the basis of their conceptual appropriateness, we envision the contrastive technique to be used as rather straightforward. Rather than contrasting verbal structures on their own, it will be necessary to contrast them in terms of the conceptual domains they reflect.

As Savignon (1992) has suggested, it is perhaps more appropriate, and certainly more useful, to think of the two kinds of syllabi as cooperative and complementary contributors to second-language acquisition in the classroom, not as antagonistic or mutually exclusive competitors. Both these kinds of knowledge, as mentioned, are part of verbal fluency. We believe that contrastive analysis will come to have an increasingly larger role to play in the future for studying conceptual systems, not verbal ones. By documenting and analyzing many student discourse errors on the basis of their conceptual appropriateness, we envision the contrastive technique to be used as rather straightforward. Rather than contrasting verbal structures on their own, it will be necessary to contrast them in terms of the conceptual domains they reflect. The errors that result from the unconscious transfer of conceptual formulas can be labeled "concep-

tual transfers" (Danesi and Di Pietro 1991: 55).

An important question for future research would thus seem to be: *To what extent do the conceptual domains of the native and target cultures overlap and contrast?* The notion of conceptual fluency, therefore, provides second-language acquisition researchers with a convenient category for viewing certain aspects of interlanguage behaviour that cannot be explained in other ways, such as, for example, the common observation that student-produced discourse texts seem to follow a native-language conceptual flow that is "clothed", so to speak, in target-language grammar and vocabulary. The questions that a conceptually-focused conceptual analysis would ask are therefore:

- What kinds of conceptual interferences come from the student's native conceptual system? (interconceptual interference)
- How much conceptual interference is generated by the target language itself? (intraconceptual interference)?

Concluding Remarks

The second-language teacher wishing to make conceptual fluency the primary focus of teaching should take a number of things into consideration.

1. The materials chosen for a course should reflect a learning flow that starts with experiential learning techniques and ends with more analytical tasks. This sets up a learning flow from conceptualization to verbalization.
2. The teacher will always have to consider which grammatical and semantic categories reflect conceptual structures or domains. The guiding question becomes: *What are the verbal clues that reveal conceptual domains?* In this paper, the prepositions *since* and *for* were related to the conceptual system as reflexes of differentiated conceptual metaphors: *time is a point* and *time is a quantity*. The work on cognitive grammar by Langacker (e.g. 1987, 1990) and others is leading the way in showing us how to conduct extensive analyses of this type.
3. To what extent and in what ways, if any, conceptual fluency relates to, or is embedded in, the native speaker's world knowledge? It must always be kept in mind that metaphorically-shaped knowledge is probably just one possible form in which knowledge of the world is encoded and decoded by humans. As Levin (1988: 10) has aptly remarked, there appear to be many modes of knowledge:

   > innate knowledge, personal knowledge, tacit knowledge, spiritual knowledge, declarative and procedural knowledge, knowing that and knowing how, certitude (as well as certainty), and many other varieties.

   The more appropriate goal for the teacher should be, therefore, to determine to what extent language is based on conceptual knowledge and to what extent it is based on other forms of knowledge.
4. If concepts are to be placed at the core of language courses and curricula, on what basis should they be selected and sequenced? In our view, the conceptual syllabus should be integrated with grammatical and communicative syllabi, since these latter two can be seen to reflect it. As mentioned, units in a textbook, for instance, could be planned around topics such as "time," "love," "health," and then drafted with the "reflexive principle" in mind: i.e. with the idea that language structures (verbal tenses, prepositions, etc.) "reflect" conceptual ones.

The idea of incorporating conceptual-fluency teaching into second-language teaching is meant to be a target for further consideration and research. Not all domains of language and language learning are tied to the conceptual system, as it has been defined here. The interlanguage studies have amply documented error phenomena that are purely grammatical, communicative, etc. We should, of course, continue to assess the role played by such mechanisms in the overall process of classroom language teaching. However, in our view the notion of conceptual fluency can no longer be ignored. The work of Lakoff and Johnson and others has shown that there is a systematicity to metaphorical concepts. The process of learning the conceptual system is, arguably, identical to the one enlisted for learning grammar and communication. To ignore metaphor is to ignore a large segment of the native-speaker's competence.

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Cooperative Learning and Second-Language Teaching: Frequently Asked Questions

George M. Jacobs, Charles C. Gilbert, Lucilla Lopriore, Sue Goldstein, Rosy Thiyagarajali

At the 1997 TESOL convention held in Orlando, Florida, the first four authors hosted a Breakfast Seminar at which about 45 other teachers joined to discuss frequently-asked questions about Cooperative Learning. The article summarizes the discussion of that Seminar.

