Implementing Task-Based Teaching From the Ground Up: Considerations for Lesson Planning and Classroom Practice

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In the past twenty years, Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) has become a widely discussed approach to teaching foreign and second languages, and a significant body of literature has grown up around it. The approach has even been implemented on a large scale in some areas; for example, since 1990, instruction in Dutch as a second language in the Flemish areas of Belgium has been organized solely around the principles of TBLT (Van den Branden 2006, 13).

In the teaching of foreign languages in the United States, TBLT has made some inroads, and powerful voices in the profession strongly advocate this approach. Michael Long (2007) in his chapter "Texts, Tasks, and the Advanced Learner" strongly advocates that tasks should be the unit of analysis in designing a language course at any level of instruction. As Long notes, federally funded U.S. National Flagship language programs are particularly interested in TBLT, since courses and curricula developed on the principles of the approach seem likely to meet the mandated development of advanced-level language abilities in learners (Long 2007, 119-120). That he presented this same argument in a plenary session at the February 2007 International Educational Program Services (IEPS) Conference – a gathering for language professionals who work at U.S. institutions with federally-funded Title VI centers for languages, area studies and international programs – suggests that TBLT needs to be seriously considered and evaluated as an approach for U.S. language programs.

Despite the broad advocacy for TBLT, scholarly literature on the topic has yet to consistently define what a "task" is. Furthermore, the literature has often focused on tasks as a means of gathering learners' language data as part of a psycholinguistic or second language acquisition (SLA) study, rather than on specific classroom implementations of TBLT, which are rarely documented at the level of the lesson plan or plan for a series of lessons. Notable exceptions are Samuda's study (2001) concerning the role of the teacher in managing

classroom interaction during a task-based ESL class session. For teaching Slavic languages, only Leaver and Kaplan (2004) describe issues in structuring a TBLT lesson, although their focus is on broader institutional issues concerning the implementation of TBLT. Thus, for Russianists, TBLT remains a theoretical construct that has yet to be enhanced out with sample lesson plans, textbooks, teacher training materials, and other instantiations of the theory.

The present article seeks to address one of these lacunae. After outlining the characteristics of pedagogical tasks, this article describes in detail how the theory of TBLT is made operational in a sample Russian-language lesson plan. The article compares the intent of the plan with its implementation in the classroom, assesses the benefits of the approach and identifies some remaining problematic issues concerning task-based teaching. By examining a specific implementation of TBLT, the article will suggest ways in which teachers can modify existing textbook activities to align them more consistently with this approach while the profession awaits new textbooks that use TBLT as their major organizing principle.[1]

What Makes a "Task"?

Although it is easy to name tasks that people accomplish in everyday life (e.g., making a bed, loading a dishwasher, purchasing an item, completing a form), advocates of TBLT have struggled to define "task" in terms of language use and language teaching/learning. Van den Branden (2006, 7-8) gathers twelve different definitions that have appeared in major publications on the topic in the past twenty years (e.g., Candlin 1987, Nunan 1989, Willis 1996, Lee 2000,

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[1] Many advocates of TBLT see the use of linguistic syllabi in which the tasks are selected and sequenced with an eye towards linguistic features as problematic (Long and Crookes 1993). A complete implementation of TBLT will require a thorough analysis of learner language needs, from which curriculum designers can extrapolate real-world linguistic tasks that can then be subdivided into pedagogical tasks, which, in turn, can then be implemented in instructional sequences. Focus on linguistic form would be integrated into the instructional sequences based on the need for specific forms required to carry out the task. I will not argue against the need for such steps to produce truly task-based language courses; however, without explorations, such as the present study of how TBLT works at the level of the lesson plan, such a rigorous implementation of TBLT at the level of syllabus design for teaching Russian at the elementary level seems virtually beyond reach. For a very different vision of tasks as the basis for constructing curriculum, see Byrnes, et al. (2006).

Bygate, et al. 2001, Ellis 2003). This compilation is extremely helpful, and, based on these multiple definitions, we can extract four features that are consistently recognized as characteristic of pedagogical tasks.

