From Explaining to Exemplifying, Exploring, and Extending L2 Grammar: the ZPD-4Ex Axiom

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Over the past several decades, the proper placement of grammar instruction (GI) in language pedagogy has plagued the profession. Though second language acquisition (SLA) research long-established the primacy of input over grammatical rule explanations as the currency of greatest value in acquiring a second language (Krashen, 1982; Van Patten, 2003), many teachers are reluctant to leave GI behind. After decades of debate over input-only approaches, there seems to be consensus that SLA might profit from "noticing" (Schmidt, 1990) and focus-on-form (FoF), and this is evidenced in the National Standards for Foreign Language Learning (1999). Standard 4.1 (Language Comparisons) emphasizes the importance of drawing students' attention to similarities and differences between the first and second language (L1 & L2). Such exploration includes idioms, proverbs, and unique semantic systems at the word level (e.g., the concept of "game" between French and U.S. English speakers). Standard 4.1 also encompasses comparisons of the L1 and L2 grammar. In spite of the increased attention to exemplification and exploration of grammar in the professional literature, the traditional emphasis on direct teacher explanations in L1 seems to perpetuate itself, undaunted (Wong, 2005), with regard to how 4.1 is addressed in the LOTE classroom. Cognitive Code Methodology (CCM), constructed upon the assumption that an explicit understanding of a grammar rule precedes its usage (Chastain, 1970), centers on teacher rule explanations in the students' L1, followed by a prescription of practice drills (first mechanical, then meaningful, then communicative), and it remains largely unchallenged and attractive in the sense that it is *known*; most of us were taught this way.

Clearly grammar has a place in the interactional and curricular architecture of LOTE teaching and learning. The central aim of this article is to share some innovative approaches to grammar instruction that transcend the coma-inducing rule lectures in L1 that are arguably responsible for the lack of L2 integration into most FL classrooms and declining enrollment in language study at higher levels (Krashen, 1982). Rather than a simple matter of *explanation*, as suggested earlier, I argue that grammar instruction that aligns to SLA and the national standards amplifies the importance of providing *examples* and opportunities for *exploration*, as well as better integration of *extension* activities into thematic planning practices. These four "exes" can be seen as progressive levels of teaching interventions, which are weighed against Vygotsky's (1986) notion of "just enough help" as optimal and range from providing examples and leading exploration to direct explanations of a give grammar concept and extension into task-based activities. Following a discussion of the research on the students' perspective on grammar instruction (GI) and the most recent research on the relative effectiveness of various approaches to GI, I will then present a ZPD-4Ex Axiom, which establishes a context for approaching L2 grammar in ways that provide appropriate assistance.

Grammar teaching: What do students want?

In discussing how learners approach explicit grammar instruction (EGI), Terrell (1991) extrapolated some suppositions based on the extant SLA research of his time. While recognizing that learners have the capacity to employ a monitor, the accuracy-editing device that under the best of circumstances might facilitate acquisition, he warned that most students are either *under*- or *over-users*. According to Terrell, only a very small segment of the learner population is represented by *super-users*, a term he used to refer to those who optimally engage the grammar-

deciphering function of the monitor in a way that facilitates SLA. In the years following the debate over input-centered vs. traditional GI approaches, various folk theories about students' preferences with regard to GI have emerged, so let us begin with a discussion of what the research literature says about the students' perspective on grammar's role in LOTE instruction.

Hall (1995) and Toth (2004), in their studies of classroom discourse in GI, found that an over-emphasis on form-focused drills led to student latencies (hesitations, expressions of a lack of engagement) mainly because the propositional content was artificial and impoverished in terms of representing or promoting interactional competence. Many of the high school Spanish students Hall studied wondered where all of the drills were headed (Hall, 1995), as evidenced in the title of her article ("Aw, man, where you goin'?"). Likewise, grammar practice days in the college-level Spanish classroom Toth studied produced similar consternation: "[The teacher] keeps asking for the verb tenses but the students don't even really seem to be catching on [be]cause he is moving too quickly and not allowing conversation to develop" (p. 24). "Grammar day" proved particularly confusing for lower-achieving students. According to Toth, "the constantly changing propositional content of the teacher turns during the transformation practice further complicated discourse processing during this activity" (p. 25), which strayed markedly from real-life conversation patterns. One student confessed to figuring out the game:

> As people began to answer I had an example to go by and could participate a lot easier...I was thinking about why people didn't pick up on it as fast [as I did] because it was repetitive. As the questions continued, I felt less and less inclined to answer because I was becoming bored with the exercise. (p. 24)

Recently, Loewen et al. (2009) studied the attitudes of 754 university-level ESL and FL learners toward L2 grammar and error correction. Analysis of survey results produced the following six factors, which are listed in order of prominence:

1) affirmation of the efficacy of grammar study

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2) a dislike of error correction

3) affirmation of the importance of communication

4) affirmation of grammar's importance

5) affirmation of the importance of accurate L2 use

6) a negative impression of grammar teaching

While these results appear to support a sense that grammar is important to students, respondents expressed dissatisfaction with their experience of it in FL instruction.