Since the late 1980s, ESL/FL teachers interested in Cooperative Learning (Holt, 1993; Kessler, 1992; Lopriore, 1996) have come together to share ideas at the annual convention of the International TESOL organization. The 1997 convention was no exception.

Below is a list of the questions we discussed and the responses we received. Before and after the convention, we showed our list of questions to others and added their responses. The fifth author added her own views as well as helping to compile those of others. We included everyone's responses, even when one response seemed to contradict a previous one. Teachers must make their own decision based on their own particular teaching situation and their own beliefs about education (Jacobs, Gan, and Ball, 1997).

How can we cover the syllabus if we use Cooperative Learning? Doesn't it take more time to cover the same amount of material compared to when a teacher-fronted mode is used?

1. In Europe, few countries use participatory school activities. Thus, Cooperative Learning is slower at first because teachers need to learn how to use it and need to spend time incorporating it into their lessons, and students need time to learn to collaborate and become familiar with various Cooperative Learning techniques. However, Cooperative Learning is quicker and more efficient later.
2. Active learning strategies, such as Cooperative Learning, are much better than lecture alone for improving long-term retention, changing attitudes, improving problem-solving skills, developing collaborative skills. Thus, the long-term gain is worth the initial effort and time.
3. The syllabus should be rethought to include objectives for lifelong learning such as "learning to work with others." In that way, doing Cooperative Learning would, even more, be seen as covering the syllabus.
4. With Cooperative Learning we don't need as much repetition of points and examples of the points in order to provide reinforcement, because the reinforcement comes in the group activities (David L. Smith, Feb. 5, 1997).
5. Cooperative Learning is more efficient because students can read the book or the lecture notes themselves. Why waste class time on that? What is more difficult for students to do in class is to take part in structured activities, with teacher support. They can't do that out of class.
6. In the traditional classroom, students learn that they don't have to read the assigned materials; the teacher will cover all the important stuff anyway. With Cooperative Learning, class time can be spent on trouble spots and going beyond the information given, e.g., application (David L. Smith, Feb. 5, 1997).
7. Cooperative Learning apparently takes more time, but in the long run we can see how things speed up, as students become more successful and more enthusiastic about learning.
8. Individualized activities, such as grammar practice, can be done outside of class, e.g., at a self-access centre or on the computer. In that way, more class time is saved for activities which promote interaction, such as Cooperative Learning activities.
9. Concern about time is mainly our problem, not students'. We tend to forget they've got a different learning pace. Do our students really think they are "losing" time doing Cooperative Learning? They lose time only if they do not actually learn. The question should, then, be restated as "Do students learn more deeply and effectively when exposed to Cooperative Learning?"

How long (days, weeks, months, years) should Cooperative Learning groups stay together?

1. Changing groups frequently helps students get to know everyone in the class.
2. Long-term groups help students learn to work out problems, build group identity (via group name, flag, motto, handshake, etc.), and work on in depth projects. They also help students establish support networks. Sharon J. Gerow (Feb. 5,. 1997) recounts one approach that worked well was that when a

student asked to be changed because they couldn't get along with a groupmate, she said that she would change them to a different group as soon as they learned to work with that other student.

3. When groups last more than one day, procedures need to be in place to deal with absent students.
4. Long- and short-term groups can be used simultaneously. In other words, students can be a member of two groups at once. For example, students might be in one group to do a project which lasts a month, but at the same time in another group for a day to work on reading skills.
5. Base groups (Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec, 1993) are long-term groups that last at least a semester and preferably for a number of years. Their purpose is not to work on projects or prepare for tests. Instead, they provide support and motivation, meeting regularly to see how each other is doing in school. Base groups members are like good friends with an academic focus. So, for example, if a student misses class, their base group members collect the handout and homework for them.
6. At the other extreme, an informal group can exist for just 15 minutes. For example, after watching a video, students can use Roundrobin to discuss and to ask and answer questions about what they just saw.
7. One figure for how long groups should be together often seen in the Cooperative Learning literature is six weeks. This gives students time to learn how to work with their group members, thus emphasizing the importance of allotting time for groups to discuss how well they are functioning and how they can function better.
8. Many experts on Cooperative Learning urge that groups be formed heterogeneously based on such factors as proficiency, sex, ethnicity, on task behaviour, and/or preferred learning style. It takes a while for teachers to organize such groupings. Thus, we wouldn't want to have to do that every week.
9. If students already know which group they're in, we don't have to spend as much class time for them to get into their groups.
10. When long-term groups disband, there should be some type of closing, e.g., they can give each other small presents or write each other "thank you" notes or letters of reference for their next group.
11. Hopefully, groups will last forever, as the collaborative atmosphere engendered via cooperative learning can form friendships for life.

