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„An English Course Designed for Tibetan Women Living in Exile in India“

Verfasserin:

Evelyn Fiona Larsen

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Betreuerin: A.o. Univ.-Prof. Christiane Dalton-Puffer

ABSTRACT

The diploma thesis provides an English language course design for Tibetan refugees living in exile in India. The target group of the course are Tibetan women, who are weaving carpets for living. They show specific language needs which are influenced by various contextual factors.

The thesis bases its ideas on Western language teaching theories, discussing different aspects crucial to course design. The concept focuses on contextual factors in order to match the delicate political and economical situation of the students. Especially, factors such as semiliteracy and poor education are challenging when planning an foreign language course. The main goal of the teaching agenda is to endow the students with language skills which can be used while participating in sales dialogues and further market activities.

The course design concept draws on the Communicative Language Teaching approach based mostly on the work of Keith Johnson (1983) and David A. Wilkins (1976). The model focuses rather on oral and communication orientated language use than on structural comprehension. Therefore, everyday language usage is emphasized throughout the concluding course design. David Nunan's (1988) and Jack C. Richards' (2001) theories on curriculum design provide the underlying structure of the course development process. Central theoretical aspects then have been applied to the students' situation.

The thesis closes with a course blue print, providing detailed lesson plan drafts and teaching materials. The course outline has greater potential value beyond this particular application as it can be modified for the use by other target groups having similar characteristics.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Das Thema der Diplomarbeit ist die Erstellung eines Englisch-Sprachkurses für tibetische Flüchtlinge, die im Exil in Indien leben. Zielgruppe des Kurses sind tibetische Frauen, die ihren Lebensunterhalt mit dem Weben von Teppichen bestreiten. Für sie ergeben sich spezielle Sprachbedürfnisse, die von verschiedenen kontextuellen Faktoren beeinflusst werden.

Die vorliegende Arbeit baut auf zentrale Ideen westlicher Theorien des Sprachunterrichts auf, die ausschlaggebend für den Kursentwurf sind. Das Kurskonzept konzentriert sich auf die kontextuellen Faktoren mit spezieller Berücksichtigung der heiklen politischen und wirtschaftlichen Situation der Studierenden. Eine besondere Herausforderung bei der Planung des Fremdsprachenunterrichts ist die kaum vorhandene Bildung und der partielle Analphabetismus der Kursteilnehmerinnen. Das Hauptziel des Unterrichts besteht darin, funktionale Fremdsprachenkenntnisse zu vermitteln, die insbesondere die Teilnahme an Verkaufsgesprächen und weiterführenden Marktaktivitäten ermöglichen.

Die konzeptuelle Grundlage des vorliegenden Kursdesigns stützt sich auf den *Communicative Language Teaching*-Ansatz, wobei vor allem auf die Arbeiten von Keith Johnson (1983) und David A. Wilkins (1976) Bezug genommen wird. Schwerpunkt des Ansatzes ist die mündliche und kommunikationsorientierte Sprachanwendung, wobei der Alltagssprache ein höherer didaktischer Stellenwert eingeräumt wird als dem strukturellen Sprachverständnis. David Nunans (1988) und Jack C. Richards' (2001) Abhandlungen zum *Curriculum Design* bilden das Grundgerüst für den Prozess der Kurserstellung. Die zentralen theoretischen Ansätze werden dabei an die Situation der Studenten angepasst.

Ein konkreter Kursentwurf mit detailliertem Unterrichtsplan und Lehrmaterialien schließt die vorliegende Arbeit ab. Die Möglichkeit, diesen Leitfaden durch leichte Anpassung auch bei anderen Zielgruppen mit vergleichbaren Eigenschaften anzuwenden, birgt seinen potentiellen Wert.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Having seen at first hand the astonishing way people live in a Tibetan exile community, I decided to write my diploma thesis on some aspects of what I had experienced there. In the summer semester 2007 I lived for two months at Mcleod Ganj, North India, teaching English to Tibetan monks, but also to Tibetan women who were supporting themselves by weaving carpets. I was deeply touched by the generous hospitality which they offered me in spite of the fact that they had barely enough food and money for their own survival. Therefore, I want to dedicate this diploma thesis, and the effort that has gone into writing it, to those exiles in India who work so hard for their survival and still manage to open their hearts to strangers. My thesis is both a respectful tribute to their inspiring example and an earnest attempt to provide them with a good teaching programme – one that can help them to learn practical English more efficiently, which is an urgent need that richly deserves attention.

In the summer of 2008 I took the first step towards creating a specially designed English language course for these people. I devised a questionnaire for eliciting information from the potential students themselves about their own backgrounds, needs, and goals, and I sent it off to my contact persons in India. However, no response was forthcoming, despite repeated attempts to facilitate communication with the Tibetan monks in Mcleod Ganj. Finally, in March 2009 I was forced to conclude that it would not be possible to obtain any additional field information in this way. Therefore, my thesis as it stands is based entirely on the double foundation of: my own practical experience in the exile community on the one hand, and my academic background studies of relevant social and pedagogical issues on the other. It has been my aim to integrate pertinent aspects from both source areas – experiential and theoretical - in order to achieve the educational goals of this specific project. Namely, to produce a workable guide and lesson plan that can be used by untrained volunteers who are asked to teach English at the Tibetan exile centers in India.

The first part of my thesis should help the reader understand the personal background of the students and their desire to learn English. I begin with an introduction to the Tibetan situation, providing a brief history and a description of the momentary circumstances of the Tibetan people. This is followed by some basic information about the Tibetan language and a discussion of the major differences between English and Tibetan as they relate to foreign language learning. The ethnographical analysis should prove especially useful to volunteer English teachers

in Mcleod Ganj, North India, as it elucidates sources of potential misunderstanding arising from cultural differences.

The second part discusses the theoretical underpinning involved in producing an English language course. The more important aspects that should be considered in the process of designing a course include, for example, the definition of context and the conceptualization of content. Equally important is the critical understanding of different kinds of goals and objectives as they are related to needs-analysis. Throughout the second part of the thesis, I have been concerned to appropriate fundamental aspects of course theory as a working foundation for a particular English course developed specifically for semiliterate Tibetan women.

The third and last part contains lesson plans organized into four units, as well as materials developed for this specific target group. The lesson plans are based primarily on the theoretical framework discussed in the second part of the thesis, but they also incorporate various techniques of language learning and teaching which I have acquired during my studies at University.

It is obvious that the vast amount of linguistic research on language teaching, language learning, and course design cannot be processed comprehensively within the scope of this thesis. I have therefore chosen to concentrate on those aspects of applied linguistics that are most germane to the particular course under consideration. My thesis clearly reflects the limitations of time and space at my disposal for this project, but its insistent focus on a specific practical project puts the exemplary theoretical elements into meaningful light. Finally, while this specific case of the Tibetan exiles has, as I believe, sufficient intrinsic and social merit to justify the project for its own sake, the course I have designed for them might also be valuable as a model for the creation of similar courses for semiliterate workers in other parts of the world as well. If that is the case, my efforts will be doubly rewarded.

2. THE TIBETAN PEOPLE

Providing some basic insights into Tibetan culture and language should help us to understand those components in the students' background that influence their learning behavior. A brief historical overview, a short discussion of the Tibetan exile situation, and a description of the educational system in Tibet should illuminate the conditions under which the target group will undertake their study of English.

2.1. **Brief History of the Tibetan People**

The history of Tibet is partly described in relation to China in the following paragraphs, as this bond has grown of major importance in the Western world. Especially since 1959 the Tibetan people have to fight for the right to keep their own identity and religion under the occupation of China. The historical overview should help to understand why so many Tibetans decided to live in exile and explain the momentary situation. This should provide the basis for the understanding of why it is of major importance for the Tibetans to learn English – not only to improve their exile situation but also to be able to raise international attention to their case. Although Tibet is located in a very remote and isolated region, it has captured the imagination and sympathy of many people around the world. The conflict between China and Tibet has a long and difficult history, and the present state of affairs is intractable, with no easy way out.

The first documented political contact between Tibet and China occurred in the seventh century when Tibet became unified under the rule of King Songtsen Gampo. Several treaties fixed the borders between those two kingdoms, so Tibet was not subordinated to China and both existed as independent political entities. During that imperial era Tibet developed into a more sophisticated civilization by creating its own language based on Indian writings and by introducing Buddhism from India. However, the introduction of Buddhism provoked internal conflicts. The traditional shamanistic Bon religion strongly opposed the growth and development of Buddhism, and the discord eventually led to the disintegration of the royal dynasty when the pro-Bon king was assassinated in the ninth century.

In the following two centuries Tibet languished, and the formerly great empire broke into fragments as autonomous local principalities. The Tibetan people were not the only victims of the protracted civil unrest, which also led to Buddhism being driven out of central Tibet. It was not until the eleventh century that an Indian Buddhist

monk-teacher succeeded in promoting a revival of Buddhism in Tibet. Because there was no central government at that time, several rival sub-sects of Tibetan Buddhism developed, thus contributing to the lack of national unity. At the same time, China was also suffering from disunity, and no evidence has been found for political relations between China and Tibet during this period.

A major change occurred in the thirteenth century when several Mongol tribes united into a powerful force that was able to conquer much of Asia. Tibet submitted bloodlessly to the Mongols and started paying them tribute. However, the whole situation changed when the Mongolian leader Genghis Khan died in 1227; the Tibetan people ceased their payments and so a great Mongolian invasion began. During this attack the Mongolian officers collected information about Buddhism and other aspects of the political situation. The Sakya Lama made a full submission to the rule of Mongolia in 1247. The lamas then became effective regents through whom the Mongols ruled Tibet. This exchange of religious information for political protection has been called the "priest-patron" ideology. Chinese scholars consider this period the first official integration of Tibet into China. However, nationalistic Tibetans would rather say that Tibet as well as China were equally subjugated by the Mongols. Under the Mongolian rule the "Red Hat" Buddhists, such as the Sakya and Kargyu sects, dominated Tibet, and only in the late fourteenth century did the well-known "Yellow Hat" Buddhists, to whom the Dalai Lama Lineage belongs, develop (Binder 2007: 59-60; Goldstein 1997: 1-5).

During the next 200 years Tibet was ruled through various principalities which allowed the "Yellow Hat" lineage to develop and stabilize. In the late sixteenth century Sonam Gyatso received the title "Dalai Lama" from the Mongols, which means "Ocean of Wisdom" (Binder 2000: 22-23; Goldstein 1997: 7-8). From 1642 until the annexation by the Chinese in 1959, the Dalai Lama Lineage ruled Tibet with a strong advocacy of compassionate Buddhism (Kollmar-Paulenz 2006: 98).

On January 1st 1950, the People's Liberation Army announced the intention to "liberate Tibet". In the October 1950 Chinese troops started defeating the "imperialist oppression". In the following nine years the young Dalai Lama tried to keep peace between the Chinese troops and the Tibetan people. In 1959 the Chinese army entered Tibet with overwhelming force. Every rebellion against this dictatorship was bloodily suppressed and the 14th Dalai Lama finally decided to flee to India to build up an exile government (Rose 1995: 45). In the last fifty years many cultural purges have taken place in China, resulting in the destruction of most of the Tibetan and Buddhist heritage, such as temples, monasteries, and stupas. Those purges spread fear and terror throughout all of China and Tibet. As a result, thousands of people have fled to

India and Nepal to escape torture and discrimination by the Chinese in Tibet (Binder 2007: 79-80).

Today Tibetan faith and courage are again being put to a severe test and the Tibetan people have to stand up for themselves more than ever before. At the present moment, the heritage of Tibetan Buddhism is in mortal danger.

As His Holiness the Dalai Lama puts it:

> Perhaps most important of all, the Tibetan sense of identity, spirit and determination to achieve freedom have not weakened. Even after more than thirty years of military occupation, people in Tibet continue to demonstrate against the Chinese rule (Rose 1995: 8).

A good example for how desperately the Tibetans cling to the remaining hope that their situation in Tibet will change, could be seen during the Olympic Games in 2008. Most of the Tibetans were absolutely sure that the Olympic Games would bring a change to their disgraceful situation when international media attention focused on China. Sadly, nothing really happened in this case. China's occupation of Tibet remains and the human rights are still being violated.

So at present a lot of Chinese immigrants are moving to Tibet, due to the fact that they earn three times as much in Tibet than everywhere else in China. This makes it a very attractive working place, especially for educated Chinese as they are wanted in the financial and technical sectors. However, this progress eventually leads to a further social decline for Tibetans whose chances for education and good working places are restricted. Those circumstances lead to the fact that at the moment more Han-Chinese (about 7.5 million) live in Tibet than Tibetans (about 6 millions) (Central Tibetan Administration 1996). According to the numbers of the Tibetan exile government the Tibetan people have become a minority in their own country. However, the Chinese numbers present a different perspective according to the Chinese population census in the year 2000, namely a Chinese population of 3,7 million and a Tibetan population of 5,3 million in Tibet. (MacPherson 2008)[1] The reality will most likely lie somewhere in between.

Tibet is not only attractive for government-supported job opportunities but also for the rich resources. One can find gold, uranium, copper, coal, borax, iron, zinc and lithium in Tibet. However, at the moment mainly gold is mined. The northern parts of Tibet are used as storage for nuclear waste. Power plants are built in Tibet which

[1] First of all, the numbers presented in the text are only estimates. Moreover, due to the fact that Tibet consists partly of very remote areas it becomes a difficult task to capture the whole population, as some nomadic people are not included in the statistics. A further problem occurs with the size of China and its population. This makes it hard to provide detailed information.

export electricity to the rest of China. Moreover, a lot of deforesting is taking place in the east which leads to soil erosion. All in all, Tibet's environment and its resources are very attractive for the Chinese government and are surely one of the reasons why China wants to control Tibet (Kollmar-Paulenz 2006:171-172).

2.2. **Living in "Little Lhasa"**

There are numerous reasons why Tibetans decide to flee over the Himalayas to an unknown country; why parents decide to send their young children along this dangerous road to the other side of the Himalayan plateau. Knowing that they might get caught or shot by the border patrol, stuck and frozen to death in the crevasses or lost on the way to Nepal or India. It seems that a lot of compromises are made to leave Tibet. Some of the Tibetans decide to go into exile due to the fact that H.H. the Dalai Lama lives there. Others decide to leave the country because of the Chinese occupation, oppression and abuse. Or simply the fact that some parents are not able to support their children anymore and hope that as refugees they will be taken care of, drive them into the situation of sending their children into the unknown.

Annually hundreds of Tibetans flee to India and other countries. According to the Central Tibetan Administration more than 145 000 Tibetans live in exile, mainly in India, Nepal, USA and Canada (Central Tibetan Administration 2009).[2] Clearly, the number shows that China is not successful in transforming Tibet into a socialist country in which people enjoy living.

After the Dalai Lama decided to flee to India in 1959, the Tibetan people had no political or religious leadership. India offered the former British resort Jawaharlal Nehru, as temporary whereabouts. After a conflict between China and India, the Indian government started supporting the Tibetan case. The Tibetan people could stay in Jawaharlal Nehru, which then became Dharamsala. After electing a democratic exile government with the Dalai Lama as its political and religious leader, the Tibetan people started to preserve their culture. This includes art and music (e.g. the Tibetan Institute for Performing Arts) and Tibetan Buddhism. Different monasteries were built in North and South India to maintain the Tibetan Buddhist traditions. This has been done not only by the Tibetan people but with the help of many volunteers from around the world.

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[2] This number is again an estimation. One can find different statistics depending on the source available, so either provided by Chinese or by Tibetan supporters.

Dharamsala – also called "Little Lhasa" - became the center of Tibetan heritage. It unified the Tibetan people coming from different parts of Tibet. The Tibetan people are very proud of their heritage and their history – which is mainly presented as a very peaceful one. One of the key issues for the Tibetan people is the fact that violence cannot be seen as a conflict solving strategy. This and other essentials are the main messages send from Dharamsala into the world (Kollmar-Paulenz 2006:173-174).

No other endangered nation receives so much attention as the Tibetan people and no other religion receives so much attention in the Western world as Buddhism. A vast number of people, also celebrities from politics or culture, are engaged in the liberation of Tibet and its people. Thousands of books and films, lectures and homepages make the culture and the religion accessible to foreigners (Binder 2000: 77).

Living in exile first of all, was a tough task, as the circumstances were very harsh especially for the elderly and the young children. There was not much food, clothes or medical support available for the refugees. Furthermore, the tropical climate in the refugee countries was the opposite of what the people used to be exposed too in the high mountains of Tibet. However, being able to settle down in Dharamsala enabled the exile government to provide working places and better living standards (Binder 2000: 78).

While managing one's survival one has to face further challenges, such as a new confrontation with the modern western world. Especially the younger generations, born in exile, face certain difficulties to stick to their own identity. They only know Tibet from stories, some of them can hardly even speak Tibetan. The former rich monasteries have to find a new way to ensure their income to provide enough supplies for the monks, who only rely on them. Those monasteries offer the only traditional religious education, which is often a reason why parents decide to send their children into exile.

Although so much sympathy is found in the world for the Tibetan case, this ancient culture is still in danger. In their home country the Tibetan culture is oppressed and destroyed systematically. But also in exile Tibetan culture has to fight for survival, as the old structures are not adaptable in foreign countries. Ancient technical and artistic traditions die out and will be forgotten soon. The different temptations of modern civilization are omnipresent. Additional, conflicts within the Tibetan exile society weaken this culture (Binder 2000: 79-80). So all in all, the exile situation is for sure no eternal solution for this homeless culture.

2.3. **The Educational System in Tibet**

Having the idea of trying to improve the educational situation found in McLeod Ganji, India, I decided to set up an English course adjusted to the momentary situation of some Tibetan women who I taught while staying in McLeod Ganji. Many of my former students have hardly received any kind of education; some could only spell their own names in Tibetan. Few of them were more familiar with the English alphabet than with the Tibetan one due to the fact that they had worked with other volunteers already. So one basic problem which I encountered while staying in India is the fact that many adults who have fled from Tibet are hardly educated. Those people face again a challenging situation in India, as most of the educational systems build for the Tibetan refugees are set up for children. This means another obstacle for adult refugees to tackle. Some volunteer organizations already English or computer classes to adult refugees. However, this is not an easy situation which requires help and support.

For the Tibetan children some schools have been founded, for example Tibetan Children Village (TCV), a boarding school in McLeod Ganji. Many children, who have crossed the Himalayas and left their families behind, find a place to stay in TCV. In this boarding school they learn about their culture and their heritage. The children study foreign languages and different sciences and receive their education in their mother language, namely Tibetan.

> Education must not only be available to Tibetan children, it must also meet the right to receive instruction in Tibetan related subjects and in the Tibetan language (TCHRD 2004:1).

This cannot be granted in Tibet. Research has revealed a horrible picture of the educational situation found in Tibet. During the last 50 years of Chinese occupation and domination, the unwritten Beijing policy of the sinicization of Tibet has gone half the way. Tibetans are not involved in the decision making processes concerning education and those who have a say were picked by the Chinese authorities (TCHRD 2004: V). Still everybody has the right to receive proper education. This is fixed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR)[3], and other universal or regional instruments dealing with education.

The Article 26 of the UDHR states the following:

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[3] For further information on the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* see The United Nations Website (http://www.un.org/en/documents/udhr)

1) Everyone has the right to education. Education should be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be equally available and higher education shall be accessible to all on the basis of merit.

2) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

3) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

The most grotesque point is the fact that

> China has signed and ratified some of the important international instruments under the auspicious of the United Nations namely: the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD), […] the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT), the Convention against Discrimination in Education and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (TCHRD 2004: 10).

All those conventions have an enormous impact on the situation of a child and its education. The situation found in China is still another one. Even though China has signed different international instruments it does not mean that the China's laws conform those guidelines.

The Tibetan Center for Human Rights and Democracy (TCHRD) has published a special report on 'State of Education in Tibet: A Human Rights perspective'. It describes in detail the miserable situation found in Tibet. This report reviews the Chinese education policy in Tibet. It discusses the necessity of school curricula improvement and a proper integration of the Tibetan language and culture. The TCHRD criticizes on basis of the human rights and other instruments the shortcomings and discriminations of the Tibetan culture. This is being done by teaching for example distorted history in order to gradually assimilate Tibetans. All in all, Tibetans who want to gain further education have no choice but to become fluent in Chinese as this is the medium of instruction in higher education (TCHRD 2004: 2-3).

The former Executive Director UNICEF, Ms. Carol Bellamy has also criticized the insufficient access of Tibetan children to primary education. She notices that in 2004

"only 31% of children in Tibet have access to the compulsory nine years of education" (Rutstein, 2004).

All those steps serve the sinicization and support the extinction of the Tibetan language and culture. Education is a key element in every society. Without at least basic education a society can hardly function and for sure not on an international level. These are some fundamental reasons why Tibetans decide to take the risk of sending their children into exile so that they can receive proper education.