The question, "What do students want?" as it pertains to grammar instruction, merits closer attention in the research literature. While there appears to be a low motivational quality associated with the traditional drill and kill approach, it is not clear which practices might promote more student engagement. Until that question is answered, instructors have to weigh their options within the present array of approaches to grammar instruction. In the following sections, I will discuss the major trends in the professional literature and offer some guidance in negotiating between examples, exploration, and explanations, which constitute the primary mediational means employed in grammar teaching. Because some teachers struggle to find content and contexts in which to couch GI, I will also share some suggestions for integrating authentic materials into the curriculum that offer tools for modeling ways particular grammar structures are used for language functions and situations associated with topics related to everyday language use, which is the cornerstone of NYS LOTE teaching standards.

A closer look at the inductive vs. deductive debate

Should the teacher move from rules to examples or from examples to rules? For decades, the profession has debated the relative merits of deductive vs. inductive approaches, respectively. Van Patten's (2003) Primacy of Meaning Principle, which is predicated on decades of SLA research, postulates that learners attend to meaning before form; consequently, it is hard to imagine that focusing their attention on form first (FoF), as deductive approaches like CCM tend to do, constitutes a defensible position from an SLA perspective. Still, the primacy of input does not mean that no FoF is warranted. Van Patten's processing instructional (PI) model coaxes attention to form while students are primarily focused on meaning; this might appear inductive on the surface, but a key detail that is often overlooked in its articulation is a preliminary step that involves a brief statement about a key difference between the L1 and L2, such as the position of the direct object pronoun in Spanish. This rule-first model hardly connotes a purely inductive, example-to-rule approach, as it is often depicted in the professional literature. A more hard-line nativist stance rejects the need for such a step, since meaning-bearing messages in L2 just a bit beyond the learner's current level (I+1) are considered sufficient to trigger acquisition (Krashen, 1982); explicit grammar instruction is superfluous within this perspective. As will become clear later in this article, a distinction that often gets lost between the aforementioned stances (deductive vs. inductive) is the difference between inductive and implicit approaches. Whereas the former connotes some capacity to induce a rule from examples rather than simply learning and applying a rule, the latter is not concerned with uncovering or hypothesizing about underlying rules. For example, the Present, Practice, and Produce method (PPP) commonly practiced in the Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages first presents how a grammar point is used in context, offers students opportunities for form-focused practice, then

more open production tasks (Ellis, 2003). Though there might be variations in which the first P might involve some kind of grammar explanation (deductive, explicit), the method otherwise embodies a truly implicit approach to grammar instruction.

To summarize, then, explicit instruction refers to the open presentation or discussion of grammar rules. Implicit approaches, in contrast, do not call attention to underlying rules. Contrary to popular belief, the implicit-explicit polarity has nothing to do with order of presentation, which is the domain of the inductive (examples first) vs. deductive (rules first) polarity. While stances on GI tend to gravitate along a deductive-explicit to inductive-implicit extreme, respectively, the distinctions often blur. For example, as alluded to earlier, Van Patten's (2003) PI is often miscategorized as purely inductive or implicit, but is it really? Beginning with a hint or pattern with regard to L1 vs. L2 grammatical rules suggests a rule-first, deductive-explicit approach. Neither is it clear whether sociocultural theory, which espouses a dialogic, exploratory approach to grammar instruction, supports movement from examples to rules (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 2002); or vice versa (Negueruela & Lantolf, 2006). Lev Vygotsky (1986), the originator of Sociocultural Theory (SCT), extolled explicit grammatical knowledge as a high achievement of concept development. His zone of proximal development (ZPD) construct, which measures the distance between what a learner can handle independently and what they could do with assistance from a teacher or more capable peer, begins with modeling (examples) rather than explaining a concept, which is clearly an inductive-explicit trajectory.

Classroom-based studies of the effectiveness of GI under a variety of conditions sometimes confirm but more often challenge the common practice of explicit-deductive approaches like CCM, in which a rule is explained and later applied. In the research literature, CCM has been operationalized as explicit grammar instruction (EGI) or explicit-deductive

instructional conditions. Macaro and Masterman (2006) studied the effects of intensive EGI on the writing ability and grammar knowledge of 12 students in a French grammar class at a UK university. Students were tested three times over a five-month period to test the durability of the effects. While there were some very modest gains in grammar knowledge as measured by improvements in the ability to correct errors, students did not improve significantly in their writing or translation skills. The results of the study cast doubt on EGI's potential for internalization into the learner's developing system and contradicted the widely held assumption that more capable students did not benefit from EGI. Several recent studies have tested the effects of deductive-explicit conditions (EGI) against inductive-implicit conditions, in which the student received only examples and no guidance with regard to the underlying rule. Tode (2007) tested the effects of implicit vs. explicit instruction on three Japanese EFL classes at a junior high school. EGI outperformed the implicit and control groups, but the gains were short-lived, declining significantly by the time the second post-test was administered. One of the findings of the study was that students needed more examples of the targeted form. Erlam's (2003) study of French direct object (DO) pronoun instruction under inductive, deductive, and control settings at a New Zealand high school also showed that the benefits of deductive instruction may be only temporary. Erlam randomly assigned second-year French students (N=69) to instruction in DO pronouns under three conditions. The first group experienced CCM-aligned deductive instruction. Another group was taught inductively through vague leading questions. Overall, as in Tode's (2007) study, EGI showed the modest but significant gains on more of the measures than the inductive and control groups, but these gains declined steeply over time.