How can Cooperative Learning work in situations in which competition is stressed in the school system and the larger society?

1. Maybe there are currents in society moving it to become less competitive, especially in the information age, as people realize that ideas are best developed via collaboration. Education should promote this.
2. Maybe after more students, teachers, administrators, and parents have experienced Cooperative Learning, schools and society will begin to become less competitive (Kohn, 1992).
3. We need to educate students, colleagues, administrators, parents, and the public generally about the benefits of Cooperative Learning, otherwise they may feel that the usual competitive school environment is always the best way.
4. "One of the requests employers frequently make is for higher education to prepare students to work together in problem-solving and other formats" (Horace Rockwood, Feb. 5, 1997).
5. Between businesses there is competition, but within a business, cooperation is needed. This is precisely why businesses are asking schools to reconsider their competitive models (Brett Bixler, Feb 5 1997).
6. Living in a competitive society may mean that students need longer to adjust to using Cooperative Learning. Teachers need to be persistent (Ann P. Monroe, Feb 5 1997).
7. Stress criterion referenced grading. "I use cooperation instead of competition to get the idea across that the end goal of an assignment is not to be better than someone else but to learn the criterion behaviors set before students" (Elizabeth Howard, Feb 5 1997).
8. Some Cooperative Learning techniques, e.g., Teams-Games-Tournament (Slavin, 1990), use within-group cooperation but between-group competition.
9. Cooperative Learning shouldn't be the only study arrangement for students. Students also need to learn how to work on their own and how to compete with others in a healthy way.
10. Cooperative Learning can provide a kind of refuge for students who have trouble with competition.
11. Assign tasks so that less assertive students can have leadership roles sometimes.
12. Working with others increases students' chances for success, because they can pool their efforts and strengths.
13. It may take a lot of time and effort to change ingrained attitudes but the pay-off will be great.
14. Competition is a culture-specific trait; incorporating cooperation validates other culture approaches.
15. Actually, there's a lot more cooperation going on in the world than many people think, Just look around you.

How can Cooperative Learning be used with students whose language proficiency is low?`

1. Just about all Cooperative Learning techniques can be used with low proficiency students, as long as the language task is within their reach.
2. Remember, although students may be low in L2 proficiency, their intellectual capacity is often far greater. Thus, they can easily deal with the concepts of grouping, task assignments, and so on, if each person's role and the group task are clearly communicated.
3. Short, simple Cooperative Learning activities are useful, especially at first.
4. Low proficiency students need preparation time and language support, e.g., model dialogues, vocabulary work, and accompanying listening activities with a written version of the text, before they begin interacting in their groups.
5. Low proficiency students often lack confidence. Cooperative Learning builds confidence by providing a support group: a classic Cooperative Learning benefit.
6. Once low proficiency students become familiar with Cooperative Learning techniques, the techniques boost confidence by providing structure and clear expected outcomes. They know what to do.
7. When students are working in groups, teachers have more time for students who need extra help.
8. At the same time, working in groups means that the teacher isn't the only one available to provide help. Group members are there too.
9. Cross-age and other types of tutoring can be used, e.g., Buddy Reading.
10. Teaching collaborative skills becomes especially crucial, so that mixed proficiency groups can work. Such heterogeneous grouping is advocated in many books on Cooperative Learning, e.g., those by Slavin (1990), who helped develop STAD (Student Teams-Achievement Divisions), CIRC (Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition), and other Cooperative Learning techniques.
11. Actually, many students are prepared to help one another if only we teachers would openly encourage the high achievers to support lower achievers. Indeed, the high achievers can benefit both academically and socially from such interaction.
12. Many Cooperative Learning activities, e.g., Think-Pair-Share, provide students time to plan what they will say before interacting with groupmates.
13. Cooperative Learning helps support and prepare low proficiency students for whole class discourse.
14. Groups help motivate low achievers by using peer motivation. "I can say that something is unacceptable, and students don't really hear me, but three of their peers get together and don't accept their work's level, and students will get to work" (Elizabeth Howard, Feb 5 1997).
15. Low proficiency students "have someone close at hand to ask and share with. They are up and doing, working hands-on" (Joy Runyon, Feb 5 1997).

How can Cooperative Learning be used with large classes?