2.4. **The Role of Women in Tibet**

This short introduction should help to understand the social background of Tibetan women, what they are expected to do and what roles they traditionally inherit.[4] The role of women in the Tibetan society is an outstanding one. Besides in the area of religion – in which still man can be found in the leading positions – women and men can enjoy almost equality according to Pema (1993). However, several women have fought against the restrictions found in the area for example of religion. Especially in the fight for Tibet's independence women started to form their own unions such as the Tibetan Women's Association[5] (Pema 1993: 59). The position of women in the Tibetan culture is of special importance as the English course is designed for Tibetan women.

The social position, which Tibetan women traditionally as well as nowadays fulfill, influences the learning of a new language which eventually can lead to a new kind of independence. For sure, the women's way of thinking will change, and therefore, the women's social position should be mentioned while planning an English class for them.

In the former Tibetan regions women rarely received education. An exception to this were some nuns, who were able to become educated in monasteries. Generally, the educational sector of this culture stood under the influence of religion. Most of the educational training took place in monasteries. Additionally, there were some private schools located in bigger cities, for example in Lhasa the capital of Tibet. Most of the

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[4] For further information on Tibetan women living in exile look at the PhD thesis of Seele-Nyima 2000.

[5] For further information and examples of outstanding female biographies, look at *Women in Tibet* by Janet Gyatso and Hanna Havnevik (2005).

time these schools had one male teacher for all the children. Women were never found in the position of teaching. According to Seele-Nyima some sources explain an alleged equality beyond the children, but the absolute hierarchical structure is omnipresent and can also in school not be denied (Seele-Nyima 2000: 236-237).

However, comparing the Tibetan women to other Asian cultures their social status was rather a high one. This can be explained by the fact that Tibetan women had an economic independence due to their own possessions. This made for example a divorce easier and the women were not bound to their men as maybe in other cultures (Pema 1993: 56).

Household chores and raising the children are typical female tasks, which were and still are fulfilled by the Tibetan women and by Tibetan girls already at the age of six (Seele-Nyima 2000: 212-213). Becoming involved so early in different working tasks, there is almost no time and space left for education. This explains why so many newcomers are poorly educated, especially when their family is poor.

Living in exile has not only brought grief to the Tibetan women but it also presents new possibilities for women to act in areas earlier withdrawn from them. Therefore, the role setting has changed. Women have became active in medicine and politics, as mentioned before (Pema 1993: 62).

According to Seele-Nyima living in exile especially women after their mid-twenties have difficulties in gaining access to education. Various reasons are mentioned for this. First of all, it is hard to get a place in a proper educational program (Seele-Nyima 2000: 235-236). Even though in 1993 a three to four year long, narrow gauge education program was founded to help poorly educated adult newcomers get settled in India (Seele-Nyima 2000: 253). Additionally, many of these women are engaged in child raising. The support by relatives is limited due to the fact that these women are living in exile, being separated from their families who remained in Tibet. Finally, having to earn money keeps most of the women from receiving education. Still, many of them are more educated than their mothers, who were raised in Tibet[6] (Seele-Nyima 2000: 235-236). The wish for education is one of the major reasons for emigration (Seele-Nyima 2000: 122).

Seele-Nyima describes in her book the heavy labor of weaving carpets, which is an old traditional Tibetan handicraft. Earlier on this handicraft was family business. Nowadays this has become a professional market, especially in India. In exile mainly analphabetic or semiliterate women work in those factories and earn about 1000

[6] For detailed information on women's education in Tibet and India look at chapter 7 in Seele-Nyima 2000.

Rupees[7] a month. The working circumstances are harsh and physically grueling (Seele-Nyima 2000: 288-289). With private production and sale these women could earn more money, which leads to the need of being able to communicate with other people for selling their items.

This short introduction should help to gain some insights in the life of a Tibetan women. It only serves as a small aid and for sure is no exclusive discussion of the social roles found in old Tibet and the exile community.

2.5. **The Tibetan Language**

The Tibetan language belongs to the Tibeto-Burman language family, which consists of about 250 languages altogether, spoken mainly in the Himalayas, the Tibetan plateau, and in the areas bordering on the Mekong and Salween rivers. Tibetan and Burmese are the oldest languages in this family, dating respectively from the 7th and 12th centuries. The Tibeto-Burman language family belongs in turn to the superfamily of Sino-Tibetan, a grouping comparable in size and age to the Indo-European superfamily, which includes those modern languages that are relevant to the practical objectives of this thesis, in particular English.

There are various Tibetan dialects scattered over an area the size of Western Europe. In order to implement a pedagogically useful comparison of the Tibetan and English languages, it will be necessary to limit the present discussion to just one of the many dialects. The variety of Tibetan spoken in Lhasa and central Tibet is commonly called 'Standard Tibetan' and is used as a lingua franca among the different regions of the country. This, then, will be the dialect of choice in the following chapters (Tournadre 2003: 25-26).

2.5.1. Some Differences between Tibetan and English

Even though the written Tibetan language contains 30 consonants, 4 vowels and one inherent vowel,[8] the spoken language consists of at least 35 consonants and nine vowels. This can be explained by the fact that Tibetan is not read phonetically but

[7] 1000 Rupees is about 20 Euros.

[8] for more detailed information see Goldstein, Melvyn C. 1991. *Essentials of Modern Literary Tibetan*. Berkeley: University of California Press. Lesson one and two.

rather do certain letter clusters result in a new phonetic realization. Especially for beginners it is a challenging task to pronounce certain letter combinations in the correct way (Goldstein 1991: 3).

The tone, referring to the pitch of the vowels, plays a significant role in the Tibetan language. In the English language it does not make a difference in meaning if a vowel is pronounced with a high or a low pitch. Of course it is wrong or sounds funny but it does not change the meaning of the word. So for example the word *dog* is pronounced with a low pitch does not mean something complete different in English than with a high pitch. However, in Tibetan this makes a distinct difference. *Gu* with a high tone means 'body' and *gu̲* with a deep pitch means 'nine'. Additionally, in Tibetan the length of a vowel has the same significant difference like another vowel or consonant in English. In Tibetan a short i in *ri̲* means 'hill' but a long i in *ri̲i̲* means 'to fall' (Goldstein 1991: 3-4).

The syllabic nature of the language is another distinct feature of Tibetan. Nearly every syllable in Tibetan has an independent semantic meaning. The reader has to distinguish between words consisting of one meaningful syllable and multisyllabic words formed from single syllables carrying independent meaning. This means that the reader has to decide whether the following syllables form a word or the syllables themselves are already independent words. A good example is the disyllabic word *rifle*. In English the two syllables 'ri-fle' do not have independent meanings. In the Tibetan translation *me̲n-da* both syllables have independent meanings, namely *me̲n* meaning 'fire' and *da* meaning 'arrow'. (Goldstein 1991: 14)

Looking at a Tibetan text the first thing a Western reader will notice is the use of a different alphabet. The Tibetan language uses an alphabetic script (Reissinger 1987: 21). In the 7th century A.D. the Tibetan alphabet originated from Sanskrit. Of course both alphabets have changed distinctively since then and their sounds differ from their prototypes (Bell 1996: 1).

A characteristic feature of the Tibetan alphabet is the fact that the consonants are written in form of letters on the base of the inherent 'a' vowel. The other vowels are added above (i,e,o) or underneath (u) the consonant in form of diacritics (Reissinger 1987: 21).

A challenge for people switching between two languages, in this case English and Tibetan, is the fact that there are no separations between the single words in the Tibetan language. Meaning that for an European eye a Tibetan sentence consists of one long string of syllables. It is up to the reader to form the correct words made out of syllables. The sentence ends with a vertical line similar to a dash. So especially for

beginners of either language, the confrontation with the new language and its alphabet bears enormous challenges (Goldstein 1991: 14-15).

One of the most obvious grammatical differences between Tibetan and English is the syntax. In many ways, Tibetan syntax resembles that of Hindi and other Asian languages. The Tibetan word order follows a pattern of "subject-object-verb". Additionally, there are many subordinate clauses, which means that in order to understand a Tibetan sentence one often has to turn it "inside-out" or work backwards from the end (Tournadre 2003: 23). This stands in contrast to the fact that the English word order, which is quite rigid because grammatically significant, follows the "subject-verb-object" pattern. This discrepancy in word order easily leads to mistakes and confusion for Tibetans learning English, but also for English speakers who are trying to learn Tibetan.

Some further characteristics looking at the Tibetan word order are the following. The adjectives follow the nouns most of the time. The objects and adverbs precede the verb. Demonstratives and numerals follow the noun which they modify (Bell 1996: 107-8; Reissinger 1987: 22).

Generally one can find four types of verbs in the Tibetan language: active, involuntary, linking and existential. Each type expresses a type of sentence or clause. The active verbs communicate actions done by actors. These verbs can roughly be compared to the English transitives. Involuntary verbs disclose unintentional actions or states. These are almost equivalent to the English intransitive verb construction.

A tricky word which might become a challenge for both the learners of Tibetan and for Tibetans learning another language is the copula 'to be'. In English this verb is used either to link the subject to the subject complements, for example in the sentence 'he is a boy', or to express existence, like in the sentence 'he is here'. The Tibetan language would need two verbs. The first example would need a linking verb and the latter an existential one (Goldstein 1991: 15).

However, the given example is for sure a greater challenge for English speaking people learning Tibetan than vice verse. But still, this example demonstrates one of the major differences found between Tibetan and English. As a teacher one should take this linguistic difference into consideration while planning a language course. In most English books the verb 'to be' is introduced at the very beginning of a language course. However, this might not be such an easy task for Tibetan speakers learning English, especially when focusing only on the grammar exercises without context.

In the Tibetan language words are chosen not only in connection "to their referent meaning, but also to the relative social status of the person(s) being spoken or written

about" (Goldstein 1991: 95). This is the called the honorific language also known as schessa. For example there are two ways of saying 'he', one non-honorific version used for younger people and one honorific version used to address higher social status people. It is clear that one never uses the honorific version to refer to one self. In the spoken language there are even higher honorific words used to refer to highest classes (Reissinger 1987: 11; Bell 1996:109-117).

Due to lack of time and space I have presented just a few more obvious differences between the Tibetan and the English language, which might play a role for beginners while learning another language.

2.5.2. Why do Tibetans Want to Learn English?

Growing up in exile, separated from your homeland, culture, and religion, means trying to adapt to a foreign world while keeping your own identity of origin. The challenge for people living in exile is to live in two worlds at the same time. On the one hand, they try to maintain their old sense of identity, and on the other hand, they are forced to accommodate a new cultural environment. Here English can help them to connect between many different worlds.

Looking at India, one can find over 350 languages and 18 of them enjoy official status. Every state within India uses its own regional language in an official capacity. But for India as a whole, Hindi is the official national language, while English is recognized as the associate official language of the country.

English has the status of being the language of higher education and serves as the lingua franca across state boundaries within India. Moreover, English is also used in national and international businesses, providing another reason why English education has become more and more important (Dheram 2005: 59). Tibetans living in Indian exile naturally respond to the dominant role of English in that country. So if Tibetans study English, they have a better chance to become integrated into national or international businesses and thereby to alleviate their dependent condition as foreigners. They can, for example, start their own shops or companies. The tourism sector in particular provides good chances for Tibetans to become independent and earn their own living. For all such objectives, the English language is a vital requirement for success.

Another main reason why English has become important is the fact that Tibetan Buddhism has become so popular in Western society. H. H. Dalai Lama has been traveling around the world during the last decades in order to draw attention to the

desperate political situation in Tibet. Due to the fact that the country's current political condition and its ancient religious beliefs and practices are closely interconnected, the English language serves a double role in public discourse when it is used to disperse information about both Tibetan religion and Tibetan politics. Many monks want to learn English so that they can go out into the world and talk about what they have experienced in occupied Tibet as well as about their religious beliefs.

2.6. **Ethnographical Report**

The economic and cultural environment of Tibetan people living in India influences their attitude and behavior concerning foreigners and foreign languages. Having been expelled or driven into exile for more than fifty years, the Tibetan people realize how important it is to be able to speak a foreign language so that they can, for example, direct international attention towards their political and religious situation. However, many of the Tibetans who are living in India study foreign languages because they want to escape from India and to find a better life in another country, such as the USA, Canada, or Switzerland (MacPherson, 2008). Then again, some of the Tibetans who have studied in India or elsewhere return to Tibet as teachers in order to help improve the living conditions there. However, most of the time this plan remains an unfulfilled dream, because Tibetans who have fled into exile will be prosecuted if they return to their homeland.

Generally speaking, the way of life in India is very easygoing compared to the hectic pace of life in the Western world. Of course this fundamental cultural attitude has to be taken into consideration in developing a course of studies for people who live in India. My own experience as a teacher in India brought this fact home to me immediately. Having attended European schools as a child and then studying the modern Western approaches to pedagogy and teaching methods, I was totally shocked by the learning situation I encountered in India. People showed up during the class whenever they felt like it and then left again anytime they wanted in the same nonchalant manner. Hardly any student attended the class every day of the week. Nobody knew who was going to come to class in the afternoon or the next day. If a student was absent, nobody knew why or if that student would ever return to the English class. Confronted with such circumstances, it was not easy for me to teach an English class, because my mindset was conditioned by a world totally different from the situation I encountered in India.

Fighting my way through the first week, I was forced to adjust to the new situation. But it was definitely worth the effort, and the work became easier and more productive as time passed. I found a way to connect with my students by starting to learn Tibetan. This eventually opened doors that had been closed before. Showing interest in their language and their way of dealing with different issues established a basis for personal connection and trust. The teaching situation changed from a strict, hierarchical structure, in which the teacher was seen as an absolute and unquestionable authority, to a more open and dynamic relationship between teacher and students, in which an equal exchange of information could take place. All in all, this was one of the greatest teaching experiences I have come across so far. Forcing myself to think and act in new ways, mostly creating my own lesson plans utilizing repetition, songs, games, and role plays with basic grammar and vocabulary.

Remembering my experiences in India, and especially the Indian way of dealing with time and deadlines, I decided to send out my questionnaires long before I actually needed them. Therefore, in the summer semester 2008, I developed a questionnaire designed to elicit the needs and wants of Tibetan monks living in McLeod Ganji, H.P. India.

After I had put together the original questionnaire, I decided to do a pilot study with a modified questionnaire in a Viennese language-learning school to find out if the questionnaire had any obvious or logical errors. A friend of mine was teaching at the school in question and so she handed out my questionnaires. The target group consisted of ten students who were attending an obligatory class to receive further training because they were unemployed and could not find jobs, for example as office administrators, with their current level of education.

For my pilot study I rewrote the original questionnaire, which had been designed specifically for the Tibetan/Indian situation, changing it into a survey suitable for Austrian conditions. I rewrote the introduction, changed the age range, and modified those questions which were not appropriate for the Austrian learning situation.

Finally, after pretesting and polishing my questionnaires I sent them to India in the summer of 2008. However, no response was forthcoming, and in March 2009 I was forced to conclude that those people in India who had willingly wanted to help me gather research data for my thesis had simply disappeared. I have not heard a single word from them since. Therefore, I decided to change my topic slightly and adapted it to deal specifically with the English learning situation for Tibetan women with almost no educational background. Fortunately, my experiences in India provide me with relevant input for this new version of the topic as well, because I worked as a volunteer teaching English to a group of semiliterate Tibetan women who were

producing carpets. This topic is actually an even bigger challenge for me, as I am not aware of any previous research about such a target group. It will be interesting to compare my theoretical research findings with the material and experiences I collected while working as a volunteer.

3. COURSE DESIGN

Language course design is a complex affair requiring the services of several different disciplines. Countless factors have to be taken into consideration, from questions of specific purpose and social context to those of personal and financial resources. But clearly the most important decision affecting course design is the choice of an approach to language teaching itself, and this in turn will depend on one's understanding of how secondary languages are acquired. There are many competing theories that attempt to describe and explain the nature and process of language learning, and for each theory there is a corresponding methodology of language teaching. From the large number of different theories and methods about course design and language teaching, I have selected the following representative examples for closer consideration, in order to determine which approach or approaches are most relevant to my topic.

3.1. **Approaches to Language Teaching**

I have decided to devote the following pages to a discussion of several leading language teaching methods, reviewing their historical development and what they involve. We will see that each method has been influenced by various factors and trends, such as technological developments and research carried out in language-related sciences.

Every teacher entering a classroom has certain preconceptions, expectations, and assumptions about what is going to happen in the ensuing lesson. What kind of thoughts actually occur will depend both on the nature of the training the teacher has received and on the teacher's own classroom experience. Regardless of their source, preconceptions are always present, and one can conveniently refer to them, as Brown suggests, with the term *approach*. He defines *approaches* as "ways of defining what and how the students need to learn" (Brown 1995: 5). In the case of the Tibetan English course design, this more or less personal insight described by Brown as approach, will be discussed under the subheading 3.4., Articulating Beliefs.

> Following Anthony, *approach* refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching (Anthony 1963, referred to in Richards 1986: 16).

In the context of referring to Anthony's model, Richards describes the hierarchical relationship of three fundamental terms - approach, method, and technique - in the following way.

> [A]pproach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; technique is the level at which classroom procedures are described (Richards 1986: 15).

According to this three-fold structure, the approach shapes the ideas about language teaching methods in its understanding of the nature of language and language learning. Richards subdivides approaches into the following three types: the structural, the functional, and the interactional view of language. These three models serve as theoretical frameworks which motivate specific teaching attitudes and thus provide an underlying structure for the particular teaching method. Moreover, Richards suggests that language learning theories are integrated into the different kinds of teaching systems to give a complete picture of each teaching method (Richards 1986: 16-18).

But the formative role that approach plays in shaping the content of pedagogical concepts must also be considered as a historical development. According to Stern, the momentary language teaching situation can be understood as the result of three major trends which developed during the last hundred years. First of all, the teaching situation is influenced by the prevailing teaching methods, which can be seen partly as the products of specific approaches, in the sense outlined above. Secondly, language pedagogy has improved through the progress of language-related sciences and research. Finally, technological innovations have enhanced the language teaching resources (Stern 1992: 6).

The first trend which has influenced the current teaching conditions will be discussed in the following paragraphs. During the last few decades many different theories have been advanced concerning effective course design and an optimal approach to teaching a foreign language. Overall, there are five main methods which have dominated the field, which will be discussed on the following pages in a chronological order. The oldest and most traditional one is the Classical Approach (1800-1900)[9], which has its origins in a belief in Humanism and takes the study of Latin grammar as its model. It is an approach that rewards intellectual capacity and

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[9]The following year dates in this chapter, which only show approximate periods in which the method was used the most, refer to Richards 2001:3.

the ability to memorize formal constructs. Teachers who apply the Classical Approach to modern living languages feel that students need to develop their powers of careful, logical thinking; it is an approach that is most effective in reading and writing, but has restricted value for developing oral communication skills (Richards 1986: 3-5).

However, the traditional Grammar-Translation Method came under heavy fire and a new method was advocated, namely the Direct or Natural Method (1890-1930). This teaching method focuses mainly on oral practice and is based on the assumption that also second languages can be learned like first languages. Using this method, teachers would work without translation or the use of the first language, only conveying information directly through demonstration and action. The Direct Method worked well in private schools with native teachers, but it was hard to integrate it in public schools. The language teachers had to be native-like. Additionally, it often provoked an unnatural situation as lengthy explanations were necessary to avoid the native tongue, instead of a short and comprehensive explanation (Richards 1986: 9-12). In the end, the Direct Method "lacked a systematic basis in applied linguistic theory and practice" (Richards 1986: 33).

The Situational Language Teaching Method (1930-1960) is mainly based on speech as the heart of language and structure, and it is therefore sometimes called British 'structuralism'. One distinctive feature of situational language teaching is the focus on structures, which should be presented in the appropriate situations. Moreover, this method is more concerned with the processes of learning than the conditions (Richards 1986: 31-42).

The Audiolingual Method (1950-1970) developed from the increasing interest in foreign language teaching in the US at the end of the 1950's. This method also focuses on an intense contact to the native language rather on a thoroughly developed methodology (Richards 1986: 45).

> This combination of structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures, and behaviorist psychology led to the Audiolingual Method. (Richards 1986: 47)

In essence, audiolingualism assumes that language learning is the same as learning in general, language being a formal, rule-governed system. This method stresses the mechanistic aspects of language learning and language as such. However, it, too, lost credibility when it became clear that the method leads to language-like behaviors, but not to language competence (Richards 1986: 60-61).

In the next historical phase, a number of applied linguists, such as Christopher Candlin and Henry Widdowson, highlighted the functional and communicative dimension of language. The creativity and uniqueness of individual sentences had not

been taken into such thorough consideration in the former approaches, but were now given their due in the new school of Communicative Language Teaching. The emergence of this method fortuitously coincided with the emergence of large new market for secondary language learning. The rapidly growing interdependence of European countries produced a need for teaching adults the major foreign languages of the European Common market. Those developments led to sweeping changes in the educational system, with a major impact on teaching methods. A group of researchers developed language courses based on a unit-credit system (Richards 1986: 64-65), in which language tasks are divided into "portions or units, each of which corresponds to a component of a learner's needs and is systematically related to all the other portions" (van Ek and Alexander 1980: 6 quoted in Richards 1986: 65). Subsequently, the very significant Threshold Level specifications[10] have been published, demonstrating that working on language teaching development is never a finite task and always has to be adapted to momentary needs.