Haight, Herron, and Cole (2007) investigated the impact of deductive vs. inductive instruction on college-level French students (N=47) who were at about the same stage of

instruction (second semester) as Erlam's high school learners. An interesting difference is that the inductive treatment, rather than simply predicated upon vague leading questions, was adjusted around the notion of *guided inductive* instruction (citing Herron & Tomasello, 1992) and the PACE model (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 2002). PACE stands for Presentation (of a grammar rule in context), Attention to form and Co-construction, and Extension (student use of grammar point modeled in the Presentation), and it may be aptly described as an inductive-explicit approach, as was the case in Erlam's study. The core of the approach centered on the use of carefully prepared leading questions to promote learner participation in co-constructing underlying grammar rules. As in Erlam's study, the authors sought to measure the differential effects of inductive vs. deductive approaches in both the short term and the long term. PACE lessons were prepared for eight targeted grammar forms and complemented with deductive versions that followed the typical rule presentation followed by practice (CCM). PowerPoint served as the anchor instructional media for both conditions, and, as in the case of Erlam's study, two post-tests were administered. Students who learned under the guided induction-oriented PACE model performed significantly better than those in the deductive condition. Though both groups showed gains on the post-test, the guided inductive group performed significantly better than their colleagues in the deductive group.

What lessons are to be learned from these studies? First, inductive and implicit conditions are, with the exception of Haight and her colleagues' study, gets short shrifted with regard to a fair chance of competing with deductive-explicit conditions. However, it cannot be denied that there is some profit in explicit FoF. Furthermore, it would appear that there are benefits to inductive over deductive approaches with regard to securing student involvement and retention; in other

Figure 1
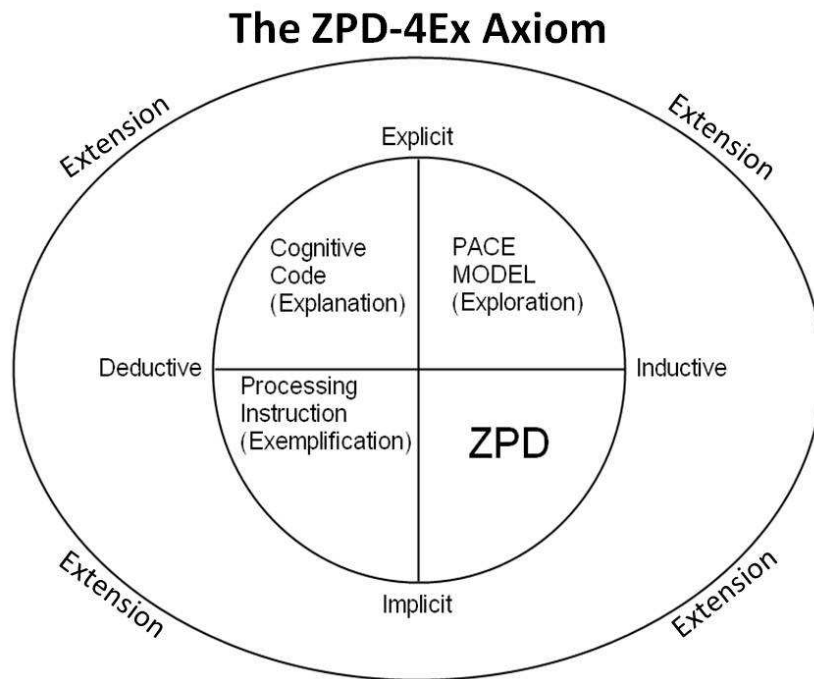
words, some *exploration* (not just explanation) is necessary so that learners actively and optimally appropriate grammatical concepts. Perhaps the most definitive answer we can discern from the research is that explanation is not enough; exemplification and exploration play an important, if not central role, in GI. If we put learner needs at the center, and maintain our focus on providing just enough mediation within the learner's emergent zone of proximal development, we can surround that focal point with the three forms of mediation, which range in levels of implicitness (vs. explicitness) and deduction (vs. induction). If we overlay the implicit-explicit and inductive-deductive polarities with the three exes (exemplification, exploration, and explanation), we end up with the model featured in Figure 1 (above). In yet another layer, the main instructional approaches discussed in this article gravitate toward the three quadrants that surround the least mediated, inductive-implicit area in which one would expect to find the

learner's ZPD. Processing Instruction, though mainly implicit (provision of examples), is fronted with explanations, therefore it inhabits the deductive-implicit area immediately to the left of the ZPD. Cognitive Code and the PACE Model both exist above the horizon in the light of the explicit realm. PACE, because learners induce the rules, inhabits the exploratory inductive-explicit quadrant, whereas CCM inhabits the explicit-deductive, explanation-centered quadrant.