1. Basically Cooperative Learning is used the same way in large classes as in small ones. We just have more groups.
2. Large classes need more preparation. This includes establishing criteria for group behaviour and for content understanding. This can be done with students. Then, we need to help students understand the criteria and monitor their achievement.
3. Establish routines early in the semester, so that students get into groups quickly and quietly. "If Cooperative Learning is well-planned,..., large classes do as well as small ones" (Elizabeth Howard, Feb 5 1997). As with all Cooperative Learning, planning and preparation are key.
4. In a traditional classroom, most students' attention wanders while they "wait" as the teacher asks for individuals to "perform"; in Cooperative Learning students are much more active (Kagan's simultaneity principle [Kagan, 1994]), and thus more likely to be on task for the duration of the activity.
5. Large classes make Cooperative Learning even more important, because in a teacher-fronted mode, the larger the class, the less chance each student has to participate.
6. Teachers need to find ways to help students be more independent, not necessarily a bad thing, but definitely a challenge. Large classes push teachers to take that challenge (David L. Smith, Feb 5 1997).
7. Because large classes make it more difficult for teachers to monitor groups, more time should be spent on helping students develop collaborative skills and more effort should be given to having students monitor their own groups, e.g., appointing pupils to be task-master in each group (Christine Lee, 10 Mar 1997). As Smith notes above, being forced to give students more responsibility is actually a good thing.
8. Students can be divided into base groups (Johnson and Johnson, 1994) which stay together for a whole term, year, or more. These help with such matters as attendance, catching up absent or newly admitted students, and homework. Students also join more temporary groups, but the base groups remain as a support network, so that students do not feel "lost" in a large class.

9. Rather than each group coming to the front of the class to do a presentation, use a Cooperative Learning technique such as Three Stray - One Stay (Kagan, 1994), in which three members of a group of four move to different groups, and the remaining member who has stayed gives the group's presentation to three classmates who have strayed over from other groups.
10. Divide the class in half or thirds for activities such as Jigsaw and Send-A-Problem (Kagan, 1994). In the latter activity, in a class of 48 divided into groups of 4, half the class (6 groups) send problems they have written to one another, while the other half sends problems only to other groups on their side of the room (Christine Lee, 10 Mar 1997).

How can cooperation be a content theme as well as a procedure?

1. Cooperation should permeate our teaching, from the how of teaching (part of which is Cooperative Learning) to the what of teaching.
2. Students can write, accompanied by peer feedback, about a time they successfully collaborated with others.
3. Groups can work together on social concern projects in the communities near their school, e.g., helping less fortunate people or protecting the environment.
4. Students can read about examples of collaboration in science, business, and elsewhere in society.
5. In content-based teaching, examples of cooperation can be found, e.g., the study of history does not have to focus on wars and conquerors.
6. Teach conflict resolution skills (Johnson and Johnson, 1991), and discuss with students how these skills can be applied in the classroom and beyond. Then, encourage students to apply these conflict resolution skills and report on their success.

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Note:

Some of the responses came from an Internet discussion list on Cooperative Learning started in Malaysia. In those cases, the responder's name is given in parentheses after the response. Special thanks to Ted Panitz, a member of the list, who circulated the questions to other related lists. To become a member of the Cooperative Learning list (it's free). please follow this procedure:

Send an e-mail to: LISTSERVER@JARING.MY Include in the body of the message: Subscribe Cooperative Learning your name. All postings to the list should be sent to: CL@jaring.my

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Integrating French as a Second Language into the Curriculum

Cher Harvey

The discussion focuses on the curriculum design options defined by Jacobs, and provides implementation strategies for: an Integrated Day based on pioneers, a parallel disciplines design using an environmental theme, an interdisciplinary design in the context of a French immersion weekend, and a multidisciplinary design incorporated in unit planning.

Recent directives from provincial and state ministries/departments of education, as well as present theories of learning, place many educational and political demands on teachers. One significant educational demand, the integration of curriculum, is being discussed at all levels of the educational systems in both Canada and the United States. Current provincial documents also reflect a changing paradigm towards a focus on integrated curriculum. Educators wanting to prepare students for the future feel that integrated curriculum will enhance their learning.

> The ability to see the links among different areas of learning will enable students to use the knowledge and skills developed in one field to learn in another and to relate their learning to real-life situations. Students need the ability to apply existing knowledge in new situations in order to function effectively in an environment of continuous change. (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, 1995).

Teacher federations commissioned the production of support documents such as Ages 12 Through 15 to help teachers understand and implement integrated curriculum. As well, educators such as Jacobs (1989), Oppenheimer (1990), Brandt (1991), Hewitt (1994), and Pogue (1996) through their research and publications provide background and strategies to help teachers move forward in this area of change.