The development of the Communicative Language Teaching approach can be seen as a reaction against the previously advocated teaching methods, which focused on structural linguistic features rather than an engagement in communication. This shift was supported by various linguistics scholars, such as Dell Hymes, Noam Chomsky, and Christopher Brumfit.

> Dell Hymes (…)had reacted to Noam Chomsky's (…) characterization of the linguistic competence of the 'ideal speaker' and had used the term communicative competence to represent the use of language in social context (…). Social interaction rather than the abstract psycholinguistic functioning of the human brain would become an identifying feature of CLT (Savignon 2008:637).

The focus lies on creating meaning, rather than on developing perfect grammatical structures or acquiring a native-like pronunciation. A strong connection to the students' needs is a further characteristic feature of CLT (Savignon 2008:635-6). This can be seen in the way language is taught in the classroom, as the use of role plays and interactive and communicative exercises are advocated. Of course, not only face-to-face oral communication is supported, but also activities which involves reading and writing (Savignon 2008:645).

At the forefront of the new movement, it was Wilkins above all who established the basis for developing communicative syllabuses in language teaching with his seminal work *Notional Syllabuses* (1976), in which he describes two types of meaning. First of

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[10] e.g. van Ek, Jan Ate; Trim, John L.M. 1993. *Threshold Level 1990*. Germany: Council of Europe Press.

all Wilkins identifies the notional categories, such as time, sequence, quantity, location, and frequency; and secondly, the categories of communicative function, such as request, denials, offers, and complains (Wilkins 1976: 21-54).

Richards underlines the importance of Wilkins's work:

> Wilkins contribution was an analysis of the communicative meanings that a language learner needs to understand and express. Rather than describe the core of language through traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary, Wilkins attempted to demonstrate the systems of meanings that lay behind the communicative uses of language (Richards 1986: 65).

The outstanding works of different applied linguists, the rapid distribution of those principles, and the equally rapid acceptance of them by curriculum developers, text book writers, and even the government allowed the Communicative Approach (1970-present) to spread easily and quickly. Communicative Language Teaching (sometimes called the 'notional-functional approach', or simply 'functional approach') is widely used in both the U.K. and the U.S.A. The objective of this holistic approach to language learning is to enable students to achieve a sustainable level of practical communicative competence. The goal is pragmatic rather than theoretical, and so any conceptual understanding of the language is merely incidental to contextualized training in the four basic skills. (Richards 1986: 65-66).

There are numerous books on Communicative Language Teaching and adequate material design, both supporting and criticizing this approach. Due to lack of time and space, only a short overview can be provided here, and I have selected those proponents that are most germaine to my project.

In his paper *Communicative Syllabus Design,* Johnson discusses different aspects of how to teach students at a zero beginner level. He argues that

> a beginners' course may be designed structurally and at the same time incorporate many valuable features associated with the approach to language teaching which is nowadays called "communicative" (Johnson 1983: 106).

However, one of the major counterarguments against the use of functional syllabus at the beginners level is the fact that "functional organization automatically implies structural disorganization" (Johnson 1983: 107).

There are three central arguments against the use of structural syllabus at the beginner level. First of all, it is claimed that presenting only the simplest structural features to beginning students sets them on the wrong track, because they are actually learning an artificial and unrealistic kind of language which has no usable application

in real life. Simple language structures do not automatically satisfy the most basic needs of language usage for beginning students.

Johnson states that the most fundamental criterion for choosing the items to be included in a course design should be the question whether or not they have a communicative use for the students. The list of structural features of a language will most likely be almost the same, no matter what kind of syllabus one looks. The point at issue is the best way of presenting and implementing the structural features (Johnson 1983: 107-110).

The second innovation which has shaped current language pedagogy derives from language-related sciences and research, including linguistics, psychology, sociology, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and related disciplines. In the last decades of the nineteenth century phonetics had become the first major linguistic discipline that had a great impact on language teaching. This can be seen in the Direct Method. Between 1940 and 1965 language teaching reforms were influenced by linguistics. The Audiolingual Method claimed to be the first teaching method developed under the influence of linguistics and psychology, which eventually became the new discipline of psycholinguistics. In the 1960's educational and applied linguistics started to function as a buffer between linguistics and language teaching (Stern 1992: 8). A further major development concerning language teaching was the use of empirical research. However, most of the time the findings provided controversial support for one method or the other, and was not always convincing or helpful. In the 1970's the focus of research changed from teaching methods to language learning. This became the key element for a better understanding of how to teach languages. In the following decades teaching methods were again explored, but this time more cautiously. It became clear that the relationships between the different academic disciplines and pedagogy can never be simple and direct (Stern 1992: 9). At the present day

> research and language-related sciences have gained a place in the development of new approaches to language pedagogy and have decisively influenced current thought on language teaching and learning (Stern 1992: 9).

Technical innovations represent the third and last element that has influenced the language teaching situation during the last one hundred years. Three waves characterize this period. First of all, around 1900 the phonograph became a useful tool in language instruction. Already in the 1920's language courses were available on gramophone records.

The second wave occurred between World War II and 1965. The magnetic tape recorder was invented, which led to the development of language laboratories. The idea of audio-visual language teaching was born with the help of the filmstrip projector. Those technological aids became the key element of the Audiolingual Method. However, all those innovations did not fulfill the hopes of a successful era in language teaching.

The last wave was shaped by the invention of microcomputers. The new era of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) was born. There are several advantages of CALL, namely the opportunity of fast exchange of learning and teaching experiences, the versatility of learning materials, and for some students the use of a computer can be motivating in itself. However, the human teacher cannot be replaced. Pronunciation, for example, can only be precisely evaluated by a human teacher rather than by a computer. Moreover, technical equipment such as a computer is dependent on certain resources, such as electrical power outlets, for its availability. In the case of the Tibetan English course, such technological prerequirements cannot be taken for granted. Technology has been the least problematic, but also least influential of all three trends in language teaching development (Stern 1992: 9-10).

So in the end, the Communicative Teaching Approach is, with certain reservations, the most useful method for the Tibetan English project. The students' needs are almost wholly fulfilled with oral communication. Allowing the students to communicate is the essence of CLT, and therefore I have chosen this teaching method as the primary approach for the Tibetan English course. Nevertheless, as a teacher one has to realize that students might expect their teacher to use a different approach. In the case of the Tibetan English course, the students expected a more traditional approach, such as the Grammar-Translation Method, even though that approach would not be at all appropriate for the immediate target group. Such expectations should not simply be ignored by the teacher, but rather be taken into account in a productive way in the process of needs analysis.

3.2. **Curriculum vs. Syllabus**

Before going into further details concerning course design, we need to distinguish between the terms 'syllabus' and 'curriculum'. In our daily lives those two terms are often used interchangeably, but treating them as synonyms is actually misleading. A considerable amount of scholarship has been expended to show why it is important to make a clear distinction between these two expressions.

Reviewing the history of scholarly debate over the meaning of these two terms, one can find various definitions of 'syllabus' and 'curriculum'. Thus, some language curriculum specialists tend to focus on one specific area of curriculum planning and neglect the whole picture, focusing for example only on methodology or assessment. This limited approach of studying only fragments of the whole process of curriculum planning has been the subject of much criticism and nowadays a more holistic approach is generally considered more reasonable.

It will be helpful to begin with the short introduction to the term 'curriculum' provided by Nunan in his book *The Learner-Centered Curriculum* (1988b). Nunan suggests four major perspectives on how to study 'the curriculum' of an educational institution. He states that curriculum planning involves

> initial planning procedures (including data collection and learner grouping); content selection and gradation; methodology (which includes the selection of learning activities and materials); and ongoing monitoring, assessment and evaluation (Nunan 1988b: 4).

The second way of looking at curriculum planning, according to Nunan, is to focus on the curriculum 'in action'. This takes place in the classroom itself, where one can observe how the theory has been transformed into action. Thirdly, one can analyze the management mechanisms used by the school or teaching institution. Questions dealing with resources and the influence of the community can help one understand how such factors influence what happens in the classroom. The final perspective relates to assessment and evaluation. One might want to ask if the students have reached their learning goals, or where they have failed to do so, or if they have learned anything in addition to the previously planned goals.

The four perspectives mentioned above show how broad and complex the field of curriculum planning is. Clearly, it is important to choose clear guidelines for what one wants to include in the process of curriculum planning. Moreover, one has to be aware of the fact that all of these perspectives influence each other, and so their mutual interaction has to be taken into account no matter which curriculum one is going to plan (Nunan 1988b: 3-5).

Searching for a precise explanation of what a syllabus is, one finds divergent definitions and a lot of disagreement on the topic of syllabus design. The conflicting opinions are the result of taking either a broad or a narrow approach to the topic. The more narrow view makes clear distinctions between what a syllabus design should include and what is defined as methodology. Here syllabus design has mainly the task of providing the selection and grading of content, while methodology is more concerned with the selection of learning tasks and activities. However, those scholars who take a broader approach to the topic have one major criticism against making such a clear distinction. Namely, in communicative language teaching the theoretical boundary becomes very blurry and is difficult to determine. In summary, Nunan suggests that syllabus design is concerned with the 'what' of a language, while methodology deals with the 'how'. Moreover, in the traditional view a curriculum plan includes the planning, implementation, evaluation, management, and administration of educational programs, while syllabus design is a subsidiary component of curriculum planning (Nunan 1988b: 5-8).

But as mentioned above, not every syllabus or curriculum designer feels that it is necessary to make a strict division between those two fields, in spite of the arguments presented in Nunan's book. In communicative language teaching the distinction between them is hard to sustain. Yalden (1987), for example, even goes so far as to say that 'method' can be replaced by 'syllabus', because

> syllabus is now seen as an instrument by which the teacher, with the help of the syllabus designer, can achieve a degree of 'fit' between the needs and aims of the learner (as social being and as individual), and the activities which will take place in the classroom (Yalden 1984: 14).

Finally, Richards (2001) gives a further definition of what curriculum development includes and how it stands in relation to syllabus design. According to him

> Curriculum development focuses on determining what knowledge, skills, and values students learn in school, what experiences should be provided to bring about intended learning outcomes, and how teaching and learning in schools or educational systems can be planned, measured, and evaluated. […] Syllabus design is one aspect of curriculum development but is not identical with it. A syllabus is a specification of the content of a course of instruction and lists what will be taught and tested (Richards 2001: 2).

According to Richards, curriculum development includes needs analysis, developing goals and objectives, course structure and content, and finally material and syllabus design. Obviously, coming up with this seemingly 'easy' or obvious recipe for curriculum development requires working through a long procedure with many variables (Richards 2001:2).

The Tibetan English course design is based on parts of *The Learner-Centered Curriculum* described by Nunan (1988b) as well as the discussion of curriculum development by Richards (2001). Utilizing basic concepts of curriculum design that I have discussed above, I have chosen for inclusion in my own project those aspects that appear to be most relevant. The following points of curriculum design are accordingly reflected in the structure of my diploma thesis.

- Defining the Context (motivational factors; group of students; length of a course; and length of a lesson)
- Articulating Beliefs
- Conceptualizing Content
- Formulating Goals and Objectives
- Needs Analysis
- Organizing the Course (determining the organizing principles; identifying the course units based on the organizing principles; sequencing the course and its units; unit content; unit organization)
- Developing Materials
- Designing an Assessment Plan
- Lesson Plan

3.3. **Defining the Context**

When setting out to plan a course, one has to keep in mind that the context of the course plays a significant role. A course designer has to find out as much as possible about all the contextual aspects of the course itself, as well as the students' personal contexts which they will bring to their experience of the course. Only then one will be in a position to plan a successful and interesting course for those students. The 'given' situation into which a teacher enters in the classroom will be determined by how thoroughly the contextual basis has been examined and prepared. Accurate knowledge of both resources and constraints must guide the process of decision making (Graves 2000:16).

Being familiar with the circumstances in which the course will take place is crucial for deciding on the content and objectives of the course. Some of these factors would be the timeline and the purpose of the course, who the students are, available teaching materials, etc. Graves gives a list of some factors which should be considered in defining the context:

People	Physical setting
students how many, ages, gender, culture(s), other language(s), purpose(s), education, profession, experience, other stakeholders school administrators, parents, funders, community	location of school: convenience, setting classroom: size, furniture light, noise always same classroom?
Nature of course and institution	**Teaching Resources**
type/purpose of the course mandatory, open enrollment relation to current/previous courses prescribed curriculum or not required tests or not	materials available required text? develop own materials? equipment: cassettes, video, photocopying clerical support
Time	
how many hours total over what span of time how often class meets length of each session day of week, time of day fit with overall schedule of the students students' timeliness	

Table 1: Defining the Course Context (Graves 2000: 16)

It is clear that this list is not exhaustive and that it may be difficult to elicit all the information before the course starts, but it certainly serves as a good starting point for gathering important information concerning the context of a course. Moreover, one has to remember that not every teaching situation needs the same information, and therefore, some information may be more relevant for one course than for another (Graves 2000: 16-17).

There are several reasons why defining a course context plays such an important part in course design. It is obvious that detailed information about the students themselves, such as age and gender or social and cultural background, can help the teacher connect with their specific needs and potentials. The time frame, how much time is available and how it is apportioned, is also essential knowledge. It helps one to set realistic goals for the amount of content that can be covered in one course. Knowing what equipment or materials are available will help the teacher to choose appropriate lesson elements for presentation and practice and will also give the

teacher a chance to produce or design new materials if anything is missing. The teacher will also have to take into consideration whether the course builds on work done in previous courses and whether the course is meant to prepare students for further courses. Such considerations obviously help to determine the content of the course. And finally, the amount and kind of information presented in the course will also depend on the methods used to assess the students, or whether they will be assessed at all (Graves 2000:17).

By way of summary, then, only by being clear about the constraints and the resources of the context, can a teacher realize his or her course objectives. Being in tune with the context makes it possible for the teacher to design and carry out a course that is appropriate for the students and their goals. So for example, if the teacher has gained adequate information about the students beforehand, he or she will be able to choose materials that are suitable for both their needs and their interests. Moreover, when students become aware of the fact that the teacher cares enough to design a personally relevant course for them, they will be more highly motivated and so the course will be more productive (Graves 2000:18).

However, it sometimes happens that it is not possible for the teacher to gather relevant contextual information about a course that he or she has been asked to teach. Graves gives three pieces of advice for this eventuality. First of all, try to talk with previous teachers and to uncover unnoticed or hidden sources of information. Secondly, if one has any previous experience in a similar area, try to plan a course for that field and then adapt it to the current course. Finally, the most important strategy is to be as flexible as possible. One trick would be to have several options for each part of your lesson. For example, providing several topics ready to go, so that you can choose among them as the lesson, or course, develops (Graves 2000: 19-20).

This English course is designed for a very specific context based on the experiences I have gained while teaching English to some Tibetan women. The following chart provides a brief overview of the main facts influencing the language teaching situation. Only after considering the following constraints and resources of the context an adequate English course can be designed.

People	Physical setting
between 4 and 12 Tibetan women; all but one have school aged children; between 28 and 40; L1 is Tibetan, some also speak a little Hindi; Weaving carpets; Learn English to sell their carpets to tourists; almost no previous schooling (except: some had a little schooling in Tibet, or were taught by other Volunteer's) Volunteer Tibet – organization which mediates between volunteers and students.	The location of the school is one room in the weaving workshop. There are bags of hay to sit on the stone floor and an old blackboard on one side of the room. A turned-over box functions as table. The room is rather dark but it is not too noisy. The English class always takes place in this room.
Nature of course and institution	**Teaching Resources**
For this English class there is no enrollment necessary. It is not a mandatory class. One of the students asked the Volunteer Tibet organization to send a volunteer to teach the women English so that they can improve their living situation by selling their own carpets. (=motivation!) As the teacher I did not know anything about previous courses. There is no prescribed curriculum – "just do some basic English!" There are no required tests.	A blackboard is available, no other technical equipment. I developed my own teaching materials, using the internet and some absolute beginners English text books, which I found in one of the bookshops. I bought two posters showing fruits and vegetables. I photocopied my handouts in an internet café.
Time	
The class meets five times a week for two months. Each lesson lasts about one hour. So one course consists of forty lessons. The class takes place from 10 – 11 am. This is their break time, made available for English learning by the boss.	

Table 2: Design Specific Course Context

3.3.1. Importance of Motivation

"You never stop learning." If this statement is taken seriously, it follows that we must have an enormous student population, because everybody is always learning. One just has to look closely to become aware of the different kind of learners all around us, of their different reasons and motivations for learning. Whether one is dealing with young children, adolescents, or adults will have a great effect on the way the whole syllabus will be designed. And that, in turn, will be the key factor in facilitating and promoting the students' motivation to utilize the course for a real learning experience. The project in hand is for the benefit of adult learners, and so the focus will lie on the motivational needs of this particular group.

Learning and studying hard is not an easy path to successfully manage a language and so the learner's motivation is crucial. The following definition of motivation is provided by Gardner. This insight should merely serve as a guideline while talking about motivation. He defines motivation as a

> combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes towards learning the language (Gardner 1985: 10).

One study (Naiman, 1995) even claims that when all is said and done, motivation is more important for learning languages than natural aptitude. While it is true that motivation cannot be measured directly, its importance cannot be denied. So in teaching, it is essential to "increase the likelihood of success in learning activities" (Ur 1996: 275). This will lead to greater motivation, as well as greater facility in the development of language ability, both elements reinforcing each other.

It is not an easy task to define 'motivation' as an abstract concept; it is easier and more useful to describe the 'motivated learner', i.e., somebody

> who is willing or even eager to invest effort in learning activities and to progress. Learner motivation makes teaching and learning immeasurably easier and more pleasant, as well as more productive: the importance of the topic for teachers (Ur 1996: 274).

There are different kinds of motivation. First of all, one has to distinguish between 'integrative' and 'instrumental' motivation: between the wish to be integrated into the target-language culture, and the wish to study and gain knowledge for its own sake. (Mishan 2005: 26). For the purpose of language teaching, this important distinction can be understood as that between an 'intrinsically' motivated learner and an 'extrinsically' motivated one. It is a question of whether the learning motivation

proceeds from internal or external factors, respectively. Both aspects can be influenced by the teacher (Arnold 1999: 14).

According to Brown (1987) further distinctions can be drawn between global, situational, and task motivation. The first one is the overall attitude of the learner towards the study of a foreign language. The situational motivation involves the immediate context of learning with regard to the classroom environment. The last motivational factor is concerned with the way the learner deals with the task itself (Ur 1996: 276).

Extrinsic motivation derives from external incentive. Most of these sources are not accessible to the teacher, for example, the students' desire to please their parents or peer-group influences. However, there are other extrinsic factors which can be affected by the teacher, such as success and its rewards, failure and its penalties, authoritative demands, tests and competition. Such factors have to be used with care, since overuse can cause negative attitudes (Ur 1996: 277-280).

Intrinsic motivation is mainly rooted in the students' previous attitude towards learning itself. Does the student see personal growth as worthwhile; does he or she like or feel good about the language and its cultural and political setting? This more global approach is not usually foregrounded during the length of the course, but rather at the beginning of it, maybe as a general underlying orientation towards learning itself. Here the teacher can highlight the positive aspects of foreign language learning to raise interest (Ur 1996: 280).

In the present context the students are highly motivated, as they see the studying of a foreign language as a chance for improving their miserable living situation. The women's motivation could be labelled as instrumental motivation. They do not wish to become integrated into a foreign culture but rather use English for their own sake, their own personal improvement. For many Tibetan refugees the desire for high quality education is the reason why they have decided to leave their home country. This outstanding position of education demonstrates the importance, which could be labelled as a global motivational factor.

Being in the position of working about 12 hours a day, it is not an easy task to devote about one hour to studying out of the remaining 12 hours. The situational motivation can be seen in the following described actions. The women have even managed to organize a 'classroom' and every person possesses a thin booklet and a pencil to write some English words in it. Only one woman was lucky enough to own an eraser, which of course everyone wanted to borrow. As in the Tibetan society a teacher inherits a highly respected position, the women were eager to solve the tasks set by me to please me. According to Brown (1987) this can be seen as task motivation.

Knowing some contextual factors makes it easier to adapt the English lessons to the women's needs and their personal situation. As I have demonstrated above the women were highly motivated to invest time and effort in the study of a foreign language. They see the benefits of being able to communicate in another language.

3.3.2. The Group of Students

For a long time it was suggested that young children learn languages more easily than adults, since they pick up foreign languages fast. However, this contention has not yet been confirmed by research. Comparing older and younger learners, exposing them to the same learning environment, one can observe that teenagers are actually the best overall learners. The only obvious exception to this is pronunciation. It is commonly known among teachers that young children have a shorter concentration span than adults. In this regard, Ur points out that it is not really the concentration span itself "but rather the ability of the individual to persevere with something of no immediate intrinsic interest to them" (Ur 1996: 288). Adults, in comparison, also tend to be more self-disciplined and tolerant than young students. The last major difference is the level of motivation and enthusiasm. Most of the time it is quite easy to catch a child's attention with some funny or interesting activity. But they are also likely to lose interest again more quickly than adults. Monotonous activities, for example, bore children immediately, but adults usually stick to them and hope for a long-term reward. It might be more precise to say that the motivation level of young learners is more varied than that of older students, whose level of interest and motivation could be described as stable (Ur 1996: 286-288).