The three "exes" and their associated teaching approaches should not be perceived necessarily as an instructional sequence or even mutually exclusive categories (e.g., the PACE Model makes use of examples, but the emphasis is on exploration) but rather as dominant methodological modes existing along a continuum between inductive-implicit to deductive-explicit interventions that should be employed judiciously around students' emergent ZPDs. It might be rightly argued that it is impossible to gauge and accommodate every student's ZPD in a given class period; however, this should not hold us back from gauging the class in order to determine a collective ZPD. For example, if I distribute rules for soccer in Spanish that are saturated with text-enhanced examples of affirmative and negative formal commands, I should not be surprised if the mere provision of these examples provides sufficient instantiation of the underlying rules to stay within the minimal intervention modes (exemplification and exploration) without recourse to direct explanations. In the following sections of the article, I will discuss strategies related to each of the three interventions (exemplification, exploration, and explanation) to illustrate ways they may be applied in the classroom.

Exemplifying grammar: Embedding grammar in meaning-based activities and teacher talk

The darkest area of the ZPD-4Ex diagram is the lower-right "implicit" quadrant, and according to Vygotsky (SCT), interventions should begin with modeling the concept, which is

reflected in the "P" (Presentation) section of the PACE Model. Were one to take processing instruction and cut out the fronted brief explanation of some feature of the L2 related to a targeted grammar point, it would present itself here in a way that would align with a Vygotskyan framework; otherwise, fidelity to the method places it in the adjacent deductive-implicit realm. The cornerstone of Processing Instruction (Van Patten, 2003) is the input exercise, the central aim of which is training the learner's attention to correct vs. incorrect examples of a particular grammar rule while staying within an engaging, meaning-driven activity. Anyone who has ever personally used or seen the commercials for Rosetta Stone already has some familiarity with this approach. Exercises should optimally bind meaning to the selection of the correct form based on morphological markers. Examples include reading statements about musical artists and checking among four boxes that force the learner to select among a mix of number and gender marking of nouns and modifiers (e.g., JLO, Marc Anthony, Los Tigres del Norte, Las Jeans) or looking at verb marking in order to indicate whether an activity is part of a celebrity's normal routine (present tense) or a plan for the future (future tense). Input activities, when paired with source texts such as YouTube videos or readings, can also present a vehicle for delivering the Presentation section of a PACE lesson. For example, a website directed toward financial advice for college students can be a rich source of examples of subjunctive in noun clauses that can be turned into a true/false exercise. (El autor recomienda que los universitarios salden las cuentas. C / F). One of the most difficult tasks to accomplish in the design of an input practice activity is ensuring that students must attend to a key feature of the grammatical structure in focus to get the correct answer. As the last example illustrates, this is not always possible. In such cases, text enhancement serves to promote FoF when adjacent semantic and pragmatic markers add extra

clues as to the correct answer, thus reducing the need to notice the targeted grammar form. For examples of input processing activities, the reader is encouraged to consult Warford (2010).

In addition to input activities, such as those espoused by Van Patten, Trahey and White (1993) have demonstrated that input flood, which involves immersing students in an abundant supply of a targeted grammar form will promote its acquisition. On a related note, Frey (1988) illustrates a way of purposefully attending to classroom L2 use as a way of helping learners internalize and contextualize L2 grammar. According to Frey, "teacher talk" can offer a rich source of SLA, and it represents "the principal activity in a foreign language classroom and thus the main source of input, allowing acquisition to take place" (p. 681). Frey (1988) defines teacher talk in the following manner: "anything that the teacher says spontaneously, without a script, the actual linguistic content of which is created to suit a particular need" (p. 681). In L2 settings, "the purpose of teacher talk is to model and to guide practice in the target language" (p. 682). He adds that lowering the affective filter is another feature of good L2 teacher talk. While some see L2 teacher talk as a largely unplanned phenomenon, Frey argues that L2 teacher talk should be explored systematically. He advances four related considerations:

1) Tailor teacher talk to what the learner knows and does not yet know.

2) Teacher talk should feature challenging lexis and grammar; it should flood students with examples of the grammar being learned since learners prefer to attend to meaning.

3) Teacher talk should be varied since using the same stock phrases will undermine opportunities for acquisition.

4) Language content should suit the purpose of the utterance(s).

In circulating particular grammar features through teacher talk, Frey advocates the following stages of incorporation:

1. Introduce (e.g., ir a)

2. Practice and vary (vamos a página..., vamos a estudiar...)

3. Reenter (this same construct, in any appropriate tense: va a estudiar, iba a ser, etc.)

4. Combine (with an earlier structure [estar]: va a estar)

In his experience as a teacher trainer, Frey (1988) found problems in the internship were invariably tied to faulty teacher talk. As he states, "The occurrence of lexical items and grammatical signals cannot be left to chance, determined haphazardly by random selection and an intuition as to what will work" (p. 682).

With regard to how best to optimize L2 in classroom discourse, Frey states, "The classroom is not the real world, linguistically or socially. But precisely because it is contrived, many learners are more successful at acquiring a second language in a limited time than they would be if left to sink or swim in a foreign country" (p. 682). Frey (1988) speaks of training teachers in optimizing classroom talk for input and interaction, a proposal that has been designated as an imperative for FL teacher education programs under the ACTFL-NCATE Standards (Pearson, Fonseca-Greber, & Foell, 2006). Unfortunately, this area of foreign language teacher education continues to elude the content of most methods courses.