The educational and political demands do not rest solely on the shoulders of teachers. The Report of the Royal Commission on Learning (1994) indicates that both schools and faculties of education must take responsibility for teaching aspiring teachers what they need to learn. Given the trend towards integrating curriculum, and the fact that hiring teams often ask candidates to describe their experiences with integrated curriculum, teacher educators realize that pre-service teachers need to learn to integrate curriculum. Faculties of education are varied in their approaches to teaching new methodologies, but include in their programs a variety of strategies such as:

- viewing
- discussion
- modelling
- creating
- experiencing and
- reflecting on integration.

As well, individual professors incorporate within their own disciplines strategies for integration.

Second-language educators agree that knowledge of current methodologies is important. Lipton (1988), considers "knowledge of elementary and middle school curriculum and methodologies" to be an essential competency for effective language teaching. LeBlanc (1990) and Flewelling (1992) also suggest that language teachers need skills in curriculum development. Teaching language teachers in faculties of education the fundamentals of integrating French into the curriculum becomes, therefore, a necessary part of their teacher training. However, a search of literature in second language pedagogy, as well as an examination of resources available to language teachers, reveals a dearth of information in this area. In fact, second languages are often not included at all in the general discussions of integrated curriculum. How can language teachers and teacher educators incorporate integrated curriculum within their courses? Modelling integrated curriculum is a strategy to consider. Modelling is valued by second-language teacher educators (Richards and Nunan, 1990) as an appropriate awareness raising practice that increases teacher competencies in teacher preparation programs.

Integrated design option 1: the integrated day

> This model is based primarily on themes and problems emerging from the child's world. The emphasis is on an organic approach to classroom life that focuses curriculum on the child's questions and interests rather than on the content determined by a school or state syllabus (Jacobs, 1989).

All faculty members in the intermediate division of the Faculty of Education at Nipissing University agreed to model integrated curriculum and chose the easiest model to implement, the Integrated Day. The theme "Pioneer Days" was chosen and an integration committee formed. In all the electives, students were asked to create questions about what they wanted to learn about pioneers and suggest activities that would allow these questions to be answered. In the intermediate French elective, student questions included the following:

- What did French Canadian pioneers do in their leisure time?
- What games did children play?
- What did they eat?
- How did they get their food?
- What were the schools like?
- What did they learn at school?

The activities students suggested included:

- singing French songs;
- playing the spoons;
- listening to a story;
- dancing; playing tug of war;
- making toys out of sticks and a piece of bone;
- making pea soup;
- eating tourtière, ragoût and tarte au sucre;
- picking berries; and
- recreating a pioneer classroom.

The input from the students allowed faculty to organize five workshops, with a guiding question for each one:

- Leisure,
- Work,
- Environmental Hardships,
- Community Life, and
- Aesthetics and Handicrafts.

As well, a pioneer menu of soupe aux pois, tourtière, ragoût, fèves au lard and tarte au sucre was organized in the cafeteria at lunch time. The professors each chose one of the sessions and planned collaboratively the activities that necessitated integration of curriculum. For example, in the Leisure workshop, the guiding question was "What did pioneers do in their leisure time?" The French, physical education and language arts professors planned activities that involved everyone and reflected the curriculum of their specific disciplines. The workshop started with comparison of the lives of adolescents today with the lives of adolescents in the eighteenth century. The English professor organized a choral reading activity based on the poem "The Cremation of Sam McGee", by Robert W. Service. The French professor led a sing-song of well known French-language or French Canadian songs, taught the students to play the spoons and led the group in a folk dance to the music of "La Bastringue". The physical education professor discussed the lack of resources available to pioneers and the necessity of collaboration, and then organized creative, cooperative games. Each of the other sessions was organized in a similar fashion, with faculty collaborating to model integrated curriculum.

On Integration Day an introductory session provided information about integrated curriculum and the schedule for the day. Two hundred and forty students, organized into five groups, rotated through the sessions. At lunch time the French Canadian pioneer menu was well received, along with an enthusiastic response to a fiddler and a step dancer. The day concluded in the auditorium where the students evaluated their learning and received a handout outlining the steps needed to plan and implement an Integrated Day in elementary or secondary schools.

Response to the first model of integration was enthusiastic. Faculty and students overwhelmingly agreed that the Integrated Day was enjoyable and motivating. Reflection of the Integrated Day experience demonstrated that it provided the first step in awareness of integrated curriculum. In a research study of the benefits of modelling integrated curriculum, one student commented: "I never really understood it fully or internalized the idea until I lived it myself with your group last year" (Harvey and Reid-Davis, 1998). Major benefits of this model include ease of implementation, completion in one school day, collaboration of all faculty members who plan for students across the disciplines, and motivation of both students and staff.