1. A task is some kind of activity or work carried out by language learners. In other words, learners do something with the language being studied, and that engagement can involve either productive and/or receptive skills. A task can last from just a few minutes to the several class sessions, especially if the larger task is broken into a series of smaller tasks leading to an overall goal. For example, one task for language learners might be to trace a route on a map, as they listen to verbal instructions of how to travel from place A to place B.

2. A task involves communication where the learners' attention must focus on meaning. Learners communicate to overcome some kind of "gap" – be it an information gap (e.g., A knows the schedule of trains to Moscow; B wants to go to Moscow as soon as possible; B overcomes his "information gap" by asking A when the next train is), a reasoning gap (e.g., a pair of students develops a person's academic schedule given a list of the person's interests and a timetable of available classes) or an opinion gap (e.g., students in pairs or small groups identify and articulate their personal preferences, feelings, and attitudes in response to a specific situation, such as a social issue or a particular film/book).

3. A task has a purpose. Language learners are motivated to use the language to communicate for a specific reason, which may be either more or less typical of "real" world language uses.

4. Learners engage in communication to achieve an outcome or objective. In other words, they do something with the knowledge that they have gained by communicating in the target language. Although Ellis (2003, 16) proposes that the outcome of a task should be the creation of a non-linguistic product (e.g., a completed chart, checklist, or drawing), and that the evaluation of the learner's ability to do the task should proceed on the basis of the product created, others recognize that the outcome may be non-verbal or verbal (e.g., an oral or written paragraph, a set of notes) that can be evaluated for the validity of its propositional contents.

Identifying these four essential components of tasks should be useful to teachers, as they can serve as a checklist for the practitioner who seeks to make existing materials better resemble the interactions typical of task-based teaching.

It is important to note that none of these characteristics deal with the rules or structure of the language being taught. The use of language, rather than knowledge about the language, is the main goal of TBLT, although most advocates of the approach recognize the need to have some kind of focus on form integrated into TBLT (Doughty and Williams 1998; Doughty and Long 2003). Among the many available techniques for drawing learners' attention to linguistic form are input enhancement, negotiation of meaning, processing instruction for encouraging learners to map forms to meaning, and negative feedback in the form of recasts. Nevertheless, it should be noted that TBLT does not specify a particular set of teaching methods or classroom procedures.

This flexibility in procedures and classroom techniques, coupled with the lack of precise definition of pedagogical tasks, makes it difficult for a teacher to generate from the TBLT literature ideas about how a specific lesson can be organized to meet the concept of this approach.

Tasks Versus Communicative Activities

The major feature that distinguishes pedagogical tasks from activities typical for communicative language teaching (CLT) lies in characteristic number four. Most current first-year Russian textbooks (*Nachalo*, *Golosa*, *Live from Moscow*) are based on CLT principles and include activities where learners exchange personal information (e.g., ask your partner questions to find out what he/she normally does on weekends) and carry out role-play situations (e.g., imagine that you want to rent an apartment, ask your partner [who will play the role of the landlord] questions concerning the available unit). While such activities are communicative, they are not pedagogical tasks, inasmuch as they lack an achievable outcome whose propositional contents is verifiable. So how can the communicative activity of the above role-play situation be converted from language practice in asking and answering questions to a task where the students' communication leads to an outcome or non-linguistic product? One can imagine the following as the task-based approach to the same communicative situation: the instructor splits the class in half, and in one half

of the group, each student makes a list of what he/she is looking for in an apartment (number of rooms, location, price range, pets allowed, etc.); simultaneously in the other half, each student makes a list of features and information about the apartment that he/she has to rent. During the role play task, the students go from one landlord to the next, until they find someone offering something that fits their original description. Once they have found that apartment, the pair concludes a "rental agreement" by signing each others' papers. Failure to find an apartment may be an acceptable outcome if none of the apartments offered meets a student's listed requirements. The teacher could collect the students' lists to verify that, in the case of the signed agreements, the apartment sought really does match the apartment offered. The presence of a tangible outcome in language tasks creates an automatic end-point for the learners' communicative exchange, and so the teacher can easily determine when students are finished. In this version of the role play, students do not simply produce questions or respond to partners; they attend to the meaning and the contents of their conversational exchanges.