One of the main culprits for the current input deficit, and for that matter, standards-based teaching, is that grammar continues to reign supreme as the alpha and omega of instructional planning. Thematic and topical approaches to planning, which furnish a rich field of contextualized grammar, demand a level of effort and creativity on the teacher's part. In designing a lesson, you may struggle to find relevant grammar points that fit with the particular

theme or topic your students will be exploring, let alone imagine where to look for authentic media that might provide these connections. While there are no clear-cut answers to this question, it may be helpful to reflect on the essential language skills you want your students to master by the end of the unit. Those skills will naturally fit into the particular topical or thematic context you have selected. In other words: What do I want my students to be able to do in L2 with regard to this topic? Suppose that your topic is travel. It would be reasonable to assume that students should come out of this unit able to prepare an itinerary. So, what is the grammar of an itinerary? Clearly, either the future immediate (we're going to _____ on Sunday) or future tense (we *will* visit the Mayan ruins) would be appropriately employed in service of this particular linguistic function. You might also have students write postcards to their friends writing about their experiences, employing simple and imperfect past tense. Present perfect might complement a "checklist" stage of preparing for a trip ("Have you received your passport?").

In preparing for the exploration of a given grammar point, your next question should be: How can I model the use of X or Y grammatical structure? While the most expedient approach would be to develop a skit that models use of the targeted structure in a context related to the unit theme or topic, innovative and authentic multi-media are often readily available on the web in the form of printable forms or menus or actual videos that capture the way a grammar form serves a communicative function in the context of the given theme or topic or at least serve as a starting point for modeling usage. For example, I found a Puerto Rican credit counseling website that was full of noun clauses for giving advice. I simply typed in some independent clauses in Spanish that introduce subjunctive (Es importante, Recomiendo, etc.), and voila, I was connected

to this gold mine, replete with examples of subjunctive in noun clauses and very practical suggestions for maintaining one's credit.

In other cases, it may be more difficult to find sources that offer sufficient examples of how the targeted grammar form is used. Oftentimes, you may have to find sources around which you can illustrate a particular area of grammar usage. For example, after finding the classifieds section, I improvised a true/false exercise that compared the offerings on various value points. I was careful to enhance the text around the use of comparative and superlative constructions for later analysis during the Attention to form and Co-construction ('A and C') phases of the lesson. In Figure 2 (following page), you will find the fifteen topics advanced in the New York State Languages Other Than English (LOTE) syllabus. For each topic, I advance some communicative functions that naturally connect and suggest associated grammars. In the third column, I offer some possible sources that might provide "P" (Presentation) material that may be enhanced and later explored at the "A" and "C" exploration phases, which will be discussed in the following section.

Exploring grammar: The "A" and "C" in PACE: Attention-to-form and Co-construction

Vygotsky's (1986) zone of proximal development continues from modeling (Stage I) to another (teacher)-mediated stage (Stage II). In addition to the deductive-implicit option of PI (lower-left quadrant), the learner may benefit from a more dialogic exploration of the targeted concept, moving from examples to form-focused guided exploration, which centers on the upper-right "inductive-explicit" quadrant. Ellis (2003) cites his efforts in articulating a principled approach to integrating attention to grammatical features of L2 in the consciousness-raising task (C-R), which minimally involves drawing students' attention to a particular language form that is

isolated and or enhanced. In the PACE model (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 2002), this is represented in the "attention-to-form" stage of the lesson, which follows an initial input presentation ("P") phase. At the "A" stage, the PACE lesson draws learners' attention to a particular language form presented. For example, the teacher might lead choral repetition while pointing out examples of the target form or have the students point out the examples themselves. If the presentation is oral or visual, the teacher may replay key sections of the presentation in which the form is presented. The following leading questions are illustrative of C-R leading questions appropriate to the promotion of students' attention to form.

¿Qué   ven? [What do you see?]

¿Qué tienen en común estas palabras? [What do these words have in common?]

¿Hay semejanzas? ¿Qué está subrayado? [What's underlined?]

Quels verbes ont l'*aller* ? qu'emploient l'*etre* ? [Which verbs use aller, …etre?]

Qu'ont un 's' sur l'extrémité? [Which have an 's' on the end?]

The next stage of the PACE Model, the Co-Construction phase launches into C-R questions that lead learners to awareness and articulation of the underlying rule. According to Ellis, "A C-R task constitutes a kind of puzzle which when solved enables learners to discover for themselves how a linguistic feature works" (p. 163). The problem with such direct, explicit approaches, according to Ellis, is that they "may not appeal to learners who are less skilled at forming and testing conscious hypotheses about language" (p. 167). There is also the danger that such approaches undermine the primary focus on meaning, which is central to the concept of a task.