Integrated design option 2: parallel disciplines design

When the curriculum is designed in a parallel fashion, teachers sequence their lessons to correspond to lessons in the same area in other disciplines (Jacobs, 1989).

Pogue (1996) suggests that parallel planning could begin with two teachers from different subject areas agreeing to plan together. Planning includes:

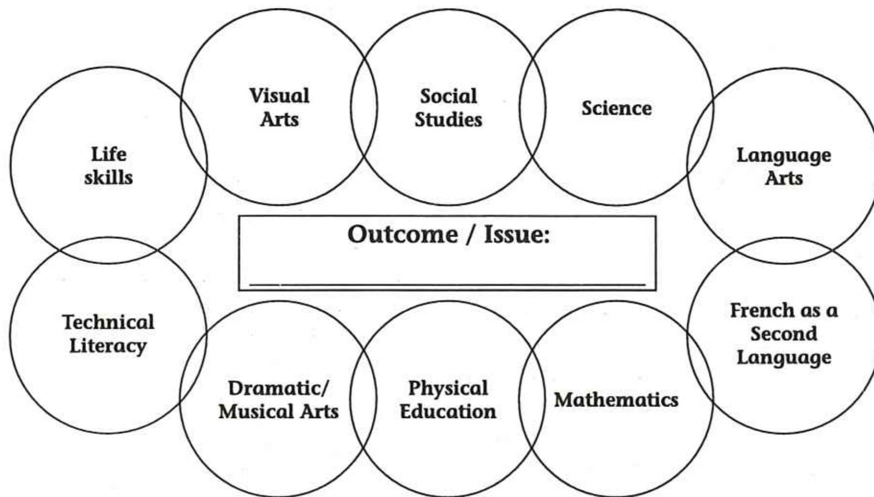
- a time line;
- choice of theme;
- brainstorming and simplification of the theme; and
- agreement upon assignments and evaluation.

At Nipissing, faculty members of the intermediate division decided to model this second, introductory type of integrated curriculum. Using the parallel planning sheet provided by Pogue (1996) all professors planned to teach "the environment" in their disciplines during the same week. Students were given a parallel planning sheet and, as they attended regularly scheduled classes in French, math, history, science, language arts, music, art, and physical education they learned about the environment from several disciplinary perspectives and documented the issues discussed on their sheets. Since French as a second language was not included in the example, the sheet was modified to demonstrate that integration of French in the curriculum is possible. (See Figure 1).

In the French class, an activity centre approach was used to introduce learning centres as a strategy for second-language teaching and to expose students to excellent resources for intermediate students. The Common Curriculum (1995) identifies the following components of second-language learning:

- Language for Communication
  - Listening
  - Speaking
  - Reading
  - Writing
  - Viewing and Representing
- Language for Learning
- Language for Personal Growth and Cultural Understanding (Ministry of Education and Training, 1995)

The unit L'Environnement "Vert"ita"Bleu"ment Important (Bannister, Brown, MacCrae, Phil-



Adopted from "Ages 12 through 15". Author Lynda Pogue. Published by the Ontario Public School Teachers' Federation.

lips, Sutherland, 1996) was used to teach all aspects of the prescribed curriculum. Learning centres were organized in file folders and labelled according to the program components of the Common Curriculum. Within each folder were instructions and resources necessary for completion of the activities. The students, with individual tracking sheets, chose their centres, completed the activities and evaluated them. Next, they filled in the FSL portion of the parallel planning sheet describing what they had learned about the environment in their French class. As they attended classes in science, music, art, history, and language arts, they continued to discuss the environment from each disciplinary perspective. By the end of the week, their parallel planning sheets were completed. In subsequent classes students were asked to discuss the connections in the different areas of learning and relate the learning to their lives. Also, advantages and disadvantages of parallel planning were discussed. All students in the French elective thought that parallel planning was motivating and interesting, and felt that they would like to try it in their own classrooms when they started teaching.

Integrated design option 3: interdisciplinary design

> In this design, periodic units or courses of study deliberately bring together the full range of disciplines in the school's curriculum: language arts, history, math, social studies, the arts, science, music and physical education...usually of specific duration. (Jacobs, 1989).

In the French as a second language program, interdisciplinary integration is modelled in a French immersion weekend.