Organizing a Lesson Around Task(s)

In order to carry out a pedagogical task, learners may engage different cognitive processes, such as listing, selecting, sequencing, ranking, comparing/contrasting, classifying, ordering, reasoning, and evaluating information. (Willis 1996, Ellis 2003). Teachers can use actions from this list of activities to frame the core task(s) for the lessons that they are creating. In addition to this set of cognitive processes, Nunan (2004, 35-38) enumerates the following seven principles for planning task-based lessons.

1. Scaffolding
2. Task dependency
3. Recycling
4. Active learning
5. Integration
6. Reproduction to Creation
7. Reflection

By **scaffolding**, Nunan means that learners need to have sufficient language to complete the tasks. Since the learners focus on meaning when carrying out a task, teachers may need to build extra support into the classroom

materials to provide learners with specific language forms and vocabulary that they are likely to need in carrying out the given task. Although learners do not produce these forms from scratch – as they would in a fill-in-the-blank exercise – they do actively use the scaffolding's forms in context to perform the task. Thus, learners may make (or reinforce) form-meaning connections in the scaffolding's language and vocabulary, and these forms may become intake for the learners' internal linguistic system.

Task dependency refers to the organization and sequencing of tasks. Ideally, one task grows out of another. Thus, the ability to complete Task B depends on the successful completion of Task A. Organizing tasks in this way helps the instructor to ensure that tasks have outcomes.

By **recycling**, Nunan sees that a series of tasks should cluster around some issue or theme. In completing such clustered tasks, students will maximize their opportunities for learning because some set of targeted language forms (e.g., a vocabulary cluster, a certain grammar structure) is likely to occur regularly. By advocating **active learning**, Nunan reminds instructors that tasks are units of work, and should thus be structured to have learners *do* something.

Nunan conceives of **integration** as ways of connecting form and meaning. While performing tasks, students should have the opportunity to realize the relationships between linguistic form and communicative function and semantic meaning. For example in Russian, in a series of tasks about where people usually go on weekends, learners should have opportunities to connect directionality with *куда* expressions in Russian, and the use of the multidirectional verbs of motion (*ходить/ездить*) with the idea of repeated round trips.

Following widely accepted notions that learners need to comprehend input and make form-meaning connections before they can produce the target language for communicative purposes, Nunan reminds instructors to sequence tasks in ways that move from **reproduction** activities (e.g., comprehension of reading/listening passages, sorting a series of sentences into a logical dialog) to production activities where learners **create** with the language.

Lastly, Nunan recommends that learners should have opportunities to **reflect** on what they have learned and how well they are learning it. If a significant component of TBLT focuses on learners achieving an outcome, then it is important for learners to have the opportunity to reflect on the learning embodied in that outcome. This learning has both content and performance dimensions.

Sample Lesson Plan

Working from the four characteristics of a task, the list of cognitive processes typical for tasks, and Nunan's seven basic principles, the author sets out to develop a lesson plan that would integrate these notions into the setting of a college-level second-semester Russian language classroom. At the time when the sample TBLT lesson was conducted, the students were working on *Nachalo*, Book 2, Chapter 10, Part 2, a standard textbook grounded in the communicative approach. The sample TBLT lesson used the textbook section's theme (Russian foods) and made the overall objective for the lesson students' oral production of several sentences comparing Russian and American eating habits, specifically in relation to breakfast.

From materials in the textbook and supplements presented in class, the students were already familiar with the Russian words for various foods; they knew the lexical meaning of the verbs **есть/пить** and had some familiarity with present-tense forms of these two verbs. Prior to the demonstration class, they had completed a vocabulary recognition task where they had to eliminate the inappropriate item from groups of four food words (Appendix 1) and they had participated in some teacher-student personalized questions about foods they liked.

The demonstration class featured four pedagogical tasks, each of which had a specific outcome. In the first task, the students read a selection of postings from a Russian online discussion board that were slightly modified to bring spelling and punctuation into accepted print norms (Appendix 2a), (http://forum.mhealth.ru/lofiversion/index.php/t3937.html). The students read the thirteen responses and assessed what foods this sample of Russians most frequently listed as breakfast foods. The outcome of this task was a chart on the board listing the common breakfast foods with frequency data for how many of the Russians in the sample mentioned them.