Figure 2: Connecting grammar and LOTE topics

Topic	Related skills	Associated grammar	Possible sources

Personal ID	Describing physical appearance of self/others	Verb "to be"; noun/modifier agreement; definite and indefinite articles; adjectives of nationality; special expressions w/ "to have"	Home pages (w/ permission), celebrity websites
House & Home	Describing (locations of) rooms and furnishings	Prepositions; demonstrative adjectives/pronouns	IPIX 360 house tours, online interior design programs, doll house and figures, family websites, photo album
Services	Reading, giving instructions Describing resulting conditions	Impersonal expressions for giving directions ("se…"); imperative; accidental "se" (se me rompió…), "to be" with past participle to describe resultant conditions	Yellow pages, spam e-mail, commercials, "how to" manuals in L2
Family Life	Describing family members, household activities, daily routines	Possessive adjectives (mi padre, etc.), demonstrative adjectives ; descriptive adjectives ; action verbs ;	Doll house and figures, family websites, photo album

		reflexive verbs	
Community/ Neighborhood	Giving directions; identifying, describing locations, events	The imperative, prepositions; common action verbs	Websites for L2 towns, maps, community calendars
Physical Environment	Giving directions, telling time, describing weather, locations, discussing environmental policy	The imperative; "to have" vs. "to be," other verbs employed to describe various weathers; prepositions, time expressions, subjunctive	Google Earth, Weather Channel (in L2), environmental websites
Meal Taking/ Food/Drink	Ordering at a restaurant; identifying major meals, food, and drink; describing food preparation	Politeness markers (modal verbs); (in)formal address; gustar; imperative or "se" to give directions; object pronouns	Menus, websites for restaurants, recipes
Health & Welfare	Seeking medical services, describing interpreting symptoms	Formal commands. Subjunctive in noun clauses to offer advice (medical); present perfect (have you…?)	Medical websites, websites for hospitals, medical background forms
Educational System	Describing schedules, extracurricular	Time expressions; gustar; number systems	School, teacher websites and

	activities; expressing preferences		calendars, sample schedules
Earning a Living	Naming occupations, writing a cover letter or resume	Past tense aspect; politeness markers (modal verbs)	Sample CVs and cover letters, websites for professional training
Leisure	ID sports, holidays, etc.; teaching a hobby or sport; asking, answering questions about pastimes; commenting on movies one has seen, present/past customs	Imperative; impersonal expressions ("on…"/ "se…"); object pronouns \future immediate/conjugated verb w/ infinitive; past tense aspect; simple past to describe reactions to events; imperfect aspect	Websites for L2 sports teams, entertainment section of the paper, personal websites (with permission); YouTube ("my weekend")
Public & Private Services	Bank and postal transactions, gov't forms	Object pronouns Present perfect ("Have you ever…?")	Websites for gov't services, postal order form, bank slips, credit counseling pages
Shopping	Shopping, finding bargains Comparing items	Object pronouns; comparative/superlative expressions; special	Websites for stores, reviews of stores, YouTube video on

	Exchange rates	economic expressions; adjective clauses (I need a ___ that ___...)	spring shopping
Travel	Planning a trip; hotel, transportation reservations; asking, understanding directions; map reading; writing a postcard	Politeness markers (modal verbs); past tense aspect; future tense; future immediate; conjugated verb with infinitive to describe plans; past tense aspect	Tourism, hotel brochures, websites; airline reservation forms, websites
Current Events	Persuading, expressing opinions; proposing policy changes; describing content of works of art, aspects of architectural design; describing scenes depicted in paintings	Noun, adjective, adverb and "if" clauses in indicative and subjunctive; advanced work with prepositions (upper-left, etc.)"there is/are"; present progressive	L2 newspapers, websites, blogs, YouTube commentaries, reviews, Editorial essays; televised debates, interviews with entertainers, politicians

The teacher might also draw students' attention to positive and negative exemplars of the form for them to verify the underlying rule. For example, if there is text that presents past and present activities, the teacher could go over the verbs presented and ask:

C'est le present? [Is this in the present?]

Le jour passé?" [The other day?]

¿Refiere al presente? [Does this refer to the present?]

…al pasado? […past?]

Rather than over-relying on a pre-determined set of leading questions, the artful PACE practitioner encourages students to drive the flow of questions to the maximum extent possible (Shrum & Glisan, 2005). Skala (2003) found that grammar instruction driven by student questions contributed to the uptake of targeted grammar features during instructional episodes. Eventually, the teacher and students discuss the hypotheses about the form in question and its essential features. Leading questions at the co-construction phase encourage students to formulate their own appropriations of the underlying grammar concept. It is easy to get stuck on the dubious distinction between leading questions that purely draw attention to form and those that co-construct grammar concepts. Think of this overall phase as drawing students in from the most salient features of the L2 form (A: "What do these underlined words have in common?" and then working into the explorations of its underlying rules (C: "Do they all have the same endings?" "Is it the same for all kinds of verbs?" "Are there exceptions to this pattern?").

In the dialogic exploration of L2 grammar, it is important to carefully consider code choices. As Adair-Hauck and Donato (PACE) originally conceived it, the PACE lesson was to be delivered in the L2, following a brief adjustment period. If you agree with SCT's stance that L1 represents an essential semiotic tool for L2 analysis, then it makes sense to openly encourage L1

use through the "Attention-to-form" and "Co-construction" phases of the PACE lesson; however, open student use of L1 does not necessarily apply to you as the teacher.