Each year, students may choose to participate in a French immersion weekend to improve their skills in French, experience French Canadian culture and learn pedagogical aspects of other disciplines such as history, music, math, art, and physical education. The weekend takes place in January, at L'Accueil Sainte Marie in Haileybury, a small, bilingual town in northern Ontario. The schedule of events is as follows:

Friday

17:30 arrival at L'Accueil Sainte Marie
18:00 dinner
19:00 introductory games
19:30 Bunco – a social game of dice
20:30 singsong - French Canadian favorites
21:15 folk dances
22:00 wine and cheese

Saturday

09:00 breakfast
09:30 workshop on visual arts
12:00 lunch
13:00 parachute games - cooperative learning
13:30 workshop on second-language teaching strategies
15:30 free time: cross country skiing, walking, shopping
18:00 dinner
19:00 historical monologue, Grace Morrison "Vignettes d'histoire du Canada"
20:30 skits
21:30 traditions of Christmas
22:00 le réveillon

Sunday

09:00 breakfast
10:00 Mass
11:00 synthesis and closure
12:00 lunch
13:00 departure

The integration of other disciplines within the French as a second language context is evident. History is introduced in "Vignettes d'histoire du Canada". Music is introduced in the singsong, skits and in the Mass. Physical education is integrated in folk dances, parachute games and cross-country skiing. The workshop on visual arts provides new vocabulary, teaching strategies and resources for beginning teachers. The workshop on second-language strategies develops skills in teaching languages. Math skills are needed to play the game of Bunco. Communicative skills are developed all weekend through conversation with francophone hosts and guests, games, and skits.

The French immersion weekend offers experiential learning that can not be provided in a classroom setting. The benefits are twofold: there is a strong pedagogical development as outlined above as well as personal development that includes being welcomed into a French Canadian milieu, perfecting conversational skills, meeting new friends, experiencing a réveil-

lon, and reflecting on the spiritual well-being of educators. Reflections of the weekend, written by the students, indicate an awareness of integrated curriculum and appreciation of the motivational potential of learning in an interdisciplinary context.

Integrated design option 4: multidisciplinary design

"The multidisciplinary option suggests that certain related disciplines be brought together in a formal unit or course to investigate a theme or issue" (Jacobs, 1989).

In the intermediate division, all students are required to develop a unit plan. Members of the Faculty of Education at Nipissing University have created a detailed unit plan that allows for a disciplinary or integrated focus. The unit plan provides the following components that can be completed in any order:

- initial brainstorming;
- a rationale;
- an overview;
- pre-assessment of the learners and learning environment;
- resources;
- unit outcomes;
- specific outcomes;
- learning indicators;
- teaching/learning strategies;
- assessment and evaluation;
- modifications; and
- teacher reflections.

Students receive specific instruction on unit planning, analyze an example of an integrated unit and create their own, individually or in small groups. In the French elective, copies of all the units produced are available for purchase, giving students access to a large variety of integrated units to begin their language teaching careers.

An integrated unit could include French as a second language and history with specific outcomes chosen from both the FSL and the Self and Society curricula. Students could learn about famous French Canadians and their contributions to Canadian life. Past examples have included the French curriculum integrated with music, drama, media, history, visual arts, and physical education. Creating interesting units based on student needs, interests and aspirations can prove to be extremely motivating for students and rewarding for teachers (Harvey, 1996).

Conclusion

The purpose of modelling integrated curriculum in a faculty of education is to provide beginning teachers with the competencies required for effective teaching. By providing four models of integrated curriculum experiences ranging from simple to complex, the students are better prepared to meet the challenges of effective second language teaching in their beginning years. Practicing second language teachers who have not explored integrated curriculum could use any or all of the models described. There are many advantages. Integration provides choices for teachers and students, assists students in achieving outcomes, and fosters equity (Pogue, 1996). Integrating curriculum puts second language teachers on the leading edge of curriculum development and implementation.

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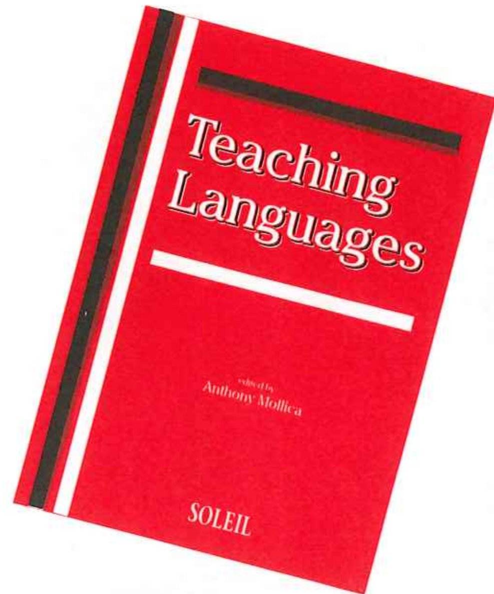