Due to the fact that the object of this project is to design an English course for Tibetan women living in exile in India, the following pages will focus on that particular target group and explore the various possible relationships that obtain between adult learners and their teacher. It will be apparent that some of them are commonly found in the teaching of younger pupils as well. Conversely, it should also be kept in mind that this compilation presents relationships of a general nature, and therefore, all of the types cannot be expected to apply to any given pedagogical situation. According to Ur (1996) the following taxonomy of the teacher-students relationship types are commonly found in a classroom situation:

1) *Authority >< Subjects to Authority:*

In adult classes the teacher has the status of an authority, not necessarily as a legally appointed superior, but by virtue of his or her expertise, as someone who knows the language and its methodology. The teacher is expected to give instructions and to be in control of the class. Mutual respect and the teacher's accountability are important factors for the success of this teacher-student relationship. It should be noted that the students, especially when they are adults, tend to expect a high level of productive gain in terms of their own learning acquisition.

2) *Assessor >< Assessed:*

This asymmetrical relationship appears in many classroom situations, regardless of the age of the students. As soon as one person has the power and the responsibility to pass judgment on someone else's work, and often by implication on the person doing the work, the relationship will become hierarchical. In this case the assessor, or teacher, dominates the assessed, or students.

3) *Transmitter >< Receivers:*

This relationship more aptly belongs to a discussion about the methodology chosen by the teacher and is only marginally concerned with age differences in the teacher-student relationship. Nevertheless, the way the reciprocal roles of transmitter and receiver interact is impacted by the age of the participants. Most adults probably use their right to question and criticize more effectively than younger students do. But on the other hand, older students also tend to give more credence to the teacher's demands than younger ones do.

4) *Motivator >< People to be Motivated:*

Generally speaking, adults take responsibility in society, talking about their actions and possible consequences, no matter if they are teachers or students. So in adult education the teacher provides information and the adult students are responsible for their learning process, and therefore rely less on the teacher's initiative. Moreover, adult learners are often more self-motivated because in most cases they are taking a course voluntarily and their motivation is far more stable than that of young students. So teaching an adult class frequently requires less investment and effort by the teacher to motivate the class members than with young students.

5) *Activator >< People to be Activated:*

   Similarly to the "transmitter – receiver" relationship, this connection properly belongs to a discussion about the methodology employed by the teacher.

6) *Counselor >< Clients:*

   This is a typical characteristic of a teacher-adult relationship as the responsibility and initiative in the classroom procedure shifts from the teacher to the students themselves. The teacher inherits the role of the accepted professional, who should support the expressed needs of the students rather than to follow a predetermined program. According to Ur, some general feeling of a counselor – client relationship might enrich otherwise conventional adult classes.

7) *Seller of Services >< Buyers of Services:*

   This is essentially a business relationship. The teacher offers a commodity, the knowledge of a language, and the learner is willing to pay a certain amount of money for the service of being rendered. Within such a relationship, the learner has greater rights and even has a say in dismissing the teacher. Therefore, the prestige of the teacher is lower.

8) *Resources >< Users:*

   Ur describes here the role of the teacher as a source of knowledge to be tapped by the learner. In this relationship it is the learner who tells the teacher what to do. This could have several reasons: the students are experienced learners and know exactly what they want to learn and how they can achieve it, or the teacher provides merely the language knowledge and has perhaps no previous experience and knowledge about teaching (Ur 1996: 294-296).

During the first weeks I had the status of an absolute authority and no smile was seen on the women's faces. Everything was serious and even if nobody could follow my words they listened eagerly and agreed to everything I said. When I asked them to do certain tasks nobody was sure what to do and they became very insecure. This kind of relationship changed during the course. I as a teacher remained the authority but not as absolute as in the beginning, where the students expected me to be totalitarian. So even though there was no official assessment, the relationship found in this learning situation was an hierarchical one. The teacher dominating the students is based on the contribution of language knowledge. The role of teacher is to provide information about the target language. The students are the receivers of this information. When I

decided to study Tibetan myself, this relationship changed slightly as I asked my students what the Tibetan meaning of a certain English word is. Now the relationship worked as an exchange of information. The students felt special as they were able to teach the teacher as well. This was of course a further motivational factor and opened up the former strict relationship.

This was an adult class in which the students actually were responsible for their own learning process. However, this class was not a 'normal' adult class. Besides this one hour of study with the teacher, the students could hardly appoint more time to learning than this one hour. Still they managed to do small tasks at home, such as writing a similar sentence to what we had done in the lesson.

3.3.3. Length of a Course

As a rule, volunteers working with Tibetan refugees in McLeod Ganji, H.P. India stay there for about two weeks. Of course, in such a short period of time it is not possible for a new volunteer to create and conduct a whole English course. First of all, in order to design an effective course, the social context and the students' specific needs have to be investigated. Only then can a course of sufficient duration be prepared utilizing a coherent methodology and the progressive integration of relevant content material. The course I have designed for this project requires a time period of about two months and consists of four units made up of ten lessons each. The idea is that each new volunteer can choose to continue with one of the different units, so that the learning experience of the students can be carried on methodically, with revisions and progressions, despite the changes in volunteer teachers.

3.3.4. Length of a Lesson

In this specific case the lesson lasts about one hour. The teaching situation cannot be compared to a real school situation with a bell ringing at the end and the beginning of each lesson. There are no exact starting and ending times. A further aspect which influences the beginning of the lesson is the fact that the women need a certain time until they show up in the class room. When the teacher comes to the weaving workshop, the women first have to finish their work, so for example the one line they are working on, then they can attend the class.

3.4. **Articulating Beliefs**

Thinking about the own learning experiences and remembering all the facts and theories encountered in university pedagogy courses, it becomes clear that learning and teaching a second language are both very complex processes. One of the major influential factors in teaching, which has not been mentioned so far, can be described, according to Graves (2000) and Stern (1983), as 'beliefs'. Certain beliefs or implicit understandings have always guided teachers through their lesson preparations, their expectations, and their behavior in the classroom. Therefore, I want to devote the following pages to a discussion of the complex nature of a teacher's belief and its role in teaching process.

To begin with, one has to realize that a lot of teachers have never thought about their beliefs and how they might be influencing the teaching process. Some teachers have never reflected on their own beliefs, simply because no one asked them to do so (Johnson 1989).

Before going into detail about the influences of beliefs one has to be clear about what the concept of belief includes. Graves provides a short discussion of this term as applied to pedagogy.

> To understand where beliefs come from you need to look at your past experience and the beliefs about learning and teaching that grow out of and guide that experience. Experience includes your education and its discourse [namely] the way one learns to think, speak and act and what one learns to value in a given setting such as a school (Graves 2000: 26).

So a teacher's belief derives among other things from personal working experiences and from the discourses that have taken place in connection with those experiences; it is what one considers important and necessary or what simply has to be done or what "works" in certain settings. The teacher's feeling for what is important is primarily based on his or her understanding of how people learn and teach languages (Graves 2000: 26-27).

Stern has developed a framework for teachers to work out their beliefs. He outlines this in his books *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching* (1983) and *Issues and Options in Language Teaching* (1992). In these works Stern establishes a close connection between theory and practice, demonstrating the interaction among four key concepts: language, society, learning and teaching. According to Stern (1992) these four concepts are fundamental for any theory of language teaching. They form the essential building blocks on which any model of language teaching is founded. Stern argues that every other aspect of language teaching can be found within these

four concepts, and therefore they form the essential basis for every possible type of language teaching. However, the boundaries between these four categories remain blurry as they influence each other (Stern 1983: 3; Stern 1992: 23-24).

First of all, putting oneself into the situation of wanting to learn a language, one will automatically be confronted with fundamental questions about the nature of language and how to study a specific language in the most effective way. Every language course implies a certain view of how language works and the target language itself. Most of the time this is presented by the teacher and so his or her point of view influences the whole course situation, as this will also translate into how a language should be learned and taught. How is language seen by the teacher? There are several definitions of language and how it functions. Does the teacher focus more on formal accuracy, namely the correct spelling, grammar, or pronunciation, or more on meaning, usage, and expression? Or is the teacher's belief rooted in a more sociolinguistic and discourse-oriented approach? And then, becoming more aware of one's underlying ideas about learning a language will influence how one uses the language within the given community, also, for example, in the classroom. The teacher's belief about how language is learned and acquired may even be a combination of the three different beliefs presented above (Graves 2000: 28; Stern 1992: 24).

Stern presents the social context as a three-folded belief, namely compounded of sociolinguistic, sociocultural, and sociopolitical issues. One could say that linguistics is presented in relation to other disciplines dealing with certain aspects of language; such as sociology and anthropology. To begin with the sociolinguistic issues, one can look at this area as a bridge-building concept, trying to connect linguistics with society. Social scientists are concerned with the problem whether or not certain language elements are used appropriately in the social context. Here one cannot separate the language from the context in which it is used, because contextual factors such as the purpose and the role of the language are bound to a certain situation. For example, there are several ways of writing a letter, depending on who the writer is and to whom the letter is addressed.

Sociocultural issues, on the other hand, are more concerned with the connection of language and different aspects of culture, such as social values, attitudes, norms, customs, art, and literature. Here language learning requires a certain awareness of one's own culture in order to be able to connect it to another culture. Finally, sociopolitical issues talk about the way one society perceives oneself or another ethnic group. They try to develop a critical awareness of how language and services are accessed and used in a certain society, and how, for example, political and social

power relationships utilize language. Therefore, learning how to access and how to participate in social systems belongs to the sociopolitical issues (Graves 2000: 29; Stern 1992: 24).

The third point in Stern's framework for articulating one's beliefs concerns learners and learning. This very fundamental issue deals with the teacher's belief of how people acquire languages. Learning itself can be described as a process in which the student tries to solve problems and discovers new areas of a language; this might be called an inductive process. In contrast, there is a deductive process, in which learning is described as the act of applying received knowledge. Here the learner is seen as an internalizer of knowledge, as opposed to the maker of knowledge. Learning can also be described as a cognitive process using both mental and social activities. Any study of learning also has to consider the different kinds of intelligence, such as visual, kinesthetic, auditory etc. The presence of these multiple intelligences in various strengths and combinations in each learner is a major factor influencing and supporting the way learning takes place. There is another important factor pertaining to the way a learner's individual disposition fits the learning situation. Learning may be the effort of a single person, but learning can also occur in groups where members can gain knowledge by helping and learning from each other. Finally, regarding the intentional focus of learning, there is a broad variety of reasons why people learn (Graves 2000: 29-30; Stern 1992: 24-25).

The last concept which shapes a teacher's belief deals with the role of the teacher and the ideas of teaching. Of course this perception is modified by the first three concepts. Additionally, the teacher has a preconceived picture of his or her role in the class. But not only the teacher also the students attending a class have certain expectations of a teacher. However, those views might be contrary. Historical developments influence the teacher's role as well. So every approach implies a specific behavior of the teacher (Stern 1992: 25).

> The process of teaching can be viewed on a continuum in which at one end the teacher transmits knowledge to the students, and at the other end the teacher and students negotiate the knowledge and skills and methods of learning (Graves 2000: 30).

To be able to describe a belief, one has to deal with the mentioned concepts. It helps to have a clear picture about one's previous experiences in the field of learning and teaching. For sure this is not an easy task, but it helps to choose the key elements concerning the content and the organization of a course. Therefore, if two teachers with different experiences and beliefs design a course on the same topic, those two courses would for sure have different designs. Their beliefs would have major implications on how they conceptualize their courses (Graves 2000: 35).

My critical awareness of the way language functions as a system of signs and my understanding of the way languages are learned have been primarily shaped by the various courses that I have attended at University and by my own personal language learning experiences. Simply being able to communicate and to establish a living connection with a foreign culture has always been the crucial reason for my decision to study language teaching. Consequently, in designing this English course I have focused on practical usage and communication skills. Underlying linguistic structures are trained and repeated in the process of natural usage. Students are not made explicitly aware of grammatical concepts, and there is no need for separate grammar exercises. For the Tibetan students, the main reason for learning English is to be able to communicate, and thereby to gain access to participation in other aspects of society, such as politics and art. Their desired capability to communicate effectively can be developed without teaching them abstract knowledge about structures.

My view of teaching while working with the Tibetan women in India, was totally different from that of my Tibetan students. They expected me to be authoritative. They simply wanted to repeat my sentences. But I asked them to participate in interactive activities and eventually formulate own sentences or phrases. However, first I had to tackle the problem of explaining what they were expected to do. This was already a challenge as we were confronted with major language barriers. So I basically showed with my whole body what they should do. For example I wanted them to act out a dialog pretending they were at the market selling vegetables. This is actually a very familiar situation to them. However, even though I taught them words and phrases related to the topic beforehand, it was challenging for them to formulate their own sentences. Although they actually only had to change the item they wanted to buy and the price, the rest of the sentence remained the same. The following dialogue was the result of two months of intensive training:

Scene: At the market

Tseyang: How much are the apples?

Dolma: The apples are 200 Rupees per kilo!

Tseyang: That is too expensive! No thank you!!

Lhamo: How much are the carrots?

Lobsang: The carrots are 15 Rupees per kilo!

Lhamo: Ok, I take 10 carrots.

After several attempts the women enjoyed this exercise and wanted to play this role game over and over again. I as a teacher was satisfied, because the women finally started talking in English. In the end this was a great success not only for the students but also for me.

3.5. **Conceptualizing Content**

This part of the course design process involves mainly the challenge of making the right choices about what to teach in a course. Three decades ago this process was simpler than nowadays. Language teaching was heavily influenced by the structural view of language, which resulted in an 'one-size syllabus for all students'. The syllabus consisted almost entirely of grammatical structures and vocabulary and was applied to all students without regard of their personal needs or goals (Graves 1996: 20). In the 1970's the structural point of view was replaced by the communicative approach. This led to an opening up of the syllabus, which was developed with the help of applied linguistics and the work of sociolinguistics. Language was seen as a tool for communicating with people for certain purposes. The student had to become aware of the content and the appropriateness of language depending on the situation (Graves 1996: 21).

Therefore, the process of categorizing content has become much more complex, because it involves deciding where one will lay the focus and why one has chosen to teach a certain topic depending on the students' needs. Utilizing clearly formulated organizing principles can help the teacher to pull the content together. However, a special challenge can be to narrow down the topics or areas depending on the resources and constraints of the teaching situation. At the same time, the teacher's and the institution's beliefs and current thinking will form the parameters within which those choices will be made (Graves 2000: 39). Generally speaking, the process of categorizing content is important for teachers to understand the underlying structure of a course, while still keeping in touch with the students' needs. "The product of conceptualizing content is a kind of syllabus in that it delineates what you will teach" (Graves 2000: 38).

Graves provides three aspects of conceptualizing content:

1) Thinking about what you want your students to learn in the course, given who they are, their needs, and the purpose of the course;
2) Making decisions about what to include and emphasize and what to drop;

3) Organizing the content in a way that will help you to see the relationship among various elements so that you can make decisions about objectives, materials, sequencing and evaluation (Graves 2000: 37-38).

Stern (1992) also provides an useful framework for conceptualizing course content, which is described in the chapter 'articulating beliefs' in greater detail. Three out of his four main categories can be taken into consideration for conceptualizing content: language; learning, and social context. While looking at Stern's categories one has to keep in mind that the boundaries between them are blurry and often overlap. Moreover, Graves highlights that the category 'language' includes the knowledge of the language as well as the skills or activities. So the teacher has to become aware about what the students will learn and in which way they will do so (Graves 2000: 43).

The following chart illustrates the further subcategories of Stern's concept:

Focus on Language:

Linguistic Skills	**Situations**
Pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary	The contexts in which language is used
Topics/Themes	**Communicative Functions**
What the language is used to talk about	What the language is used for
Competences	**Tasks**
Language and behavior to perform tasks	What you accomplish with the language
Content	**Speaking**
Subject matter other than language	Oral skills
Listening	**Reading**
Aural comprehension skills	Understanding written tests and learning reading subskills
Writing	**Genre**
Producing written texts and learning writing subskills	Spoken and written texts that accomplish a purpose within a social context

Focus on Learning and the Learner:

Affective Goals	**Interpersonal Skills**	**Learning Strategies**
Attitudes toward learning, language, culture	How one interacts with others to promote learning	How one learns

(Please note: Table continues on next page.)

Focus on Social Context:

Sociolinguistic Skills	Sociocultural Skills	Sociopolitical Skills
Choosing and using appropriate language	Understanding cultural norms and their relation to one's own	Learning to critique and take action for effective change

Table 3: Subcategories of Stern's Concept (Grave 2000: 52-53)

While collecting ideas on the content, the course designer has to become aware of the fact that course content may include a 'hidden curriculum' according to Ur (1996: 199). This would mean that an underlying message besides the factual information is included in the course content. Favorable or unfavorable attitudes towards a certain nationality, culture or people; and religious or political views are transmitted via the content presented in the course. It is of major importance that the course designer considers this hidden information, especially prejudices are often ingrained without intention.

There are several forms or approaches on how to start collecting ideas on categorizing content. A common form to capture the content of a course is the use of mind maps. This version provides a dynamic image of the course content which is presented in a non-linear way. While using this technique, one produces a picture of a course showing the multiple relationships among the different parts of a course (Graves 2000: 57). After several attempts one eventually will arrive at a final draft of a mind map. The first step of mind mapping involves brainstorming, a general collection of all possible contents. These will be categorized and relations among and within categories will be established. The final draft will help the teacher to see what kind of syllabus he or she will have and which categories will derive (Graves 2000: 63;65).

Another way of laying out the content of a course are grids and flow charts. Grids present the content in an accessible and graphic form. However, it is more difficult to show any relations among the various parts of the course and it is less flexible (Graves 2000: 57). Every teacher has to find the appropriate tool for establishing the content of a course. The main issue is that the tool should support the teacher's creativity and provide an useful overview. "The process you use should allow you to be both generative and creative, so that you can then be critical, vigilant, and organized" (Graves 2000: 70).

In the following chart I have inserted according to Stern's framework some content related issues, which I first collected in form of mind maps.

Focus on Language:

Linguistic Skills	**Situations**
Pronunciation (intonation), grammar, vocabulary	at the market; talking to foreigners
Topics/Themes	**Communicative Functions**
Personal identity; family relations; everyday language; body parts; clothes; colors; vegetables; fruits; etc.	to sell own products; to buy something at the market; to arrange where to meet; describing fabrics
Competences	**Tasks**
Language and behavior to perform tasks, such as bargaining at the market	Related to one self, to the real world; to the classroom; daily routine; describing fabrics; sales dialogue
Content	**Speaking**
Major focus relating to the situation found at a market (fruit, vegetables, clothes, carpets)	oral communication; interaction with foreigners; turn-taking skills
Listening	**Reading**
Language comprehension; interpretation and evaluation of the language input	Minor focus on this skill; provides access to the target language
Writing	**Genre**
Producing very short written texts for a specific audience	Spoken dialogues and descriptions, e.g. at the market

Focus on Learning and the Learner:

Affective Goals	**Interpersonal Skills**	**Learning Strategies**
To develop confidence while learning from one's mistakes; positive attitude towards target language	To work in groups; to learn from each other	Learning techniques; self-monitoring; develop learning strategies used within and outside the classroom

(Please note: Table continues on next page.)

Focus on Social Context:

Sociolinguistic Skills	Sociocultural Skills	Sociopolitical Skills
Choosing and using the appropriate language register and body language; learned via the four skills	Intercultural understanding; e.g. gender related roles or interpret explicit and implicit messages	Supporting the awareness that spoken or written language can help to improve the situation of the Tibetan women

Table 4: Stern's Content related Framework applied to the Tibetan English Course

3.6. **Formulating Goals and Objectives**

> The process of converting perceptions of students' needs into goals and objectives provides the basic units that can in turn be used to define and organize all teaching activities into a cogent curriculum (Brown 1995: 75).

Grave defines goals as "general statements of the overall, long-term purposes of the course. Objectives express the specific ways in which the goals will be achieved" (Graves 1996: 17). This procedure can be compared to a journey. The goals of a course present the final destinations of a journey and the objectives are the single steps which one has to pass to reach the final goal or destination. Setting goals and objectives helps the teachers to build a coherent framework of a course and to determine an appropriate content and activities (Graves 1996: 17).

Goals and objectives are obviously necessary to organize an effective course. Having a goal in mind helps teachers to stay on the path to reach it. However, at the same time teachers have to be flexible enough to adapt their ideas to the learner's needs. Setting goals and objectives is a rather abstract process done before the teaching process starts. The distance between the planning procedure and the teaching itself may lead to underestimate the importance of this process.

In the 1970s and early 1980s studies showed that the teachers at that time were more concerned with the happenings in the classroom rather than with abstract planning thoughts such as goals and objectives. Of course they also had goals in mind but they were implicitly mentioned and not explicitly stated like later in history (Clark and Peterson 1986; Graves 2000: 73).