In the second task (an information exchange task), the students interviewed their classmates about each other's eating habits. The outcome was completing a chart where they recorded up to three responses of what each classmate eats and drinks for breakfast and lunch (Appendix 2b).

The third task was an information exchange between the students who had collected information from their classmates and the instructor. As students presented their findings about breakfast foods eaten by their classmates, the instructor made a list on the blackboard, and then added frequency data to the list based on questions to the students as a group.

The fourth task asked the students to compare the lists and frequency information that had been generated in tasks one and three, and orally produce a few sentences contrasting the Russian and American breakfast habits.

These four tasks were embedded in a lesson plan (Appendix 3) that also included a warm-up and other activities. The written lesson plan includes samples of the teacher's talk to set up the tasks for the students. To the left of each section in the lesson plan, the instructor estimated the amount of time needed to complete that section of the plan. The instructor conducted a session of a second-semester Russian class using this lesson plan and had the session videotaped.[2] Based on this recording, the actual duration of each section of the lesson plan is noted in the right hand column of the lesson plan. Reflections on the sample lesson plan as an implementation of TBLT as well as disparities between the plan and its implementation will be discussed in the next section of this article.

Analysis of the Sample Class

The lesson plan met the basic principles set out by Nunan for TBLT in the following ways. The ordering of the tasks met Nunan's principle of "task dependency," since each task flowed from the previous one, and the class could meet the global objective only by completing the three previous tasks. In terms of recycling, all four tasks worked with the same lexical and grammatical areas, although incidental words and constructions that might not have been familiar to the students were not eliminated from the Russian Internet discussion board. In terms of "active learning," the students spent most of the class hour extracting and evaluating information from print sources or from their fellow

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[2] The video of the class session can be viewed on line at http://www2.ku.edu/~egarc/comer/.

classmates. In all four tasks, the focus was on meaning. The students needed to recognize and record the correct information given by the sources.

In terms of linguistic scaffolding, the handout (Appendix 2b) included the verb forms (embedded in sample question-answer statements forms) that were required to carry out the information exchange. It also reminded students to complete the statements with noun phrases in the accusative case and to address their instructor with the formal **вы**. Since only a few of the lexical items likely to occur in this task have explicit accusative endings that differ from their nominative forms, and since the feminine accusative singular endings were already well-known to the students, no particular scaffolding seemed necessary to help the students use these forms accurately. The summary activities at the bottom of the handout gave students some basic models for making statements based on data collected. For example, in the section that asked students to note what eating habits they share with their other classmates, they were given a reminder to express their statements using the **Мы с** construction.

The demonstration class did not completely meet Nunan's directive to move from "reproduction to creation." While students' reporting on the sample of Russians' comments about breakfast habits clearly represented a reproduction activity, the restricted nature of the survey task allowed only limited possibilities for self-expression; thus, this single lesson fell short on opportunities for open-ended student creation. In a larger unit of task-based instruction, the instructor would have to craft additional tasks that allow the students to freely create with the language. For example, having learned the differences in breakfast preferences between Russians and Americans, the learners would have to create a breakfast buffet menu for a group of Russians and Americans attending a summer camp.

Nunan's integration principle was visible in the instructor's feedback during the session. It focused on the content accuracy of the students' statements and used recasts or restatements to clarify meaning and/or correct grammatical errors. For example, in the first task, the instructor negotiated the form/meaning of a student response which led the student to self-correction:

Teacher: Что еще едят?
Student 1: Чай.

> Teacher: Это едят или пьют?
> Student 1:   Пьют чай.

In the second part of the same task, students reported the frequency of references to various food words using numbers together with the Russian word **раз**. Given the irregular pattern of the genitive forms of this noun, the instructor often recast the student answers as they were recorded on the blackboard, fixing the forms of **раз** to agree with the numbers mentioned.

Although the linguistic scaffolding present in the handout was designed to obviate the learners' potential problems with the forms of **есть/пить**, the students did still have a difficult time actually matching subjects with correct verb forms, especially in the second and third tasks. Thus, toward the end of session, the instructor made an unplanned decision to treat the conjugation of these two verbs explicitly. While the class had accomplished the tasks for the day, the instructor had some doubts as to whether the students had attended enough to the language content of the class.