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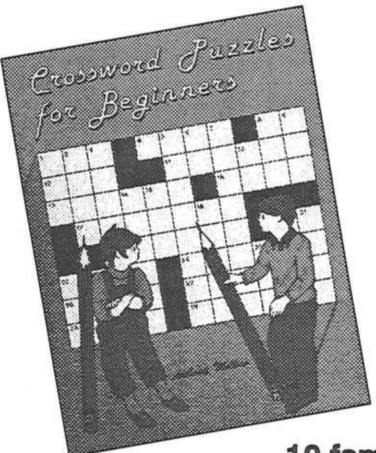

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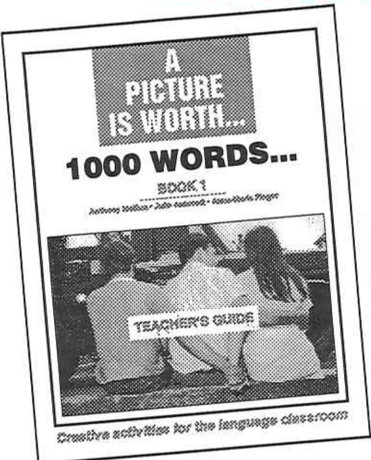

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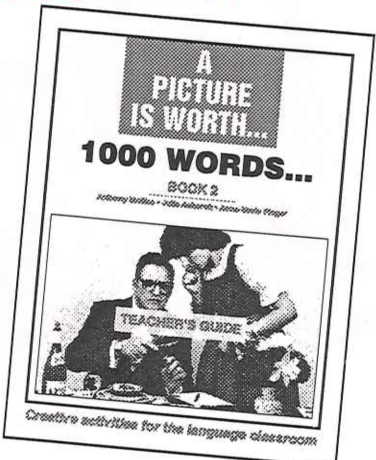

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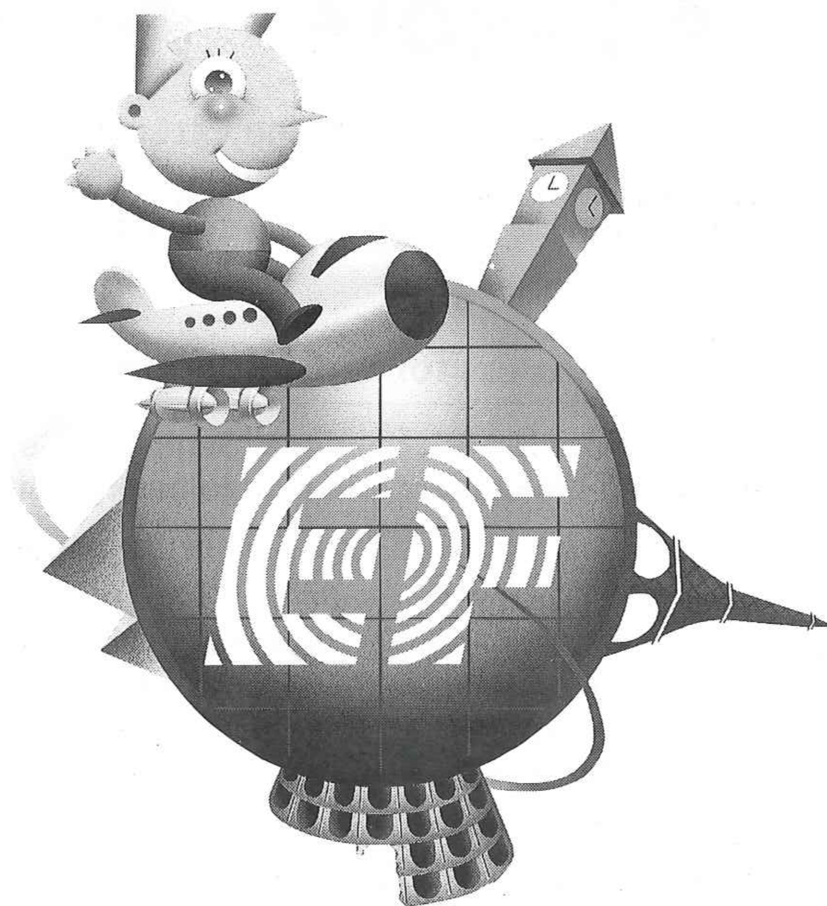

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