Including the process of formulating goals and objectives into course design involves a number of advantages: to explicitly mention the aim of the course, to adapt the appropriate course material, and a list of objectives can help to evaluate the course

(Hedge 2000: 345). However, the teacher still has to be flexible enough to adjust the goals and objectives while teaching the course, as the students' needs or the teaching relevant circumstances might change.

3.6.1. Goals

Brown (1995) provides four points which should be kept in mind while formulating goals:

1) Goals are general statements of the program's purpose.
2) Goals should usually focus on what the program hopes to accomplish in the future, and particularly on what the students should be able to so when they leave the program.
3) Goals can serve as one basis for developing more precise and observable objectives.
4) Goals should never be viewed as permanent, that is, they should never become set in cement (Brown 1995: 71-72).

After collecting the goals the course designer has to decide how to organize them into a coherent plan. Graves states that one could use the same categories for organizing the goals by using the same categories as in conceptualizing the content (Graves 2000: 82). Additionally, there are three main frameworks which should help formulating a coherent course plan:

1) First of all Stern (1992) proposes four types of goals.
    i. Proficiency goals: theses goals include what students should be able to do with the language (to manage the four skills and specific language functions).
    ii. Cognitive goals: these involve the mastery of linguistic and cultural knowledge.
    iii. Affective goals: these include the positive attitude towards oneself as learner, the target language and culture.
    iv. Transfer goals: these include the aspect of learning how to learn (different learning skills can be applied to situations outside the classroom) (Graves 2000: 84-85).
2) A further framework, which should help course designers formulate goals, is the so called KASA framework:

The **K**nowledge goals state what the students will know and understand, including language, culture and society. The **A**wareness goals describe what the students have to be aware of while learning a language (self-knowledge, grasping the idea of how language functions, and extra-linguistic factors) The **S**kills goals implement the four language skills and the functions and tasks one can accomplish. Generally this is the broadest of the four goals as it simply describes what students can do with language. The **A**ttitude goals address the affective and values-based aspects of learning, namely the students' feelings towards themselves, others and the target language and culture, including respect, self-confidence and valuing community. These goals depend heavily on the teacher's attitudes (Graves 2000:83).

3) The third framework is described by Fred Genesee and John Upshur, described in their book *Classroom-based Evaluation in Second Language Classrooms* (1996). The listed components are used in their book mainly as a base for evaluation. Their framework involves the following aspects:

   i. Language goals[11]: language skills which the students are expected to learn in the classroom.

   ii. Strategic goals: which strategies students need to learn a language.

   iii. Socioaffective goals: how learner's attitude or social behavior might change resulting from interactions in the classroom.

   iv. Philosophical goals: how values, beliefs and attitudes might change in a more general sense.

   v. Method or process goals: in what kind of activities the students will be involved (Genesee 1996: 16-18).

Goals can appear in many different shapes or forms, for example language and situation-centered, functional or structural. Moreover, goals stand in close connection to the goals of the program and therefore the process of defining goals helps the curriculum developers reconsider the program's purpose with specific reference to the students' needs (Brown 1995: 72). The bottom line of formulating goals is that they should be realizable as otherwise it is really demotivating for the students as well as for the teachers (Graves 1996: 18).

The most appropriate conceptual framework for the Tibetan English course is provided by Stern's integrated combination of goals. The students' needs can be met

[11] Genesee and Usphur label the following goals as "instructional objectives". However, I will use "goals" for describing these objectives as it is more appropriate in this case.

using his four-fold conception, because its focus lies on communicative functions, such as speaking and listening, rather than on isolated linguistic features. The other two possible frameworks that I considered also provide a set of viable goals for a language course, but neither of them can be as smoothly integrated as Stern's. Thus, the model proposed by Genesee and Upshur focuses mainly on language itself and suggests that each goal should be limited to only one skill (Graves 2000: 85). But not all four language skills receive the same amount of attention in the Tibetan English course, and therefore this framework cannot be meaningfully implemented. The KASA framework is not suitable for a different reason: it concentrates on the students' self-awareness and feelings about the target culture, which are not the main issues addressed by the Tibetan English course.

The following long-term goals should help to formulate effective course objectives and eventually the course content. They are adapted to the context of the Tibetan English course, keeping the students' needs in mind.

1) *Proficiency Goals:*

   to develop speaking and listening skills

   to develop reading and writing skills

   to be able to communicate with foreigners

   to be able to sell own products to tourists at a market

   to make arrangements: where do we meet?

2) *Cognitive Goals:*

   grammar, vocabulary

   systematic aspects of communication

   rules and norms of the target language and culture

3) *Affective Goals:*

   to develop a positive attitude towards the target culture and language

   to develop a positive attitude towards your own culture and language

   to develop confidence while learning from one's mistakes

4) *Transfer Goals:*

   to learn how to learn in as well as outside the classroom

   to learn how to learn in a group

3.6.2. Objectives

As mentioned before objectives are more specific than goals, which eventually leads to a hierarchical order. If certain objectives are achieved, the learner should have reached a specific goal. In general, goals are more long-term oriented in comparison to objectives which are short-term oriented (Graves 2000:77). Brown points out that goals and objectives mainly differ concerning their level of specificity (Brown 1995:74). Moreover, one objective can serve more than one goal(Graves 2000: 79).

A standard work on objectives was written by Robert Mager (1962). He states that for formulating instructional objectives three components are necessary: performance, condition and criterion. Performance describes what the students will be able to do, condition describes the circumstances under which the performance will be able to take place, and finally, criterion describes the quality of the performance that will be accepted (Graves 2000: 86). Brown adds to this list two new components, namely subject and measure. The subject will describe who will achieve the objective. This is important, as subjects change. Not every group of students remains the same, their age, gender or personal background differ (Brown 1995: 86). The category measure was added by Brown, describing the criteria on which the desired performance will be observed (Brown 1995: 89).

Brown and Mager's approach towards goals and objectives is both problematic and useful according to Graves (2000). First of all, she states that formulating objectives communicates very well what the students are expected to learn in the following course and in which way. Graves points out that the additional component "subject" is a very useful one as many teachers fall into the trap of writing objectives for themselves instead for their students. All in all she stresses that the more specifically one can formulate goals and objectives, the more useful they are for others and oneself. Graves criticizes the component performance as not every learning activity can be observed and learning in general is often unpredictable (Graves 2000: 87).

> Developing statements of perceived needs into program goals, and these in turn into clear objectives, is an effective way to clarify what should be going on in the language classroom (Brown 1995: 75).

However, one has to keep in mind the danger of formulating goals and objectives, namely the temptation of seeing them as if they are written in stone. Moreover, they can never be seen as isolated facts as they stand in close connection to other components of the course design such as students' needs. Still they are a very useful tool for developing materials and assessment tools.

Objectives for the Tibetan English course:

- Talking about oneself and one's history.
- Being able to tell the colors, the numbers, the time, the days of the week.
- Being able to use grammar, vocabulary and functions appropriate to the topic.
- Talking about fabrics and clothes.
- Giving directions and arranging meeting points.
- Describing own products and advertising them.
- Communicating with foreigners.
- Sales dialogue. Bargaining about the price and the carpets' value.

3.7. **Needs Analysis**

Needs analysis is an important factor for constructing a syllabus because it sorts the participants into more or less coherent groups with regard to language proficiency, age, and in the case of an ESP setting, the target language. Homogenous groups, which would be ideal for teaching and learning can only be found in books. But in reality, teachers are lucky if they find a more or less coherent student group.

Language needs analysis began in the 1970s.[12] This development helped to adjust language courses to the needs of students with different personal backgrounds. However, further research in this area has shown that not only the individual, but also social expectations in general should be subjected to a thorough needs analysis (Stern 1992: 43). So in dealing with needs analysis, one first has to be aware of what that procedure involves and then decide which parts should be included in a specific case of needs assessment. First of all, I want to present some definitions and then examine in detail what is included: how needs assessment works, when it can be used, and who the participants are.

John Munby developed one of the most elaborate approaches to needs analysis. In *Communicative Syllabus Design* (1978) Munby mentions nine basic elements which lead to an effective, and relatively objective, needs analysis. In addition, he suggests how these categories can be transformed into goals, which can be used to construct a coherent syllabus. His work shaped a whole era, and therefore a short summary of his ideas will follow. Although his application of needs analysis has been criticized for being too mechanistic (Nunan 1988a: 20), it nevertheless has a dominant influence during the preceding era, while the so-called "post–Munby" era has turned to more subjective approaches. Nowadays language teaching has been heavily influenced by competing notions of needs analysis (Hedge 2000: 342).

The following nine elements defined by Munby serve as one of the major foundations of needs analysis. One must always keep in mind that these aspects of needs analysis tend to be quite objective, and are therefore often described as mechanical due to the fact that they collect straightforward facts, such as age, setting, gender, and language ability. Subjective information, on the other hand, refers to the students' attitudes and expectations about what and how they will learn (Graves 2000: 104).

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[12] compare: Richterich and Chancerel 1977; Munby 1978.

1) *Participant:*

   This variable collects relevant information about the learners with regard to their identity and language skills: such as age, gender, nationality, and residence, as well as their mother tongue and knowledge of any other foreign languages. These factors help one to place the student in an appropriate learning setting.

2) *Purposive Domain:*

   Using this parameter, the syllabus designer should identify the different reasons for learning the target language. Munby distinguished occupational purpose from educational purpose.

3) *Setting:*

   Here one is concerned with the two different settings in which the target language is going to be used. On the one hand, there is the physical setting, such as a working place or place of study. On the other hand, there is a psychosocial setting, which can include different environments, such as noisy or culturally unfamiliar surroundings.

4) *Interaction:*

   In this parameter one is concerned with whom the participants will have to communicate in the target language. Moreover, one discusses the participants' role functions, focusing on social relationships. This category can be subdivided into superior and subordinated role functions.

5) *Instrumentality:*

   This is the variable which deals with the different types of input, namely medium, mode, and channel of communication. For example, one needs to find out whether the required medium is spoken, written or both.

6) *Dialect:*

   This variable tries to find out which dialect is appropriate for the learner, for example British or American English, any other regional or social dialect, or English as a foreign language.

7) *Target Level:*

   After collecting enough information about the participants, one can determine a specification of the suitable and realistic target level to accommodate the course objectives.

8) *Communicative Event:*

   This parameter deals with what the participants have to do, either productively or receptively. The communicative event concerns the previously gathered information, distinguishing between macro- and micro-activities. The micro-activities are simpler units, which become the additive components of a

macro-activity. Basically, the event is subdivided into its constituent activities, each of which requires and promotes specific language skills.

9) *Communicative Key:*
   This variable is concerned with how the participants deal with an event. So basically with the attitude and tone (Munby 1978: 34-40).

Even though Munby's CNP remains the basis for later needs analysis approaches, it has received criticism from several researchers, such as Jordan (1997). Robinson criticizes his procedure as a very complex, time consuming one, directed mainly at target needs (Robinson 1983: 161).[13]

According to Brown

> needs analysis (also called needs assessment) refers to the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs of a particular group of students. In the case of language programs, those needs will be language related (Brown 1995: 35).

Following this rather broad definition, Brown develops a more specific discussion of needs assessment drawing on the following three definitions.

Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985) provide more details in their definition of needs analysis, which they described as

> the process of determining the needs for which a learner or a group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities. Needs analysis makes use of both subjective and objective information (Richards, Platt, and Weber, 1985: 189).

Here the aspect of building needs analysis on both subjective and objective features of the learner widens the original definition given by Brown. Objective information presents factual knowledge, such as age, gender, the students' language ability, or what they would need the language for. Subjective information refers to cognitive and affective needs of the learners, for example, personality, attitude, confidence, and expectations (Brindley 1989:70).

In another definition, Stufflebeam, McCormick, Brinkerhoff, and Nelson (1985) state that needs assessment is "the process of determining the things that are necessary or useful for the fulfillment of a defensible purpose." This definition adds the aspect of a

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[13] A more detailed discussion on criticisms made on Munby's book can be found in the paper of Phan Le Ha "Munby's 'needs analysis' model and ESP" (2005).

"defensible purpose", meaning that the isolated needs are reasonable and contribute to a unified purpose (Stufflebeam et al. 1985: 16).

The last definition which helped to reshape the final definition is one provided by Pratt, namely, that "needs assessment refers to an array of procedures for identifying and validating needs, and establishing priorities among them" (Pratt 1980: 79).

Brown points out in his final definition of needs assessment that it refers

> to the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation (Brown 1995: 36).

To accomplish needs analysis successfully one has to go through the process of needs assessment, which is called the needs assessment cycle, according to Graves (2000).

This cycle consists of six major steps:

1) Deciding what information to gather and why
2) Deciding when, from whom, and how to gather it
3) Gathering the information
4) Interpreting it
5) Acting on it
6) Evaluating the effects of the action

(Graves 2000: 100)

ad 1) Deciding what information to gather and why:

Basically, students attend a course to gain further knowledge. A course should help the students to overcome the gap between their current state and the desired one. To be able to meet the students' needs, one has to collect information about both before and after situations. Therefore, the purpose of each course is to support the students on their way to reach the desired outcome (Grave 2000: 101). With the help of needs analysis one can gather information about the present state as well as the future desired one:

The present situation includes the following points:

a) Who the learners are
b) The learners' level of language proficiency
c) The learners' level of intercultural competence
d) Their interests

e) Their learning preferences
f) Their attitude

The future situation includes the following points:

g) The learners' [or those of others involved] goals and expectations
h) The target contexts: situations, roles, topics, and content
i) Types of communicative skills they will need and tasks they will perform
j) Language modalities they will use

(Grave 2000: 102)

Besides the distinction between objective and subjective information, which has been defined earlier on, the difference between target needs and learning needs has to be made. The target needs include what students need to learn and for what reason. The learning needs describe the way the students are expected to learn and their motivation (Hutchinson 1987: 54-62). However, the bottom line is that one should only gather information that is relevant for the purpose of the course (Graves 2000: 105).

Another factor which influences the needs analysis process is the fact that there are many different philosophies about needs assessment. So every teacher has to decide first of all which philosophy he or she wants to embrace and then become aware of the fact that this will affect the types of information that will be gathered (Brown 1995: 38-39).

ad 2) Deciding when, from whom, and how to gather it:

First of all, there are three complementary timeframes for collecting information: pre-course, initial, and ongoing. Pre-course needs analysis is carried out before the course starts. This can influence the choice of content, goals and objectives, materials and activities. Basically it forms the foundation for being able to plan a course, unless enough information about similar courses is already available. The initial needs assessment takes place during the first period of the course. This is especially useful if a pre-course needs analysis was not possible. In this case the teacher has the opportunity to make up for a possible lack of information. The last timeframe is the ongoing needs assessment. This happens throughout the whole course. The advantage of this assessment tool is that it is based on shared experiences and therefore it can change the progress of the course. The last two needs assessments

profit from the fact that they can be conducted in two ways. First of all, the teacher can do a direct needs assessment, focusing during an activity exclusively on collecting specific information. The second possibility is the so called indirect needs assessment, in which the teacher uses a "regular" language activity to focus on needs analysis. The last possibility of analysis would be an informal one, which only consists of observing the students (Graves 2000: 110-111).

When talking about needs analysis, one has to consider who the participants are. Generally there are four main categories of people who can be involved in the process of needs analysis:

The first category is the target group, which consists of those people about whom the information should be collected. Most of the time this group encompasses students, but it could also involve teachers or administrators. The second group consists of the audience. This group is made up of all the people who will eventually work with the analysis, for example teachers, program administrators, or supervisors. The next category involves the people who carry out the needs analysis, the so called needs analysts. Most probably this group is responsible for identifying the other three groups. The last group, the resource group, involves anybody who serves as source of information about the target group. This could be, for example, outsiders who can be found in the students' future working situation (Brown 1995: 37).

> In the process, the analysts should remain flexible enough to allow for new areas of investigation to develop and old ones to be discarded as the process of needs assessment proceeds. The choices made depend on the philosophy of the needs analysts, as well as their points of view on the various types of information that can be examined (Brown 1995: 43).

After all this has been sorted out, one can start the analysis with the help of certain techniques. These are more or less simple as they all want to elicit answers to relatively simple and hopefully straightforward questions. There are different types of questions found in the procedure of needs analysis. Brown (1995) summarizes them in four broad categories: problems, priorities, attitudes, and solutions.[14] Hutchinson and Waters also provide two frameworks for needs assessment, either analyzing the target needs or the learning needs (Hutchinson 1987: 59-63). The questions can be asked with the help of different instruments.

Graves (2000) divides the most common instruments into two categories, namely, into those that can be used once or on a regular basis, and into ongoing needs assessment activities. The first category includes questionnaires; interviews; grids, charts or lists;

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[14] For more information on these categories see Brown 1995: 43-44.

writing activities; group discussions; and ranking activities. The ongoing activities include observation; regular feedback sessions; dialogue journals; learning logs and learning diaries; portfolios; and participatory processes[15] (Graves 2000: 113-120).

Brown highlights the category of reviewing existing information, which can take place before the course starts. This category can include internal or external data sources, as well as a thorough literature review about similar courses or programs (Brown 1995: 46-47). Further common assessment tools will be described in the following paragraphs.

The use of questionnaires is an obvious choice for needs analysis. They are easy to handle and not too time consuming. The questions can be tailored for every group of students. However, this assessment tool is not always the best choice. First of all, many teachers overload the questionnaires with too many questions, and secondly the students have to be able to master the target language on a certain level to ensure that they have fully understood the questions (Graves 2000: 114). Still, questionnaires have further advantages. They can gather information on a large scale and from a spatial distance. Additionally, they can elicit information from different kind of topics: biodata surveys; opinions surveys; self ratings and judgmental ratings (Brown 1995: 50). All these factors make the choice of questionnaires so attractive.

There are also different forms of interviews: teachers interviewing student(s) or vice versa or students interviewing each other (Graves 2000: 116). Interviews belong to the category of open-ended assessment tools. Individual interviews can provide very personal insights. The major disadvantage is the fact that they are enormously time-consuming. As such, personal interviews may best be used as follow-ups, building upon a more structural tool, for example questionnaires. Group interviews try to tackle the time problem, but the elicited information is not confidential for political or interpersonal reasons (Brown 1995: 49).

Observation can also serve as a needs analysis tool. It involves "watching an individual or a small number of individuals, and recording the behaviors that occur" (Brown 1995: 48). In the case of a language class the observer will focus on language and classroom behaviors and therefore can use either informal notes or can record the observation in form of ethnographical studies (Brown 1995: 48). This category would also belong to the ongoing research methods.

A widely used source of information for needs analysis are tests. They provide a wealth of information. The insights of tests can be used for elaborating proficiency,

[15] Far more procedures are listed in Brown (1995: 45). However, one has to be aware of the fact that also this list is an infinite one.

placement, diagnosis, or achievement of the students. However, the higher the quality of the tests, the more useful the provided information will be (Brown 1995: 48).

Another commonly used strategy to find out the students' needs, is to have the students produce portfolios, which present a collection of the students' work. This obviously will provide the teacher with valuable information and will show the progress and achievement of the students (Graves 2000: 120).

As with all research methods, one has to be aware of various determinant factors which accompany information-gathering procedures, namely, reliability, validity, and usability, according to Brown. Only by considering those three aspects, can the advantages and disadvantages of the different research methods be explored. Those three aspects are obviously interrelated and equally important. Moreover, they should be connected to our common sense (Brown 1995: 51-52). "In other words, a procedure must logically be reliable, valid, and useable within a given context before it can be effectively used in a needs analysis" (Brown 1995: 52).

After all these aspects have been reviewed, one can start gathering and interpreting information which should then be evaluated and acted upon. However, while doing so, one has to keep the previously mentioned advantages and disadvantage of each step of the needs analysis in mind.

In the case of the following English course for semiliterate Tibetan women, needs analysis could be done in form of Learning Needs Analysis trough Pictures (LAP). This self-diagnose instrument can be described as a kind of flexible questionnaire, which should motivate the learners to participate in formulating questions and finding answers. LAP is used to elicit information about the students' learning experiences and their learning progress. While showing different cartoons with for example a language skill, a feedback or discussion round can be started. This method mainly works with pictures und simple terminology, and therefore, it could be used to analyze the needs of this particular target group (Edmundson 2000: 165).

The only previous information I received before starting to teach the Tibetan English course was that my students were a group of semiliterate women who were earning their living by producing carpets. My task was to teach them English to enable them to sell their own carpets at the market. At that point I was not aware of the necessity of a needs analysis and therefore did not attempt to make one. I simply brainstormed ideas about different English language features which might possibly be of benefit to the Tibetan women. The experience I gained in this way during my stay in India later provided me with the raw material out of which the present project has been

constructed. The LAP method would have been a great support at the time, but sadly I had not come across that needs analysis instrument before my stay in India. And therefore, many of the teaching materials that are incorporated into this course have been tried and tested in the field, but were not preselected on the basis of a specific needs analysis.