According to Adair-Hauck and Donato (2002), teachers may want to phase in the L2 for the "A" and the "C" sections gradually. The question of how to translate the view of L1 as an essential language learning tool into effective practices remains to be addressed. There is a concern, for example, that these classroom-based SCT studies will discourage teachers from encouraging student use of L2 during collaborative activities (Wells, 1999). Also, as I hope this article has established by now, the teacher is sometimes the students' only direct source of comprehensible input (Van Patten, 2003; Wong, 2005). Students seem to get this. By a small margin, Macaro (1997), in his study of foreign language teaching and learning in Wales, found that students prefer to be able to use their L1 if necessary; however, they did not reserve the same latitude for the teacher who was expected to try to get the message across in L2 at least twice before resorting to L1. They were keenly aware that holding out for the teacher to resort to L1 constituted a cop out. As one student put it, "It would be easier (in L1) probably but probably we wouldn't learn as much" (p. 103).

Recent research in classroom-based SCT studies point to yet another way of dialogically co-constructing understandings of grammar rules. Antón's (1999) study of beginning university French and Italian classrooms relates examples of teacher-student metacognitive dialogues in which the students used English to solicit teacher feedback on their L2 use, but the teacher responded in the L2. Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) encountered a similar phenomenon in their study of Australian French professors. These exchanges seemed perfectly natural to both the teachers and the students, and there is clear evidence that students were constructing an understanding in spite of the teacher's choice to respond to grammar-related questions in the L2.

The advantage of such an approach is obvious: students gain more opportunities to interpret meaning in the L2 and the potential disruption of introducing English into the lesson is diminished. Furthermore, teachers have the opportunity to model use of the L2 as a semiotic tool for concept development.

Re-thinking the grammar explanation: It *is* possible to stay in L2!

If exemplification and guided exploration are insufficient to convey a particular feature regarding a grammatical concept, the last resort would be to directly explain it to students, though it is likely that some prior failure of mediation within those two modes is to blame and simple recurrence through examples and leading questions ought to be sufficient to address the problem. In the ZPD-4Ex Axiom, this is represented in a shift from the upper-right (inductive-explicit) to the upper-left (deductive-explicit) condition. In doing so, the teacher should remember that telling does not equal teaching, no

Figure 3: Kalivoda Method

Objeto directo ("it") = la (substitutes for "la pluma").

Necesito <u>la pluma.</u>

La necesito.

matter how articulate or well-charted your explanation might be. As Vygotsky (1986) stated, "Direct teaching of concepts is impossible and fruitless. A teacher who tries to do this usually accomplishes nothing but empty verbalism, a parrot-like repetition of words by the child, simulating a knowledge of the corresponding concepts but actually covering up a vacuum" (p. 150). Remember that good grammar teaching is a process of mediation, not transmission; active appropriation on the part of the learner is necessary in order for language development to internalize. That said, it might be argued that some L2 grammar concepts are too complex to be

explored purely dialogically. There is a risk, however, that, in explaining grammar in the L1, a fairly common practice (Chávez, 2006; Edstrom 2006; Kraemer, 2006; Turnbull, 2001), an unqualified avalanche of L1 can suffocate the flow of a lesson that is otherwise rich in examples of the L2 ready to place in the service of student acquisition and interactional competence (Kalivoda; 1990). Chambers (1992) admits there are places where L1 may be appropriate but also asserts that "the most profitable and most durable work on grammar is done in the target language" (p. 66).

Thinking about whether or not you are going to maintain L2 during grammar instruction may have a lot to do with how capable you feel in getting the point across without resorting to L1, or perhaps you believe, against all evidence to the contrary, that a solid L1 explanation is more efficient and effective than dialogic exploration in which teacher L2 and students' L1s are interwoven. Thanks to cognates and an array of multi-media support, this need not be such a daunting prospect. As a remedy to the L1-for-grammar-teaching phenomenon, Kalivoda (1990) suggested that, rather than breaking into verbal explanations in L1, teachers instead discuss the grammar in the L2 while using extralinguistic supports such as the chalkboard to focus students' attention on the targeted forms. We may even, if necessary, write the English equivalents. Figure 3 (above) reproduces a chalk-and-talk episode depicted in Kalivoda's article. Using such a diagram, the teacher need not switch from the L2 as the medium of instruction. In the last five minutes of his class, students with questions were encouraged to ask them, though, according to the author, this was rarely necessary.

In the time since Kalivoda published his article on using the chalkboard to mediate the teaching of grammar in L2, EGI has witnessed the rise of an i-generation of instructional technologies. Advanced word processing features have developed the capacity to enhance our

ability to communicate with students beyond simple chalk and talk. A graphic organizer (Terrell, 1991) is a visual document—sometimes called a handout—that can be prepared using the word processor to give students a framework with which to process instruction in L2 without interrupting the flow of teacher L2 usage. Perhaps the greatest asset of new word processing and multi-media technologies is that we can use a variety of fonts and colors to focus students' attention on particular formal and syntactical features. In addition to highlighting a particular word, we can draw attention even further into its morphological features. For example, in addition to highlighting articles, you could also adjust the endings of the articles to distinguish marking for gender and number. PowerPoint offers the added benefit of movement, which enables us to actually dramatize the construction of particular grammatical features, parsing their revelation in such a way as to draw students' attention to how a morpheme, phrase, or sentence is put together. For example, you could pair off the independent and dependent clauses in the subjunctive and show how relative pronouns act as links.