This event may highlight an especially thorny issue for Russian in terms of implementing TBLT within a model of implicit or non-obtrusive grammar instruction. Even given the scaffolding, the meaningful (if redundant) morphology of the conjugated verbs, the uncomplicated sentence structure (SVO) and short length of student utterances (<5-6 words per sentence) required to do the tasks, it seems that the students did not have enough attentional resources to forge strong enough form-meaning connections from the rich language input to make the verb forms intake for their developing linguistic systems. While the explicit grammar explanation is certainly not recommended in the TBLT literature, the unplanned digression did not represent a large percentage of class time (10 percent of the whole class session), and the explanation was conducted in an interactive manner (teacher-student question-and-answer), with opportunities for students to reflect on the patterns of this new morphology. If TBLT is to be the structuring principle for a whole course (or sequence of courses), then teachers of Russian will need to develop many kinds of pedagogical interventions to enhance the salience of Russian's abundant morphology and draw learners' attention to linguistic form. In the given lesson, the instructor might have used several less-explicit activities to get the students to attend to the targeted verb forms. For example, the instructor might have done a listening comprehension activity where the learners would

hear sentences without explicit subject pronouns, and they would have to note who is doing the action of the verb, and whether they also eat/drink the same kinds of food (Appendix 4a). Alternatively, the instructor might have assigned a short dictation exercise in which the students would have to write out sentences featuring the targeted verb forms next to the image of food items mentioned in the sentences (Appendix 4b). Either one of these activities would have focused the students' attention on meaning while they were processing the sentences for linguistic forms in a more controlled environment. Either exercise would allow the instructor to diagnosis student problems with spelling the targeted verb forms, or student mismatches between pronunciation and spelling (e.g., inattentive pronunciation/perception of stressed syllables often creates confusion between the forms **еди́м** [we eat]- **е́дем** [we ride] and **еди́те** [you eat] - **е́дете** [you ride]). It might have been most beneficial to sequence these two activities after the warm-up phase of the lesson, and before the series of four tasks.

While the main objective of the session was to have the students produce several sentences noting the differences between American and Russian diets, in the actual class session, the instructor framed the task in such a way that the students needed only to supply words and phrases in his formulation of these differences. This fell short of the language production goal of having the students produce two or three sentences on the topic. This outcome could have been realized had the instructor asked the students to complete this summary activity in which pairs were assigned one to two minutes to write out in full sentences at least one or two observations about the differences between Russian and American breakfasts. The instructor might have handed out overhead transparency blanks and markers for the student pairs to record their observations. The student writing could have been gathered and then projected on a screen. This would have allowed the teacher and students to notice and check on the accuracy of the conclusions and to fix any repeating grammatical or lexical mistakes.

Conclusions

The class was successful in having students notice differences in the breakfast diets of Russians and Americans, and since the task allowed the students to reflect on cultural differences, the session met the last of Nunan's organizing principles. On the one hand, this sample TBLT class shows one way of

integrating the teaching of cultural information with the teaching of language. On the other hand, the class only touched the surface on the students' cultural awareness of how different American and Russian diets are. In the first task, students correctly noted that many of the Russians responded that they eat a **бутерброд** for breakfast. While we counted the frequency of this response and noted that none of the Americans mentioned **бутерброд** in their survey responses, we did not unpack the essential differences between **бутерброд** (usually an open-faced sandwich with a single piece of bread and single slice of cheese or meat topping) and the American **sandwich**, which is usually a much larger serving of food.

In terms of student engagement with the language and student activity, the class was moderately successful. In a fifty-minute class period, the students worked in all five modalities (reading, speaking, writing [in the form of note-taking], listening, and cultural awareness), and they had opportunities to communicate personalized meaning at the level of the sentence. Despite the tasks' structure to encourage students to use sentence-level discourse, the recording reveals that much of their talk was still at the level of words and phrases.

The Challenges of TBLT or Where Do We Go From Here?