3.8. **Organizing a Course**

As each human being is a product of his or her experiences and decisions, the way a person organizes a course is influenced by a number of personal factors. One's thinking about the foundation of a course, namely, the choice of content, goals and objectives, depends on one's personal teaching and learning experiences in general. For example, how does the teacher relate his or her concept of learning to the importance of the students' needs? What are the teacher's beliefs about how learners learn? The choice of method and the teaching context, e.g. time management, play a crucial role in deciding what the appropriate organization for a certain course is (Graves 2000: 127).

Before discussing further aspects of course organization, one has to clarify the reasons why a teacher should have some kind of concept behind a course at all. This might appear to be an inappropriate question as the answer is clear, namely, to ensure a coherent course organization with hopefully a positive output. According to Graves

> [o]rganizing a course is deciding what the underlying systems will be that pull together the content and material in accordance with the goals and objectives and that give the course the shape and structure (Graves 2000: 125).

The aspect of a teacher's preparation is especially important for teachers who negotiate their syllabus with their students. Such an ongoing interaction can help to make a course successful because all participants can identify with the items learned or taught in this course. Here the teacher bears the responsibility to ensure that there is some kind of master plan behind the different lessons and to combine goals and objectives with the actual lessons. A so-called "negotiated syllabus" does not mean that there is no plan behind the teaching sequences. It only allows the teachers to prepare the arena within which to make decisions together with the students. So all in all, it is important for all members of a course to follow some kind of syllabus through the whole course. Even if it is not a fixed one, the lesson frame provided by the

teacher can be varied and easily adapted to the different learning situations (Graves 2000: 126; Stern 1992: 45-46).

Basically one can speak of three major levels within the area of organizing a course. First of all, there is the level of the course as a whole, e.g. determining long-term objectives and goals. Secondly, one has to tackle the problem of organizing the subsets of the whole within the course, such as units, modules, or strands (themes that are carried through the whole course). Finally, one has to find an appropriate organization for each individual lesson; the lesson plan (Graves 2000: 125).

Five overlapping processes, which do not follow a strict chronological order, are involved in organizing a course:

1) Determining the organizing principle(s) (e.g., themes, genres, tasks)
2) Identifying the course units based on the organizing principle(s)
3) Sequencing the units
4) Determining the language and skills content of the units
5) Organizing the content within the unit

(Graves 2000: 125)

3.8.1. Determining the Organizing Principle(s)

To start with, one has to realize that there is no single best way or fixed rule about how to organize a course. This decision is heavily influenced by the chosen organizing principle, which should be closely connected to the topic of the course. There are different ways to organize a course. First of all, topics can provide the organizing principle, which would mean that each unit of a course is related to one subject matter. So each unit has one specific focus that can be subdivided into further aspects of the chosen topic of the course.

Other organizing principles could be different text genres, or different language or academic skills. If for example a course is organized around types of writing, each unit may work on a different aspect of writing, maybe even in connection with different topics. Determining the organizing principle lays the foundation of the syllabus units and modules, which then can be sequenced in a certain way (Graves 2000: 130-135).

3.8.2. Identifying the Course Units Based on the Organizing Principle(s)

Individual content units are directly derived from the overall course theme set by the chosen organizing principle. The task of the teacher or course designer is to break down the overall goals into separate smaller teaching and learning unit components. These are dependent on various contextual factors, such as individual skill levels of students, timeframe, and/or physical settings. For an optimal learning progress, individual units should themselves again be coherent and self-contained in form and content. Each syllabus unit varies in focus and degree of difficulty. Even though each unit is designed as an independent teaching sequence, they all together work towards the overall course aims as stated in goals and objectives.

The first level of the Tibetan English course organization deals with the long-term goals and objectives, which have been elaborated in the chapter 3.6. Formulating Goals and Objectives. The second layer of course organization is concerned with the distribution of the various units. Therefore, it is advisable to structure the following English course designed for the immediate target group into four main units, each consisting of ten lesson plans. For the Tibetan English course topics provide the appropriate organizing principle, namely being able to communicate with foreigners in a sales situation at the market. Consequently, each course module is constructed around a specific theme relating to this overall course aim, as described below.

The first unit serves as an introduction to the English class, and therefore, focuses on the individual personalities, their family relations, and their bodies. The second unit deals with clothes, textures, and shapes, providing the base for a discussion about the students' handmade carpets. In the third unit the students study different fruits and vegetables and telling the time for practicing sales situations at the market and being able to arrange meetings with potential customers. In the last unit all the previously learned contents are combined and are accumulated under the heading 'at the market'. The students then can finally apply all their previously acquired language skills. All four course units show strong relations to the overall course goals. Each module is still designed as an independent teaching sequence, but all together adding up to reach the overall course aims.

3.8.3. Sequencing the Course and its Units

The process of course development involves making decisions about the order and distribution of the teaching content. At the course level, this will primarily involve deciding on the order in which the different units should be taught, but it may also

include a discussion about the order of parts within the units. It is important to remember that flexibility is essential for a successful course.

One of the two main principles of sequencing is the common sense principle of building, which would mean that step A prepares the students for step B, which would then be the foundation for the next step C and so on. There are several ways in which this principle can be understood, namely:

> A is simpler or less demanding; B is more complex or more demanding. A is more controlled, B is more open-ended. A provides knowledge or skills required to do or to understand B. (Graves 2000: 136)

Another principle would be the development from the specific to the general, or from the individual to the community. Yet another possibility would be to follow a chronological order, for example in a literature course. For certain purposes, these principles can also be reversed, for example, from the community to the individual. [16]

No matter which of these basic ordering principles is chosen, it is important to fuse with a further principle called spiraling or recycling. This means that something that has already been learned will be reintroduced in connection with something else. This leads to an in-depth use of the previously learned knowledge or skills; for example, recycling something in a different context or with the help of a different language skill (Graves 2000: 135-138; Graves 1996: 28-29).

> A syllabus constructed without concern for sequencing potential will miss many opportunities to give regular practice in sustained conversational interchanges. (Johnson 1983: 72)

The four units of the Tibetan English course are presented in an order which follows the principle of progressive building. This organizational pattern can also be detected within the independent units, starting off with a simpler to a more complex or challenging structure. A further sequencing principle is based on the development within a unit from the familiar to the unfamiliar. As discussed before, the ordering principles have to be combined with further principles such as spiraling or recycling. Throughout the whole Tibetan English course this further principle has been applied. Repetition of previously acquired words, phrases or exercise patterns are the heart of learning a language for this immediate target group.

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[16]More on selecting, grading, and sequencing tasks: Markee 1997: 96-98; Hutchinson 1987: 108-109.

3.8.4. Unit Content

There is an obvious connection between the way the content of the whole course has been conceptualized, how the goals and objectives have been articulated, and how the unit content is structured. Moreover, all these features are based on the knowledge one has gained about the students' needs and their context. Of course, the organizing principle plays an important part in the choice of the unit content. If the teacher decides on a topic-based principle, the focus on the unit will be different than the focus of a course in which the organizing principle is based exclusively on skills. However, most of the time one can find a combination of different organizing principles. It might occur that the goals and objectives will be redefined as the multi-faceted process of course design proceeds (Graves 2000:140-141; Graves 1996:30).

Looking at the Tibetan English course, it is evident that each unit is designed around a topic related to the overall course goals and themes. This is illustrated by the mind map (Figure 1) below. Still, one has to realize that themes alone are not the only dominant element in the various modules. The students should also slowly become familiar with some written words as well, which are introduced gradually as the course proceeds. In working up the curriculum design, I have paid special attention to the progressive acquisition and reinforcement of pragmatic language skills.

3.8.5. Unit Organization

Looking at the organization of units, Graves mentions three corresponding ways to organize modules, units, and strands: a cyclic organization, a matrix, or a combination of the two. One can speak of a cyclic unit organization if elements reoccur in a predictable order. Once a sequence has finished, it will start all over again. In contrast, a matrix means that certain subcategories of the content have been selected, but then presented without a predictable order. Again, a close connection between the content and organization of the whole course and the single units can be established. The third organizational pattern consists of a combination of the two previously mentioned ways. An example for this pattern would be an exercise in which the beginning and the ending of a unit follow the same system (part of a cyclic organization) but that the activities in between have been taken from a matrix organizational pattern (Graves 2000:141).

The unit organization follows a combination of the two previously described organizational patterns. The teacher is expected to have a ritual-like beginning and ending of each lesson so to catch the students' attention. This is of special importance

for the immediate target group as punctuality and western school-like behavior cannot be taken for granted. It also helps the teacher to become aware of the actual teaching situation. This cyclic pattern then can be filled with prepared lesson plans (4. An English Course designed for Tibetan Women).

Based on the contextual factors in regard to Stern's model as stated in chapter 3.5. (Table 4) the following mind map helped to sketch the course framework. Through visual and contextual clustering it became clear that the promising way to structure the course was to divide it into four coherent units with the previously described content arrangements.

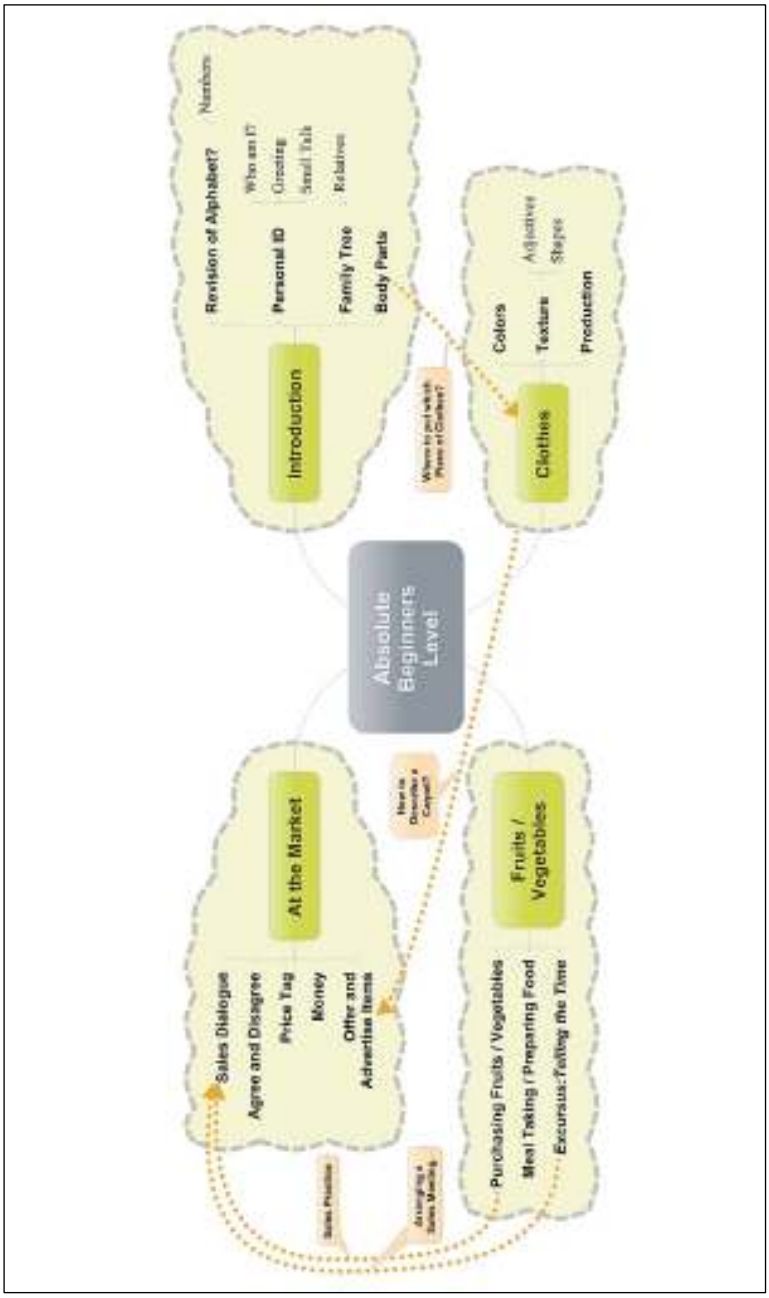

Figure 1: Mind Map for Collecting Content Areas for the Tibetan English Course

3.9. **Developing Materials**

> Material development is the planning process by which a teacher creates units and lessons within those units to carry out the goals and objectives of the course (Graves 2000: 149).

With the help of this process, the teacher develops an increasingly detailed syllabus (Graves 2000: 149). Before discussing the different aspects of material development, we should have a clear picture of what materials actually include. Tomlinson describes materials as

> anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of a language. They can be linguistic, visual, auditory or kinesthetic, and they can be presented in print, through live performance or display, or on cassette, CD-ROM, DVD or the internet. They can be instructional […] experiential […] elicitative […] or they can be exploratory (Tomlinson 2001: 66).

When planning which materials to choose and how to produce them, one has to consider exactly what activities or techniques they consist of. The boundaries are rather blurry due to the different ways one can conceptualize content. Graves states that at first glance one might define materials as what a teacher uses, and techniques and activities as how he or she uses them. However, this distinction is not reliable anymore, as, for example, materials which focus on a specific skill necessarily have to include activities (Graves 2000: 149).

Considering the fact that teaching is mostly connected to the use of some kind of material, it is clear that material development is a core subject in the field of course design. Still, it is a rather recent research area (Tomlinson 2001: 66). When working on the process of developing materials, one has to create, choose, adapt, or organize materials and activities so that the students will be able to achieve the individual objectives and finally the goal of the course. This process takes place on the level of organizing and sequencing the units[17] (Graves 2000: 150).

Another obvious aspect of material design is the fact that all the previously discussed aspects of course design, such as the teacher's beliefs and understanding about learning and teaching a language, play a major role in the choice of material. So basically, material design is influenced by the decision of how to put teaching principles into practice (Graves 2000: 151).

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[17] compare the last two aspects of „organizing a course" (5.8.4. and 5.8.5.)

Graves provides a chart of several considerations for developing materials, which also incorporates Stern's tripartite framework (1992) for conceptualizing content: namely, language, learners and learning, and social context:[18]

Learners

1) make relevant to their experience and background
2) make relevant to their target needs (use outside the class)
3) make relevant to their affective needs

Learning

4) engage in discovery, problem solving, analysis
5) develop specific skills and strategies

Language

6) target relevant aspects (grammar, functions, vocabulary, etc.)
7) integrate four skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing
8) use/understand authentic texts

Social Context

9) provide intercultural focus
10) develop critical social awareness

Activity/Task Types

11) aim for authentic tasks
12) vary roles and groupings
13) vary activities and purposes

Material

14) authentic (texts, realia)
15) varied (print, visuals, audio, etc.)

(Graves 2000: 156)

Although it is not the subject of this paper to discuss various aspects of authentic texts in the classroom, a short excursion may help to clarify the different aspects of the use of authentic texts as valuable sources of information.

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[18] compare chapter „conceptualizing content" (5.6.)

Tomlinson defines an authentic text as something "which is not written or spoken for language teaching purposes. A newspaper article, a rock song, a novel" (Tomlinson 1998: viii).

The main idea of using authentic teaching materials is to enhance language acquisition. So independently of the materials origin, it has to insure that the students can learn from it.

Authentic texts can motivate students to acquire language because they bring the real world into the classroom. The students have the feeling of being integrated into the target language community while working with authentic texts. Moreover, this can help the students to understand the target culture and so to move forwards towards integration (Mishan 2005: 26).

The use of authentic texts can also be problematic because these texts are not constructed to serve as teaching tools. They can include too many aspects and facets of a language which might overwhelm or discourage the students. If the students have not reached a certain language level, they can not entirely access those texts. Therefore, pedagogically prepared texts are constructed to help the students gain access to the real world. Those texts explicitly teach certain aspects of a language which eventually will become stepping stones for working with authentic texts (Graves 2000: 156).

The relevance and usefulness of authentic texts is a topic of primary concern among various course designers and language teachers. However, the use of authentic text for this Tibetan English course is not advisable. The semiliterate students are hardly capable of working with written authentic texts at this language level. Pedagogically prepared communicative exercises, which take the special needs of these students into consideration, will in fact produce the very benefits that one would expect to gain from using strictly authentic texts in the classroom. Pedagogical authenticity rather than textual authenticity is what is desired here

3.10. **Designing an Assessment Plan**

Generally speaking, there are three ways of assessment in course design. First of all, the course designer has to assess the students' needs. This has been discussed in the chapter 'needs analysis'. The second way is to assess the students' learning, and finally, the third way is to evaluate the course. Assessment can take place while the course proceeds, which can influence the rest of the course. This kind is called formative assessment. If assessment takes place at the end of a course, it is labeled as

summative assessment. This is more concerned with the overall effectiveness of the course (Graves 2000: 207-208).

Developing an appropriate assessment plan is normally the final step in course design. However, for this particular Tibetan English course, assessment is not a relevant element at the present moment. It is an aspect that can only be addressed at a later stage of development, when concrete experience has been gathered using the proposed course plan.

3.11. **Lesson Plan**

In section 3.3., 'defining the context', I gave a short introduction to the context in which this particular English course and its lessons might take place. I mentioned some of the contextual aspects which could influence the learning situation. Now I want to present some further relevant aspects which should be considered when planning a lesson, such as the lesson structure.

Most teachers continually revise their lesson plans throughout their careers. They do this for a good reason. It helps them to stay focused, both during each lesson and during the whole course. An overall framework suggests professionalism and functions as a vital aid. The teacher can refer to it during the class if he or she has lost sight of the lesson's goal or destination. Additionally, a lesson plan documents a teacher's work (Harmer 2004: 121). It tells the reader "who is going to learn or be taught, what they are going to learn or be taught, how they are going to do it and what with" (Harmer 2004: 126).

Generally speaking, "a good lesson needs to contain a judicious blend of coherence and variety" (Harmer 2004: 122). This should be reflected in a lesson plan. The internal coherence of a lesson can be seen in the sequencing of logical patterns, visible to both the students and the teacher (Harmer 2004: 122).

A varied lesson triggers the students' interest. To have a wide range of learning activities helps to catch the students' attention and supports the different learning styles and strategies. While being in favor of varied lessons, one still has to consider certain guidelines for choosing a productive task arrangement (Ur 1996: 216). According to Ur (1996) the following principles of selection and organization of different components will help to construct a smooth lesson:

Ways of varying a lesson:

1. Tempo

Activities may be brisk and fast-moving (such as guessing games) or slow and reflective (such as reading literature and responding in writing)

2. Organization

The learner may work alone at individualized tasks; or in pairs or groups; or as a full class in interaction with the teacher.

3. Mode and skill

Activities may be based on the written or the spoken language; and within these they may vary as to whether the learners are asked to produce (speak, write) or to receive (listen, read).

4. Difficulty

Activities may be seen as easy and non-demanding; or difficult, requiring concentration and effort.

5. Topic

Both the language teaching objective and the (non-linguistic) topic may change from one activity to another.

6. Mood

Activities vary also in mood: light and fun-based versus serious and profound; happy versus sad; tense versus relaxed.

7. Stir-settle

Some activities enliven and excite learners (such as controversial discussions, or activities that involve physical movement); others, like dictations, have the effect of calming them down […].

8. Active-passive

Learners may be activated in a way that encourages their own initiative; or they may only be required to do as they are told.

(Ur 1996: 217)

There are some helpful guidelines for ordering the components of a lesson listed in Ur's book *A Course in Language Teaching*. First of all, the teacher should put harder tasks and initiative work earlier in the lesson, as the students are fresher and can concentrate better at the beginning of a lesson. Secondly, it is helpful to put quieter activities before lively ones, because it can become a challenge to calm down an

exuberant group of children. An exception to this would occur in the case of a lethargic or tired class who need some activation.

The third guideline highlights the importance of transitions between the different activities, which helps to create a smooth lesson. This could be done by simply summarizing what has been done so far. Having the lessons structured with a beginning and an ending helps to pull the class together. This guideline suggests that a greeting and an introduction to the lesson's program at the beginning and a full-class 'rounding off' at the end helps to structure the lesson. Finally, ending a lesson with a positive note leaves the students with a good feeling (Ur 1996: 217-218). Another, more practical hint involves the idea of having a reserve activity ready in case of extra time. This may help to avoid unpleasant silent minutes (Ur 1996: 223).

4. An English Course Designed for Tibetan Women Living in Exile in India

Especially when planning a course for unknown participants, the syllabus must be produced in such a way that it can be varied and adapted easily to the different people who are going to interact in this English course. Therefore, negotiability is of prime importance in the following project. Additionally, the teachers, namely volunteers from around the world, change their working position approximately every two weeks. Thus, there is no steady teaching and learning situation for the students. Therefore, the challenge of this syllabus is to combine many uncertain factors together to form a course which will be accessible to many different people with absolutely different personal backgrounds.

This project should be understood as a draft or a helping hand for new volunteers. As argued above, the importance of a syllabus is especially great in this case, due to the fact that so many different teachers work with the same group. Some kind of 'master plan' should be provided so that the volunteers can work in an effective way. Otherwise they start over and over again with the same topics and methods. This would lead to stagnant repetition rather than to progress in the English class.