The Fourth 'Ex' (Extension): How should learners be pressed to use the targeted grammar point?

Eventually, as learners move through the stages of the ZPD, they attain some limited capacity to use the targeted structure independently (III. Internalization) and become self-regulated in walking back through the process, with or without a formal instructional intervention to recycle the concept (IV. Recurrence). These last two stages may be seen as a fourth "ex" for "extension." In designing extension activities, a question related to the inductive vs. deductive, implicit vs. explicit debate is the role of output practice in the teaching of L2 grammar. In SCT, there certainly is more active production on the part of the learner, but the

culminating "extension" activity, which may mirror the L2 that was modeled in the "Presentation" section at the beginning of the lesson, comes only after carefully guided examples (Presentation) and exploration (Attention to form and Co-construction). Traditional CCM, which moves students through stages of output practice very early on, ascribes to a transmission metaphor for teaching and learning: The teacher explains the rule and the students pound it into their heads as they progress through a series of drills. Consequently, deductive-explicit models, such as CCM tend to push learners toward output faster than inductive-explicit models, such as SCT's PACE Model (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 2002), which in turn, emphasize output more heavily than do nativist approaches (i.e., PI).

According to Wong and Van Patten (2003), the "drill is out," particularly the canned mechanical varieties. In general, nativist approaches tend to dismiss the role of output in SLA: allow input (examples) a chance to mature in the developing system, and output will simply happen. In that sense, there is no need for conscious, independent practice, as connoted in the upper stages of the ZPD. Regardless of one's methodological preference, the profession would benefit from a healthy respect for the complexity of producing output in a second language. Levelt's Production Model (1995) predicts an incredibly complex series of processes that need to occur in order for us to be able to formulate a response to someone. The message that comes in must be parsed and conceptualized; then a response must be formulated and articulated. If there is one thing we need to understand as teachers, it is not to underestimate the amount of structured input and scaffolding that needs to be secured in the developing system before we have learners extensively use the language. As Van Patten (2003) has pointed out, pushing students prematurely into output has detrimental effects on their acquisition as well as their affect and motivation. Rather than focusing on explanations followed by output practice activities, he

suggests that activities at the beginning stages of acquisition require some binding of meaning to form in order to arrive at the correct answer. It is easy to see the huge difference in cognitive load between having students check off or respond "yes" or "no" to statements related to activities they did over the weekend vs. expecting them to tell the teacher or classmates about their weekend, and yet the value of processing examples of L2 grammar continues to elude the pedagogical priorities of most mainstream language teachers.

In designing extension activities, there should minimally be a quality of authenticity. Hall's (1995) and Toth's (2004) articles underscore how de-motivating and artificial such production practice exercises can be. As an alternative, the goal should be to approximate real-life language functions, an approach that has been well-established in the United Kingdom as Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). TBLT, in spite of its clear alignment to the latest SLA research, failed to take root in the United States (Markee, 1997), which is unfortunate since it offers a practical way to integrate all of the state and national standards around authentic tasks. In particular, it offers a vehicle for extending the targeted grammar into opportunities for culture learning.

Conclusion

Ten years after their dissemination, state and national standards fail to connect with mainstream LOTE teaching. Ask a lot of teachers what topic they are on in their teaching, and the answer will likely be a "grammar" topic rather than a theme pertaining to daily life in the target culture, which is the heart and soul of standards-based teaching at both the state and national level. One of the features of the national standards is an emphasis on "Language Comparisons" (4.1). Though it is but one of eleven categories, it continues to predominate as the

focus of instruction. Accepting grammar's utility in the process of learning another language should not entail the near-annihilation of other "C's" or their relegation to the periphery (e.g., "culture Fridays"), as is often the case in actual classroom practice. This article explored ways to expand upon CCM, the common and outdated practice of explaining a grammar rule in English, then proceeding through a series of drills. The problem with CCM and its reliance on explanation over the provision of examples and exploration has been likened to loading so much baggage into the train that it never leaves the station. Yet it continues, impervious to decades of SLA research to the contrary, perhaps because it has the look of active teaching and learning. While such deductive-explicit approaches might be efficient, they are not *effective* in the long-term. Simply explaining a grammar concept does not ensure its transfer into the learner's developing system. Without examples in the form of focused input or opportunities to actively involve students in exploring and articulating a particular grammar point's major properties, we are left with hollow short-term victories on quizzes and tests, and huge disappointment when we find students starting from scratch only months later. Let us also keep present the fact that we teach in a state that defines topics as snippets from life in the target culture, not grammar topics. Unless we clearly see the connections between grammar concepts and their actual usage in everyday tasks, how can we expect our students to do so?

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