TBLT has great potential in getting students actively engaged in using the language in the classroom. It will take time to think about how a task-based approach can be used to structure a whole elementary Russian course, and the implications for our traditional understandings of student outcomes in learning specific vocabulary, grammar, and syntax. Before undertaking such a project, we are hampered by lack of studies in two areas. Do we know enough about what kinds of real-world communicative tasks the average U.S. undergraduate studying Russian in the U.S. is likely to need to accomplish? Are student goals homogeneous enough to allow us to predict even a core set of likely tasks that students will need to accomplish? Doughty and Long (2003) and Long (2007) have written forcefully that a needs analysis must be conducted before attempting to structure TBLT course curricula. While this is feasible in teaching English as a second language (where the large number of learners justifies the investment to write whole courses for specific learning purposes), is this feasible for a less commonly taught language, like Russian, given current enrollment patterns and the current structure of U.S. higher education?

Another significant problem for implementing TBLT as the structuring principle for Russian is our lack of knowledge of the actual developmental stages of the interlanguage of English-speaking students of Russian. What forms are acquired first, and which later? Most textbooks have structured the order of grammar presentation in one of two ways: moving from morphological simplicity to greater morphological complexity, or relying on notions of functionality (nominative plural forms are introduced far earlier than the plural forms for the oblique cases; prepositional singular is taught long before the instrumental singular). Yet we do not actually know how well either ordering principle corresponds to learners' interlanguage development. A few studies (Thompson 1980; Rubenstein 1995; Murphy-Lee 2003) have examined the acquisition of the Russian case system among classroom-based learners, but we still have virtually no documentation of learner acquisition of the verbal system or of complex syntax. Without this knowledge, it will be hard to predict what linguistic forms in the input that students receive to complete tasks should receive instructional attention and treatment. Which forms in the input can remain in the "background"? Which forms can be taught implicitly? What forms will need explicit treatments? What forms may be taught only through negative feedback?

While an entirely TBLT course for elementary Russian is currently beyond reach, teachers can adapt the communicative activities in existing textbooks to make them task-based. As we have already noted, a typical problem with many communicative activities is their lack of an outcome. Once teachers identify an outcome (either a verbal or a non-linguistic product) that can result from the students' communication, they are already well on the way to restructuring their classroom interaction along TBLT lines. Planning and building the linguistic scaffolding that the learners will need to reach that outcome is possibly the second most important consideration in the transformation process. While these transformations of textbook communicative activities demand greater time and creativity from the teacher in preparing classes, they offer the possibility that the classroom sessions themselves will be much more engaging for the students and less work for the teacher, since the burden of classroom engagement in the target language shifts from the instructor to the learners who are using the language to complete tasks and achieve outcomes.

Acknowledgements

Appendix 1. Sample vocabulary activity (pre-task)

Начало   Урок 10   Часть 2

В каждой группе найдите слово, которое НЕ подходит? =In each group find the word that does NOT belong. Be able to tell what unites the other words.

молоко	помидоры	подарки	цветы	пирожки
сыр	стыдно	ёлка	холодно	мясо
хлеб	капуста	пельмени	Новый год	блины
сметана	морковь	Снегурочка	снег	хлеб
колбаса	апельсины	виноград	помидоры	шампанское
икра	грибы	яблоко	сметана	принесёт
курица	огурцы	картошка	масло	квас
сосиски	салат	апельсин	йогурт	пиво

Appendix 2A. Page 1 of student worksheet to accompany lesson

Русский язык 108   Начало   Урок 10   Часть 2

On a Russian discussion board, someone raised the topic of what people eat for breakfast. Here are thirteen responses. What seems to be the most typical/common items eaten for breakfast?

1. E-Not   Зеленый чай с лимоном, 200г творога и бутерброд с сыром.

2. Rules   У меня выходит чай и бутерброды...или творог, йогурты

3. Fenix   Я завтракаю всегда плотно! Это или пельмени, или омлет,

или яичница, молоко или чай, печение

4. Глеб Александрович в основном фрукты и фруктовые салаты

5. Broad Мюсли с йогуртом и изюмом. Стакан молока, стакан воды, плюс еще какой-нибудь йогурт.

6. Kirja8 Йогурт+Молоко и булочка

7. Дождь утром бутылка йогурта в машине, в 12 чай с молоком, в 15 плотный обед

8. Xoxa Классика жанра: каша + бутерброд с чаем. Вариациями на тему завтрака являются фрукты с орехами или завтрак исключительно из молочных продуктов.