4.1. **Teacher's Note**

The following English course is designed for second language learners of English with almost no educational background. While teaching this class, one has to consider the special personal background of those students, as they are most probably total contrary to that what a western volunteer might have experienced so far. Maybe some of the students are not really capable of using a written language, neither English nor Tibetan, even though they are adults. Those students need special consideration, and therefore I have used mainly pictures for introducing new words and topics, especially in the beginning. It is of major importance that the teacher talks and repeats the words and phrases very often. The students mainly learn by listening and then using and reusing the words and phrases. The teacher's task is to provide the students with the language tools they need to do the exercises meaningfully and successfully. This means that the teacher has to ensure that the students know all the words, phrases, and rules before they can use them in the tasks.

In my experience, repetition is the major key factor for success in this situation. This is the reason why I have left the last two lessons of each unit blank. Here the teacher finds space for further revision of certain exercises or the introduction of new words and phrases. Each of the four units consists of ten lesson, whereby the last two lesson are left blank, as mentioned before. The pace of the various lessons is very low. As a teacher one has to ensure that even the weakest student can profit from the English class. I have tried to reuse the same exercise patterns with different topics so that the students feel at home with the nature of the exercise and only have to insert new words and phrases, so for example with the domino game or Bandolero. The use of familiar types of exercises bolsters the students' self-confidence and helps them to absorb vocabulary and situational usage more easily.

One of the main goals of this English course is to be able to communicate with foreigners, which in this case is based on oral communication. For that reason, the course is primarily focused on the spoken language, while reading and writing have a limited and merely supportive function. A further aspect that was taken into consideration in planning this course is the fact that everything takes much longer in India than in the western world. Especially when one is living in India for the first time, it is not easy to get used to this attitude about time. In contrast to the overriding atmosphere of temporal obligations one has in Europe, here there is a laid-back attitude with little or no regard for punctuality or the clock. Of course this attitude impacts the learning situation and everything needs much more time than the European teacher would expect. Time management is always an important factor in teaching, and here it assumes a new dimension. For teachers coming from Europe or North America, the following lesson plans might appear at first glance totally unrealistic, but having been in this particular English teaching situation I know that simply everything takes at least twice the time that I expected it to take.

Basically, the structuring of the different units follows an ordering principle of progressive building. This means that unit one is the foundation for unit two and so on, starting off with the most familiar and easiest contexts, namely one's own personality and body. A further structuring principle superimposed on the primary principle of progressive building is the so-called spiraling or recycling principle, which I have described above. This includes the reuse of familiar content in a new context, for example, in unit two lesson one the teacher uses familiar words, namely colors, when telling the students to color certain pieces of clothing, which at that point are new words.

It is up to each teacher to have a small ritual at the beginning and at the end of each lesson so that the structure of the lesson is clear to the students. Based on my experience, I find it useful to have a quick repetition of the previous lesson at the beginning of the

next lesson. The objective is to awaken in the students a realization of what they have already accomplished, thus setting up a positive atmosphere for new discoveries.

The following list provides a brief overview of the themes discussed in the Tibetan English course:

1) Unit 1:
    - Who am I? / Personal ID
    - Numbers
    - Greetings
    - Small Talk
    - Family Tree
    - Body Parts
2) Unit 2:
    - Clothes
    - Colors
    - Textures, Adjectives and Shapes
    - Production
3) Unit 3:
    - Fruits
    - Vegetables
    - Purchasing
    - Preparing Food
    - Excursus: Telling the Time
4) Unit 4:
    - At the Market / Sales Dialogue
    - Agreeing and Disagreeing
    - Price Tag
    - Money
    - Offer and Advertizing Items

4.2. **Lesson Plan Organization**

As mentioned before, the following lesson plans are part of four major teaching sequences. Basically, each lesson should start with an introduction and a conclusion provided by the teacher. In general the lessons follow the sequencing principle of building, for example from the simpler to the more complex content. Additionally, repetition is a key factor of the following course meaning that words and phrases reoccur often and are used in various contexts. Here the various lessons obey the sequencing principle labeled as recycling or spiraling.

The following lesson plans provide a practical blue print for teaching an English course to semiliterate Tibetan women. Each course module should ideally contain ten lessons. The following tables display only eight lesson plans per course unit in detail, giving space for further revisions if necessary. Additionally, the volunteers can introduced new topics if time allows them to do so. Based on my experiences in India, it is advisable to have a time buffer as everything takes much longer as previously assumed.

Each lesson plan is further subdivided into six dimensions providing an overview of the lesson's progress. The first column topic informs about the content. The method describes the happenings in the classroom which eventually should lead to the aims written next to the methods. The social form provides information about the different participants involved in the exercises. The column organization/materials tells the teacher which handouts or materials are essential or provided for the tasks. In the last column the teacher finds a proposal concerning an estimated time distribution of the lesson.

The following abbreviations will be used in the lesson plans.

Social forms: SW = single work

PW = pair work

GW = group work

GD = group discussion

F = frontal (teacher centered)

Abbreviations: T = teacher

S = student/ students

4.3. **Unit 1**

4.3.1. Description of Unit 1

In the first lessons the teacher mainly works with flashcards and pictures, due to the fact that the students' reading ability is very low. This leads to a focus on oral communication between the teacher and the students. The use of flashcards supports the teacher while introducing new vocabulary without the use of writing. In the first lessons it is of special importance for the teacher to talk as much as possible so that the students can get used to the melody of the English language.

As mentioned in the teacher's note, repetition of vocabulary and structures are vital, because the students can hardly invest further time for studying than the time available in the classroom. Moreover, a large percentage of the lesson-time spent with repetition raises the students' confidence and enables them to feel well grounded in the basic topics and communicative structures. The tasks circulate around the same topic and are sometimes similarly structured. This helps the students to fulfill the exercises easily, so that their success motivates them and learning becomes fun!

The first unit serves as an introduction to the course. Working with the students' identity, body, and family constellations should provide a smooth and personally relevant access to the English language. Using these familiar topics, the teacher can introduce different kinds of dialogue and question structures, numbers and colors, and practice how to learn with each other.

I have prepared some handouts, which can be helpful for the teacher to remember what to teach and which can also be distributed to those students who can already read. One could also hang up some of the simple dialogues in the classroom, so that the students can look at the sentences for revision in their free time.

4.3.2. Lesson Plans for Unit 1

Lesson 1: Introduction

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Introduction "Who am I?	• T introduces him or her self. • S introduce themselves with the help of simple sentences and a world map.	⇧ Introduction of the participants and the teacher ⇧ Getting to know each other ⇧ First contact to the English language	GD	World map; handout 1; flashcards	20'
Interview each other I	• S should interview each other and collect information about the others, based on the questions and sentences learned previously.	⇧ Revision of previously introduced sentences and vocabulary ⇧ To internalize the sentences	PW	World map; handout 1; handout 2	20'
Revision of numbers	• Count together up to 20. • How many things can you see on this picture?	⇧ Revision and practice of numbers	GD	Handout 3	10'
Numbers	• S tell each other numbers, which are written next to dots. Connect the dots and tell me what kind of picture does it produce?	⇧ Being able to tell and understand the numbers	PW	Handout 4	10'

Table 5: Lesson Plan – Unit 1, Lesson 1

Lesson 2: Introduction, Family Tree

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
"Who am I?"	• The T and the S practice the dialogue from the first lesson.	⇨ Revision of the sentences and words introduced in the first lesson	GD	Handout 1	10'
"Fantasy Interview"	• S should think of a fantasy person. • S should interview each other about this person.	⇨ Revision of previously introduced sentences and words ⇨ S should learn to ask questions. ⇨ S should learn to apply already acquired knowledge to a new situation.	PW	Handouts from lesson 1	20'
	• S should report back to class what they have heard from their interview partners.	⇨ Revision of previously introduced sentences and words ⇨ S need to learn to report new information to the class. ⇨ S should learn to apply already acquired knowledge to a new situation.	GD	Handout 5	10'
Introduction to the concept of a family tree	• S should look at the pictures and put them into a hierarchical order. • The T tells the names to the pictures and helps the students. • Then mix the pictures again and the students should do the exercise without the help of the teacher.	⇨ Understanding the concept of a family tree ⇨ Learning vocabulary concerning family relations	GW	Handout 6	20'

Table 6: Lesson Plan – Unit 1, Lesson 2

Lesson 3: Family Tree

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Family Tree	• Look at the pictures of the family members. • S should put them into an order and label them correctly.	⇨ Revision of the vocabulary concerning family members	GW	Handout 5; handout 6	10’
Class survey	• Interview another S concerning his or her identity and family.	⇨ Applying the previously learned words and sentence patterns ⇨ Students should practice talking.	PW	Handout 7; handout 8	15’
	• Tell the others about another S’s family.	⇨ Revision of previously introduced sentences and words ⇨ Applying them to a new situation ⇨ Being able to report back to class	GD	Handout 8	15’
“Who is it?”	• Collect the descriptions, mix them and distribute them again. • “Whose description do you have?”; “Why?”	⇨ Understanding the description of a person ⇨ Arguing why they think this description belongs to a specific student	GD	Handout 8	15’
Family Tree	• Hang up a poster with a family tree. • T should add some words.	⇨ Revision of previously introduced words ⇨ Students can always look at the poster in their free time.	GW	Handout 6	5’

Table 7: Lesson Plan – Unit 1, Lesson 3

Lesson 4: Family Tree, Body Parts

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Family Tree	• T and S go to the family tree poster. • T points at different pictures and students should tell the names.	⇨ Revision of the different family members	GD	Handout 6	10’
Game. Family quartet	• T explains the card game. • S get into groups and try the game.	⇨ Practicing how to ask questions: Do you have the green father? ⇨ Communicate with each other ⇨ Introduction of four colors	GW	Handout 9	30’
Introduction to a new topic: the body	• Show pictures with different body parts. T tells the names while showing the pictures. • S need to repeat the new words.	⇨ Introduction to a new topic and new words	GD	Handout 10	10’
Song	• Sing the song “head and shoulders” together.	⇨ Revision of vocabulary ⇨ Melody helps to internalize new words.	GD	Handout 11	10’

Table 8: Lesson Plan – Unit 1, Lesson 4

Lesson 5: Body Parts

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Song	• Sing the song "head and shoulders" together.	⇨ Revision of vocabulary	GD	Handout 11	5'
Body parts	• T asks S about the names of the different body parts while pointing at different pictures or at his or her own body.	⇨ Revision of sentence structure, vocabulary and numbers ⇨ Introduction of new words	GD	Handout 12	10'
Picture dictation: labeling a body silhouette	• S should color the different parts of a body in a specific color.	⇨ Revision of vocabulary concerning body parts and the colors	SW	Handout 13	15'
Domino: body parts	• S play domino with words and pictures concerning the different body parts.	⇨ Applying the previously learned words and sentence patterns ⇨ Students should practice talking.	GW	Handout 14	30'

Table 9: Lesson Plan – Unit 1, Lesson 5

Lesson 6: Body Parts

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Revision of the different body parts	• Review the names of the different body parts with the help of pictures which are hang up in the class room. • E.g.: Where are the hands?	⇨ Revision of vocabulary	GD	Handout 10, handout 12	10’
Making a monster!	• S should create their own monsters. • T explains the game. Throw the dice for the amount of the different body parts. Afterwards color your monster!	⇨ Apply words, numbers and colors ⇨ Slowly introduce written version of the different body parts. ⇨ Being creative!	GW	Handout 15	20’
	• Tell the others about your monster. • How many feet in which color does your monster have?	⇨ Asking each other about the monster ⇨ Being able to report about the own findings	GD	Handout 15	10’
Game. Family quartet	• T explains the card game. • S get into groups and play the game.	⇨ Remembering some family words ⇨ Understanding the rules of the game	GW	Handout 9	20’

Table 10: Lesson Plan – Unit 1, Lesson 6

Lesson 7: Revision lesson

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Board game: Family members	• T explains the rules of the board game. • S get into groups and play the game.	⇧ Understanding the written sentences ⇧ S need to help each other reading the sentences. ⇧ S need to answer the questions. ⇧ S reviews vocabulary concerning family members.	GW	Handout 16	30’
Bingo: Parts of the body	• T explains the game. • S get into groups and play the game.	⇧ S can easily apply already acquired words. S see how much they have learned so far. ⇧ Revision of body parts	GD	Handout 17	30’

Table 11: Lesson Plan – Unit 1, Lesson 7

Lesson 8: Revision

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Board game: Family members	• T explains the rules of the board game. • S get into groups and play the game.	⇨ Understanding the written sentences (might be read out by the teacher or an advanced student) ⇨ S need to help each other reading the sentences. ⇨ S need to answer the questions. ⇨ S reviews vocabulary concerning family members.	GW	Handout 16	40’
“What is missing?”	• T explains and demonstrates the game: eg. one S puts 10 cards or pictures from the previously lessons in the middle of group of S. Everybody has about 1 minute to look at the cards, then everybody has to close their eyes. The S hides one card. Everybody opens their eyes and the S have to guess which card is missing. The S who gets the answers right is the next person to choose and hide cards.	⇨ S have to understand the rules and correct themselves. ⇨ Revision of previously acquired words	GW	Previously used pictures and cards	20’

Table 12: Lesson Plan – Unit 1, Lesson 8

4.4. **Unit 2**

4.4.1. Description of Unit 2

The unit starts off with a connection to the everyday life of the students, namely, their clothes and the colors of their carpets. Once again, familiar exercises and materials are used, for example, the paper doll and the quartet game which were first introduced unit one. The revision of the previously introduced task structures and words helps the students to apply the newly acquired words in a more accessible way. This should support the students and help them feel confident using the foreign language. Again, repetition of words and phrases is essential to this unit, as discussed in the previous unit description and the teacher's note.

Another aim of this unit is to get the students used to working with some written words. The students learn to follow the teacher's instructions and to help each other with more challenging tasks. The introduction of shapes, textures, and related adjectives should enable the students eventually to advertise their carpets on the market. This particular vocabulary can help them to describe their products and so make them more interesting for potential customers.

4.4.2. Lesson Plans for Unit 2

Lesson 1: Clothes

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Introduction: What do you wear?	• T asks S what they are wearing. • T and S repeat the new words.	⇨ Understanding questions ⇨ Learning new words which are relevant to them ⇨ Labeling a familiar context	GD	Own clothes	10’
	• T shows pictures of clothes and labels them.	⇨ Learning new words ⇨ Labeling a familiar context	F	Handout 1	10’
Picture dictation	• S have to color a person according to the teacher’s instructions.	⇨ Revision of the colors ⇨ Applying newly acquired words	SW	Handout 2	20’
	• What colors does the carpet you are working on have? • Go back to your working place and check it out.	⇨ Establishing a connection between the new words and the S’s working situation	SW	Handout 3	10’
	• Come back to class and report.	⇨ Establishing a connection between the new words and the S’s working situation ⇨ S have to formulate own sentences describing their carpets.	GD		10’

Table 13: Lesson Plan – Unit 2, Lesson 1

Lesson 2: Clothes

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Revision	• T asks S what clothes they are wearing today? • T asks S what the person on handout 2 is wearing.	⇨ Understanding questions and giving the correct answer ⇨ Revision of new words	GD	Own clothes, handout 2	10’
Clothes Quartet	• T repeats the rules of the game. • S get into groups and play the card game.	⇨ Asking questions and giving the correct answer ⇨ Repetition of vocabulary and colors	GW	Handout 4	30’
Paper doll	• T hands out another handout 10 from lesson 1 (body silhouette). • S put appropriate clothes in different colors on this body.	⇨ Applying the newly acquired words to a familiar context ⇨ Being creative!	SW	Handout 10 from lesson 1	10’
	• S ask each other about their paper dolls. What are they wearing? In which color? On which body part?	⇨ Connection of body parts and pieces of clothes ⇨ Revision of words and phrases relating to body parts	PW	Handout 10 from lesson 5 (Unit 1)	10’

Table 14: Lesson Plan – Unit 2, Lesson 2

Lesson 3: Clothes

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Game: "Draw a clown!"	• T explains the rules of the game. • S get into groups and play the game.	⇨ Understanding instructions, the colors, and words concerning the topic clothes. ⇨ S have to monitor each other. S have to check each other if they are playing according to the rules and if they are applying the correct body part and pieces of clothes or body parts.	GW	Handout 5	40'
Matching pictures and words	• T has different cards which show either a piece of clothing or the name of the clothing. • One S chooses a card and the others try to find the matching partner (either the written or the visual version). • T and S hang them up next to each other in the classroom.	⇨ S should slowly get used to some written English words. ⇨ S should learn to match the written and the visual form of various pieces of clothes.	GW	Handout 6	20'

Table 15: Lesson Plan – Unit 2, Lesson 3

Lesson 4: Clothes and Shapes

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Shapes	• T shows S different shapes, which are cut out of colored paper. • T: "This is a square." • T: "This is a red square."	⇨ Introducing new words ⇨ Words and phrases in relation to shapes are useful for describing the S's product, namely the carpet.	F	Handout 7	10'
	• S get into groups. Each group receives a set of cut-outs. • T asks the S to find a particular shape.	⇨ S have to find the correct shape with the correct color out of a bunch of various colored shapes. ⇨ S have to communicate with each other for solving the problem.	SW	Handout 7	20'
	• T tells the students to put certain shapes together to form new shapes or simple pictures.	⇨ Using the different shapes according to the teacher's instruction. ⇨ Slowly introducing prepositions.	SW	Handout 8	20'
Clothes	• Collect the cards from the last lesson and mix them. • S have to find the matching pairs. • T asks S about their findings. • Can you find certain shapes in the different pictures?	⇨ Revision of the last lesson. ⇨ S should learn to match the written and the visual form of various pieces of clothes.	PW	Handout 6	10'

Table 16: Lesson Plan – Unit 2, Lesson 4

Lesson 5: Shapes and Preposition

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Revision of shapes	• T hands out a blank piece of paper. • T introduces the phrases: "on the bottom of the paper; on the top of the page, in the upper/lower right/left corner".	⇨ Introduction of phrases and words concerning the different position on a piece of paper ⇨ Being able to describe positions on a piece of paper, which can be compared to the shape of a carpet	F	A white piece of paper	10'
Picture dictation	• T tells S to "draw a triangle in the upper right corner of the page".	⇨ Following instructions ⇨ Knowing the shapes ⇨ Applying the different position on a page of paper	SW	A white piece of paper	20'
	• S have to tell each other where to draw what kind of shape on a white piece of paper.	⇨ Revision of words and phrases relating to shapes and the different positions on a piece of paper	PW	A white piece of paper	20'
Game: "What is missing"	• T gets 10 cards from teaching materials which were used in the last lessons and lays them on the table. • T tells the S to look at the cards and remember them. • S have to close the eyes and T takes one picture away. • T asks the S what picture is missing.	⇨ Revision of earlier introduced words	GW	Previously used pictures, e.g. body parts or pieces of clothing	20'

Table 17: Lesson Plan – Unit 2, Lesson 5

Lesson 6: Shapes and Textures

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Revision of shapes	• T asks S to look at their carpets: Which shapes can you find? Which colors are used? • T asks S to report back to class.	⇨ Revision of words and phrases related to shapes ⇨ Applying knowledge acquired in class to their work and everyday life	SW and GD	Own carpets	20’
Introducing textures	• T introduces different objects and pictures to the class while for example asking the following questions: • What is the carpet made of`? • What is the table made of? • Etc.	⇨ Introducing the S to the topic of textures while pointing at different objects or pictures ⇨ S get confronted with new phrases and words.	F	Handout 9	20’
Nail board	• T explains the game and supports the S while playing the game. • S work in groups. They have to connect pictures with words with the help of a piece of string on the nail board.	⇨ Introducing a new learning method and exercise ⇨ Matching words to the pictures. ⇨ Introducing the written version of the newly acquired words	GW	Handout 10	20’

Table 18: Lesson Plan – Unit 2, Lesson 6

Lesson 7: Adjectives describing the different Textures

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Textures	• T and S repeat the different textures they have talked about in lesson 6 while looking at the handout 9.	⇨ S should repeat the previously learned textures.	GD	Handout 9	10’
Adjectives	• T introduces adjectives while looking at the pictures with the different textures. • For a better understanding, the teacher can bring different items to class which demonstrate the mentioned adjectives, such as a stone for ‘heavy’.	⇨ S and T should combine the textures with adjectives describing them, e.g. the carpet is soft ⇨ Further possible adjectives: smooth, harsh, coarse. (depending on the S level) ⇨ The adjectives should help the S to advertise their products on the market.	F and GW	Handout 9, own items	20’
	• Divide S into pairs. • T tells the S to put the previously learned adjectives into opposite pairs and find further examples of those adjectives.	⇨ Revision of previously acquired words while putting them into opposite pairs with the help of handout 9	PW	Handout 9 and 11	20’
	• S should report their results back to class.	⇨ Check if the S have understood the meaning of the different adjectives.	GW		10’

Table 19: Lesson Plan – Unit 2, Lesson 7

Lesson 8: Revision of clothes, colors, shapes, textures, and adjectives.