9. zeff У меня два варианта завтрака: 1. Творог(200-250гр)+фрукты 2. Яйца всмятку(4-5шт)+овощной салатик

10. NoOk!e в идеале: первый завтрак Йогурт с протеином + банан + бутерброд из черного хлеба с сыром; через 1,5-2 часа второй завтрак : Тарелка каши + 4 яйца + чай

11. Kotofey Яичница, 2-4 яйца, бутерброды и чай-кофе, иногда молоко просто с плюшкой, если тороплюсь, то яблоко или еще какой фрукт... ну а если опаздываю, то шоколад + сок по пути...

12. Che$teR Завтрак: творог обезжиренный 200г, хлопья овсяные с молоком, 4 яйца перепелиных с чёрным хлебом, сок апельсиновый/кофе с печеньем.

13. Sergey S.G. а я вот мюсли ежедневно ем и кофе с бутербродиком

Appendix 2B. Page 2 of student worksheet to accompany lesson

Начало   Урок 10   Часть 2

1) On the first line next to the word **я**, write in 2-3 answers for the questions. Note that all of the answers to the questions will be in the accusative case.

Ask these questions to your classmates. Write the name of your classmate in the left hand column, and record their answers. Talk to as many people as you can in ten minutes.

Вопросы: —Что ты ешь…? Ответы: — Я ем …
          —Что ты пьёшь?   —Я пью …

	Что ты обычно ешь утром?	Что ты обычно ешь днём?	Что ты обычно пьёшь утром?	Что ты обычно пьёшь днём?
Я…				
Ваш Преподаватель (вы)				

Look at the answers that you have collected and decide:

1) что едят/пьют американские студенты?

2) Whose eating habits are closest to yours? Then complete the statements « Мы с ….. едим …» and «Мы с … пьём …»

3) How similar or dissimilar are American and Russian morning habits based on these samples?

Appendix 3. Teacher's lesson plan for sample lesson

Planned time	Activity	Actual time and comments
5 min.	1) As a warm up the teacher begins class with a categorizing activity. The teacher writes the following categories of food on the board in four columns (изделия из теста/овощи/молочное/напитки) and then distributes markers to the students to come to the board and write down as many items as they can in the appropriate columns. Depending on the quality of the students' production, the teacher planned to give corrective feedback individually at the board concerning spelling, appropriate categorizations or start a general discussion with the class so that they could hear the words and brainstorm about additional items appropriate for the categories. These categories and the brainstorming questions were directed to highlight words that the students were likely to encounter/need in the four tasks.	10 min.
10 min.	2) On a clean section of the board, the teacher writes the questions: Что ест средний / типичный русский утром на завтрак? Что он пьёт? The questions are presented orally as well, and in several variations. The teacher distributes the handout (Appendix 2), and gives the students several minutes to read the text. As a group, students answer the question, and the teacher records answers on the board. Then the teacher asks students to count up the frequency with which the responses are mentioned. Teacher repeats the student answers fixing pronunciation, provides some L1 commentary on certain responses.	12 min.

5 min.	3) The teacher sets up the next task in L2, using the following as a guide to their teacher talk: Мы хотим провести исследование (gloss in L1: research): Что обычно едят и пьют студенты нашего университета? Чтобы ответить на этот вопрос, мы должны собрать данные / собрать факты. *Для этого нам нужна информация.* [Direct the students' attention to the back side of the handout (Appendix 2b)]. Сейчас мы ответим на эти вопросы в нашей группе. Сначала надо ответить *для себя.* Потом вы будете задавать *друг другу* вопросы и записывать ответы. Give students a few minutes to write answers to the four questions: Что ты ешь утром? днём? Что ты обычно пьешь утром? днём?	2 min. 3 min.
10 min.	4) Once most of the students have answered for themselves, they are instructed to complete the survey with as many as their classmates as they can. The instructor participates in the survey as well, giving personal information to the students, but not recording any. As the students conduct the survey, they record their partners' answers.	9 min.
10 min.	5) Following the survey, the students report back to the instructor on what they learned about their classmates. The instructor focuses mostly on breakfast habits. After listing answers received at random, the instructor has the group generate frequency information. The instructor recasts students' answers so that they are full sentences, or that they contain correct verb forms and accusative case endings.	7 min. could sharpen language focus

	6) Instructor pulls together the information that has been gathered, using this as a model for teacher talk: *Давайте сравним ответы….*/ *Американские студенты едят / пьют* *А русские едят / пьют …* Ask the students to look at the information that they've gathered and make statements about classmates whose eating habits are closest to theirs, encouraging them to phrase the statements as «*Мы с ….. едим …*» and «*Мы с … пьём …*»	1 min.
Unplanned	*Teacher wrote the infinitive есть on the board and prompted the students to give the forms by saying the subject pronouns in order. Forms were recorded on the board. When forms were on the board and instructor asked the students «what is going to mess you up with this verb?» Students noticed change of conjugation patterns (ед- as stem in plural; end stress in all the plural forms; similarities and differences between едим and едем. Similar procedure with пить. Group repetition of forms of both verbs.*	5 min. Should have stayed with part 6 for the last 7 minutes of class
10 min.	7) Instructor previews vocabulary for the next day's class (focus on soft adjectives последний, домашний, синий, etc.)	2 min.

Appendix 4. Alternatives to explicit explanation of verb conjugations

4A. Student Worksheet

Directions. You will hear a number of statements about the foods that people eat. In the first column, check the subject pronoun that goes with the statement that you hear, and then note whether you also eat the item indicated.
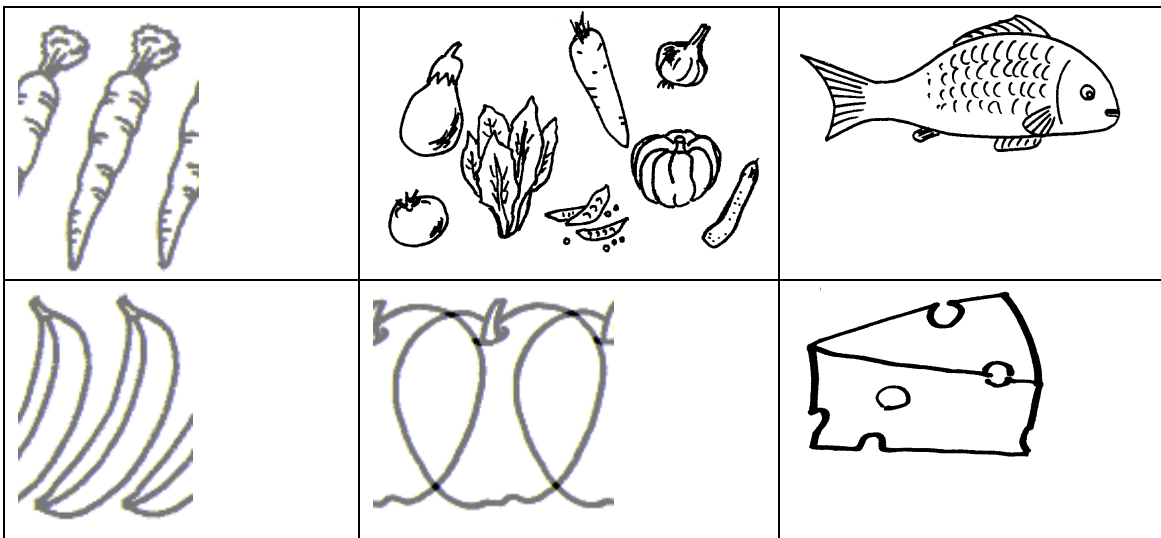
Кто что ест?	Я тоже
1. ____он ____ ты ____ они 2. ____вы ____ ты ____ мы 3. ____они ____ она ____ мы	

Teacher's script

1. Едят фрукты каждое утро.
2. На ужин обыно ешь салат.
3. На обед всегда едим суп.

4B. Student Worksheet

Directions. You will hear a number of statements about the foods that people eat. Write down the sentences that you hear in the box where the mentioned food item is pictured[3].

Teacher's script
1. Мы едим овощи.
2. Они едят рыбу.
3. Я ем сыр.
4. Ты ешь морковь
5. Вы едите банан.
6. Он ест яблоко.

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[3] These royalty-free images are from: http://tell.fll.purdue.edu/JapanProj//FLClipart/

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