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
	• T should bring different objects or clothes to class, which consist of different materials and have various shapes and textures. • T should say a few words about each item.	⇨ Revision of adjectives, textures, colors, and shapes	F	Own materials	10’
	• S get into pairs and each group receives one item. They have to think about words which describe this object.	⇨ S learn that the previously introduced words can be applied to different objects.	PW		15’
	• S have to report to class what they have found out about their item.	⇨ S have to able to talk about their findings. S have to formulate own sentences.	GD		20’
Clothes quartet	• T ensures that the S remember the rules. • S get into groups and play the game.	⇨ revision of the words and phrases related to clothes and the game quartet	PW	Handout 4	15’

Table 20: Lesson Plan – Unit 2, Lesson 8

4.5. **Unit 3**

4.5.1. Description of Unit 3

The introduction to this topic is designed to provide easy access with the help of pictures, especially for those students who have problems with reading. In this unit I have tried once again to reuse familiar exercise patterns, such as domino games and the Bandolero. I have also added some fun and easy games, such as the fruit salad game, to motivate and enliven the students.

I have decided to add the topic "fruits and vegetables" to this syllabus, because the students are very familiar with those items. The words related to this topic provide the foundation for establishing a market situation in unit 4. The students can use these words for practicing sales situations and related dialogues. They are, of course, already familiar with the situations found at the market while selling or buying vegetables. This should help the students to increase their self-confidence in using English and also provide them with a valuable practical skill: they can stand at the market and sell their items to foreigners.

Being able to tell the time is the foundation for making arrangements about when to meet. In the case of trying to sell their own items to foreigners, the women have to be able to communicate meeting times. Here the teacher should most probably highlight the cultural difference concerning feeling for time.

While being involved in the process of teaching, the teacher should not forget to elicit feedback from the students. Therefore, I have reserved a fifteen minute slot to remind the teacher that the students' feedback is essential for a successful course.

4.5.2. Lesson Plans for Unit 3

Lesson 1: Fruits and Vegetables

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Introduction to fruits	• T introduces S to the new topic by showing different pictures of fruits and calling out their names.	➪ Introducing the students to the new topic and to new words	F	Handout 1	10’
	• Each S picks one picture out of the pile of cards and says if he/she likes or does not like the fruit.	➪ Building familiar sentence structures with new words	SW	Handout 1	15’
	• T and S hang up the cards in the classroom.	➪ Cards should serve as reference.	GW	Handout 1	5’
Introduction to vegetables	• T hands out other cards which show fruits and vegetables and gives the appropriate names.	➪ Introduce vegetables and more fruits ➪ Review some fruits.	F	Handout 2	10’
	• T hides some of the cards in the classroom while the S close their eyes. • S have to find the cards and tell the T where what kind of fruit or vegetable is.	➪ Revision of previously learned words and phrases concerning fruits and vegetables and place description	GW	Handout 2	20’

Table 21: Lesson Plan – Unit 3, Lesson 1

Lesson 2: Fruits and Vegetables

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
	• T and S repeat with the help of flashcards from the last lesson the words related to fruits and vegetables.	⇨ Revision of the new topic and new words.	GD	Handout 1 and 2	10’
Matching pictures to words	• T and S look at the different words and pictures and try to find pairs.	⇨ Slowly introducing the written form of some fruits and vegetables	GW	Handout 3	15’
Game “Domino”	• T explains the game. • S get into groups and each group of S gets a set of domino cards.	⇨ Understanding the rules of the game.	GW	Handout 4	5’
	• S play the game domino.	⇨ Revision of words relating to fruits and vegetables. ⇨ Revision of the game structure. ⇨ Interacting with others using the English language.	GW	Handout 4	30’

Table 22: Lesson Plan – Unit 3, Lesson 2

Lesson 3: Fruits and Vegetables

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
	• Matching words and pictures with the help of the Bandolero nail board.	⇨ Revision of the words related to fruits and vegetables	PW	Handout 5	15’
Game “fruit salad”	• T explains the game to the students. • S play the game.	⇨ Using the newly acquired words concerning fruits ⇨ Understanding the instructions	GW	Handout 6	30’
Game “vegetable stew”	• This game can be played following the same rules as in the game “fruit salad”.	⇨ Using the newly acquired words concerning vegetables ⇨ Becoming familiar with this game	GW	Handout 6	15’

Table 23: Lesson Plan – Unit 3, Lesson 3

Lesson 4: Fruits and Vegetables

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
10 questions	• T explains the exercise: S has to think of a fruit or a vegetable and the others ask up to ten yes or no questions about the item. The S who guesses right has the next turn. • S have to get into groups.	⇨ Revision of question structure and words relating to fruits and vegetables etc.	GW	Handout 7	20’
Memory	• T explains the game. • S try to find pairs matching pictures with words.	⇨ Revision of some written versions and being able to connect them with the adequate pictures	GW	Handout 8	20’
Picture dictation	• T tells the S where to draw what and in which color.	⇨ S should be able to apply and understand the T’s instruction.	SW	Handout 9	20’

Table 24: Lesson Plan – Unit 3, Lesson 4

Lesson 5: Fruits and Vegetables

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
How to make a fruit salad?	• T explains the game. • S have to find pairs of the written and visual form and then put the pairs into a chronological order.	⇧ S should use the words and phrases in an everyday situation. ⇧ Challenge of reading and applying short phrases	GW	Handout 10	30’
Triminoe	• S have to form a triangle while matching pictures to words.	⇧ To strengthen the words related to fruits and vegetables	GW	Handout 11	15’
Feedback	• T and S talk about what they have learned so far and what they find useful.	⇧ T tries to elicit feedback to see where T has to adapt.	GD		15’

Table 25: Lesson Plan – Unit 3, Lesson 5

Lesson 6: Telling the Time

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Telling the time	• T introduces the S to the new topic. • T brings a clock to class and talks with the S about time and what the clock can show us.	⇨ Introducing the S to a new topic and new words and phrases	F	Own clock	10’
	• T shows the handout with more pictures of different clocks and watches and so introduces words and phrases relating to the topic.	⇨ S should become familiar with the English words related to this topic for being able to arrange meetings with their customers. ⇨ It is also a helpful aid for S who can already read a little.	GD	Handout 12	10’
	• S receives a sheet with watches where the arrows are missing. S can insert own arrows. S ask each other about the time.	⇨ Using the previously introduced words and phrases ⇨ S have to be able to formulate questions about the time.	GW	Handout 13	20’
	• T hands out another sheet with blank watches. T tells the S to insert minute and hour hands.	⇨ S have to understand the T’s instruction and so S review words relating to the topic.	SW	Handout 13	20’

Table 26: Lesson Plan – Unit 3, Lesson 6

Lesson 7: Telling the Time

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Revision of "telling the time."	• T repeats with the help of the handouts 7 and 8 the words and phrases related to "telling the time".	⇧ Revision of the new topic and to new words	F		10'
Peg clocks	• T explains the game. • T gets S into groups. • T hands out different peg clocks.	⇧ Introduction of a new game	GW	Handout 14	10'
	• S play the game together.	⇧ Applying instruction and words relating to the topic ⇧ Learning a new game	GW	Handout 14	15'
Domino	• T reviews the rules of the game. • There are two different sets of domino. The groups can switch cards after they have finished the first round.	⇧ Revision of words relating to telling the time ⇧ Revision of the game structure. ⇧ Interacting with others using the English language	GW	Handout 15	25'

Table 27: Lesson Plan – Unit 3, Lesson 7

Lesson 8: Revision

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Bingo: Telling the time	• T reviews the rules of Bingo. • The group plays the game.	⇨ Revision of the game and its rules ⇨ S have to understand the words and phrases.	GW	Handout 16	20’
Domino: “Fruits and vegetables”	• T shortly reviews the rules. • S play the game together. The stronger S should support the weaker S.	⇨ Revision of the game and its rules ⇨ S have to be able to read the words and match them to the pictures.	GW	Handout 15	20’
Game: “Fruit salad” or “Vegetable stew”	• T shortly reviews the rules. • The group plays the game.	⇨ Revision of the game and its rules ⇨ S have to understand the words and phrases. ⇨ Fun game which supports learning and reviewing words	GW	Handout 6	20’

Table 28: Lesson Plan – Unit 3, Lesson 8

4.6. **Unit 4**

4.6.1. Description of Unit 4

The last unit starts with a brainstorming session. Here the teacher and the students can collect ideas and new words together. Additionally, the students realize how many different locations they can use for selling different items and what the possible advantages and disadvantages are. The teacher presents the students with a dialogue which can take place in a sales situation. The students should then immediately apply those phrases and learn how to use them appropriately. The following exercises are designed to review and deepen the phrases and sentences. For example, the students have to think of ways to sell or advertise different objects and so practice sales dialogues. The use of play money can help the students to act out sales situations in more detail which are drawn from real life. An additional benefit of using play money is that it provides a natural revision of numbers in the context of practical arithmetic.

All in all, this unit is mainly based on role-plays supported by the use of different items, such as play money, posters, and different objects that could be sold. These activities should enable the students to become familiar with sales situations in which they have to converse with foreigners in English. Practicing such situations over and over again and from different points of view, should encourage the students to overcome potential fears of being confronted with foreign customers. As this is the main goal of the course, it makes great sense to give it adequate time and focus. To enhance and solidify this situational language competence, different parts of the previous lessons and handouts can be reused, such as the personal ID, carpet description, shapes and colors, etc.

In the final lesson, a board game is introduced which pulls together all the previously learned topics. In this game, the students assume a teacher-like role when they check on the accuracy of their colleagues' answers. All of the students become involved in remembering the content of the previous lessons, and the game effectively sums up what the students have acquired in the last two months, leaving them with a positive sense of accomplishment, both individually and as a group.

4.6.2. Lesson Plans for Unit 4

Lesson 1: At the Market

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Introduction to a new topic	• Starting a discussion about where one can buy different things, and why those places are good locations for selling things.	⇨ Brainstorming possibilities where the S can buy and sell things	GD	Own notes	15’
	• T introduces S to different phrases that can be used at the market. T might have to act out some of the phrases, as the meaning might be difficult for the S to grasp.	⇨ S should be introduced to phrases which can be used in a sales conversation.	F	Handout 1	15’
	• T hands out pictures with different pieces of clothing. Each S receives one card.	⇨ S need items to ask for, while practicing the newly introduced questions and phrases.	F	Handout 2 from unit 2	5’
Sales dialogue	• S should ask each other simple questions using the newly introduced phrases. • S have to find at least five different pieces of clothing (= 5 S).	⇨ Applying the newly acquired words and phrases	PW	Handout 1	25’

Table 29: Lesson Plan – Unit 4, Lesson 1

Lesson 2: At the Market

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Revision of a sales dialogue	• T and S review the dialogue.	⇧ Revision of the dialogue which was introduced in lesson 1	GD	Handout 1	15’
Game: “Hot seat”	• One S sits in the middle of the class and chooses one word. • Other S ask questions about this word.	⇧ Formulating answers and questions ⇧ Being able to come up with words and phrases which are related in an abstract way to the topic	GW	Handout 2	30’
Advertising objects	• T brings different objects to class. The group thinks of reasons to advertise those objects.	⇧ Brainstorming for words describing the item, which might also be helpful for selling it.	GD	Handout 1	15’

Table 30: Lesson Plan – Unit 4, Lesson 2

Lesson 3: At the Market

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
	• T brings the same objects to class and shortly reviews some words and phrases which can be used for selling them.	⇨ Revision of words describing the items	GD	Different objects	15’
Play Money	• T hands out play money and so reviews the numbers.	⇨ Revision of numbers	F	Handout 3	15’
Sales Dialogue	• S get into pairs. One S is the customer and one the salesperson. Each pair receives one object. With the help of play money and the previously introduces dialogues, the S can do a sales role-play.	⇨ Revision of the sales dialogue ⇨ Using play money to go shopping	PW	Handout 1; handout 3	30’

Table 31: Lesson Plan – Unit 4, Lesson 3

Lesson 4: At the Market – A Role Play

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
	• T tells the S to get into groups of four. • Each group should prepare a poster like the one the teacher has prepared.	⇨ Preparation for the following game ⇨ S have to decide on four fruits.	GW	Handout 4; own posters	10’
	• The T explains the game.	⇨ Understanding the process of the following role-play	F		15’
Going shopping	• Each group chooses two S to go to the other groups to check out the prices of the different stalls. • Two S stay with their poster and report to other S.	⇨ S have to go around and ask different questions about the fruits for sale. ⇨ S have to remember the prices. ⇨ S have to provide information about the prices of their own stall.	PW	Own posters	15’
	• The group has to decide what they will buy with their budget.	⇨ The group has to decide where to spend their money and what they will get for it.	GW		10’
	• The group has to report to the class what they will buy where.	⇨ The groups have to cross-check if the prices are correct. They can compare which group could buy the most.	GD		10’

Table 32: Lesson Plan – Unit 4, Lesson 4

Lesson 5: Presenting Oneself, Price-Tags

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Scrambled dialogue	• S have to put the pictures into the correct order.	⇨ Revision of the process of a sales dialogue	PW	Handout 5	15’
“Who am I?”	• S get into pairs and interview each other about their personality and their origin etc.	⇨ Revision of unit 1 ⇨ Presenting themselves to foreigners and being able to talk about oneself	PW	Handouts from unit 1	15’
	• T talks about how to approach and talk to foreigners and customers.	⇨ How to approach foreigners: Maybe talking about different cultures and ways of talking? Body language? Sources of misunderstanding?	F		15’
Price Tags	• T and S talk about the pros and cons of price tags. • S can produce their own price tags.	⇨ Becoming aware of the pros and cons of having a price tag: A fixed price or do I want to bargain about the price?	GW	T can bring different price labels to class	15’

Table 33: Lesson Plan – Unit 4, Lesson 5

Lesson 6: Carpet Description, Sales Dialogue

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Carpet Description	• T and S review how a carpet can be described using, for example, handouts from unit 3.	⇧ Presenting one's own product in the best light ⇧ Reviewing the appropriate words and phrases for doing so	GD	Handout 3 from unit 3	20'
	• T reads the dialogue to the S. • T and S talk about possible sales dialogues for selling carpets.	⇧ S should understand the dialogue. ⇧ S should come up with own ideas.	F	Handout 6	20'
Role-Play	• S get into pairs and practice the dialogue.	⇧ Applying the previously discussed role play and carpet description ⇧ Practicing such a sales dialogue should help the S to become familiar with a sales situation. ⇧ Potential fears of dealing with foreigners who speak a foreign language should be dispersed.	PW	Handout 6	20'

Table 34: Lesson Plan – Unit 4, Lesson 6

Lesson 7: Sale Situation and Dialogue

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Revision of sales dialogue	• T and S review a possible sales dialogue! • T and S think of ways to vary the dialogue.	⇨ Revision of sentences and phrases that can be used in a sales conversation	GD	Handout 6	10’
	• S get into pairs • Each one has to play the salesperson once and the customer once.	⇨ S practice the sales dialogue. ⇨ S should use the different words and phrases they have acquired in the last units for presenting themselves and their products.	PW	Handout 6	25’
	• S get into new pairs and try out different kinds of dialogues. • Once again, everybody has to take turns at playing the roles of both salesperson and customer.	⇨ S practice the sales dialogue. ⇨ S should use the different words and phrases they have acquired in the last units for presenting themselves and their products. ⇨ S should be able to vary the dialogues.	PW	Handout 6	25’

Table 35: Lesson Plan – Unit 4, Lesson 7

Lesson 8: Revision – Board Game

Topic:	Method:	Aims:	Social forms:	Organization / Material:	Time:
Board Game	• T explains the game.	⇨ S understand the rules of the game	F	Handout 7	10’
	• S get into groups and play the game. • S have to remember different words and phrases from the last four units.	⇨ They have to decide among themselves if the given answers are correct. ⇨ T should only supervise the game. ⇨ S review the last four units by correctly answering the questions.	GW	Handout 7	50’

Table 36: Lesson Plan – Unit 4, Lesson 8

4.7. **Teaching Materials and Handouts**

4.7.1. Unit 1: "Who am I?"

<u>Handout 1:</u>

Who am I?

Additionally to the following handout, prepare world map to locate the different origins.

For the students who can read prepare the following handouts.

My name is Fiona.

Your name is_____?

My name is Lhamo.

What is your name?

My name is _____.

"Where do you come from?"

I am from Austria.

You are from _____?

I am from Tibet.

I am not married.

Are you married?

I am ____ married.

I am a woman.

I am a man.

I have no children.

Do you have children?

I have _____ children.

Flashcards:

Figure 2: To Be Married

Figure 3: Tibetan Woman

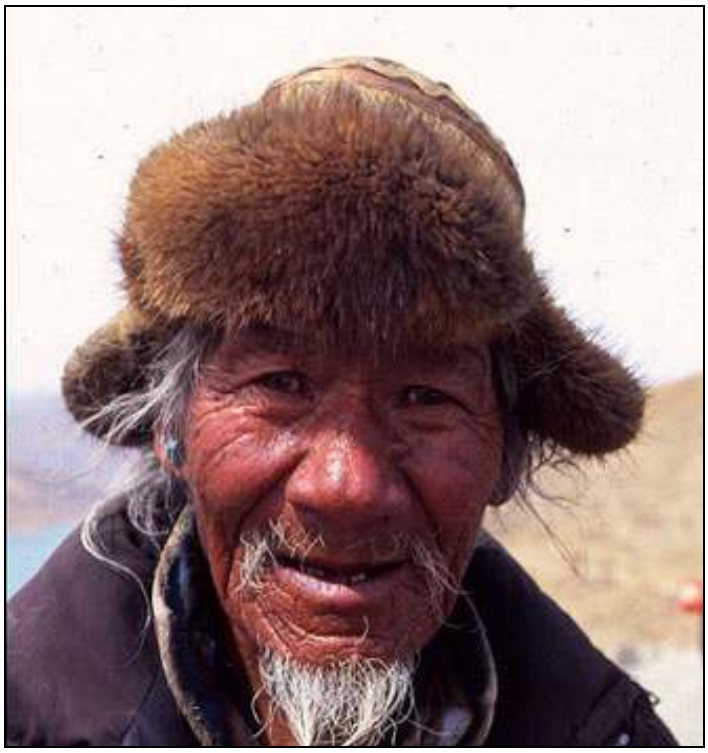


Figure 4: Tibetan Man

Figure 5: Tibetan Children

Handout 2:

Interview:

Every student has a colored pencil. He or she has to find five interview partners using handout 1. Everybody has to collect five different kinds of colors for the five petals of his or her flower.

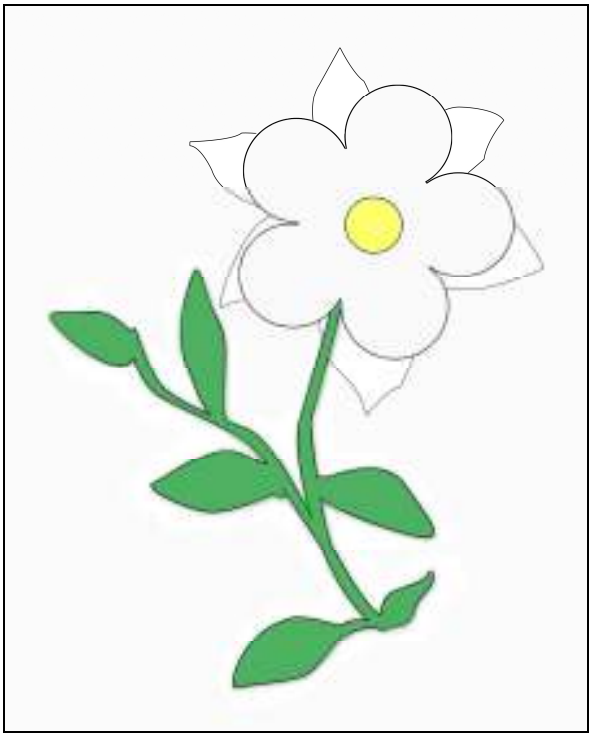


Figure 6: Flower

Handout 3:

Numbers from 1 to 20, for example:

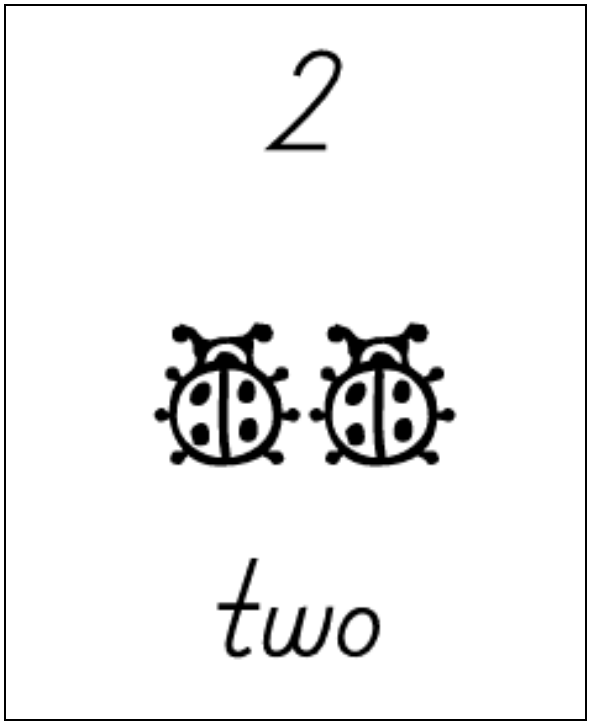


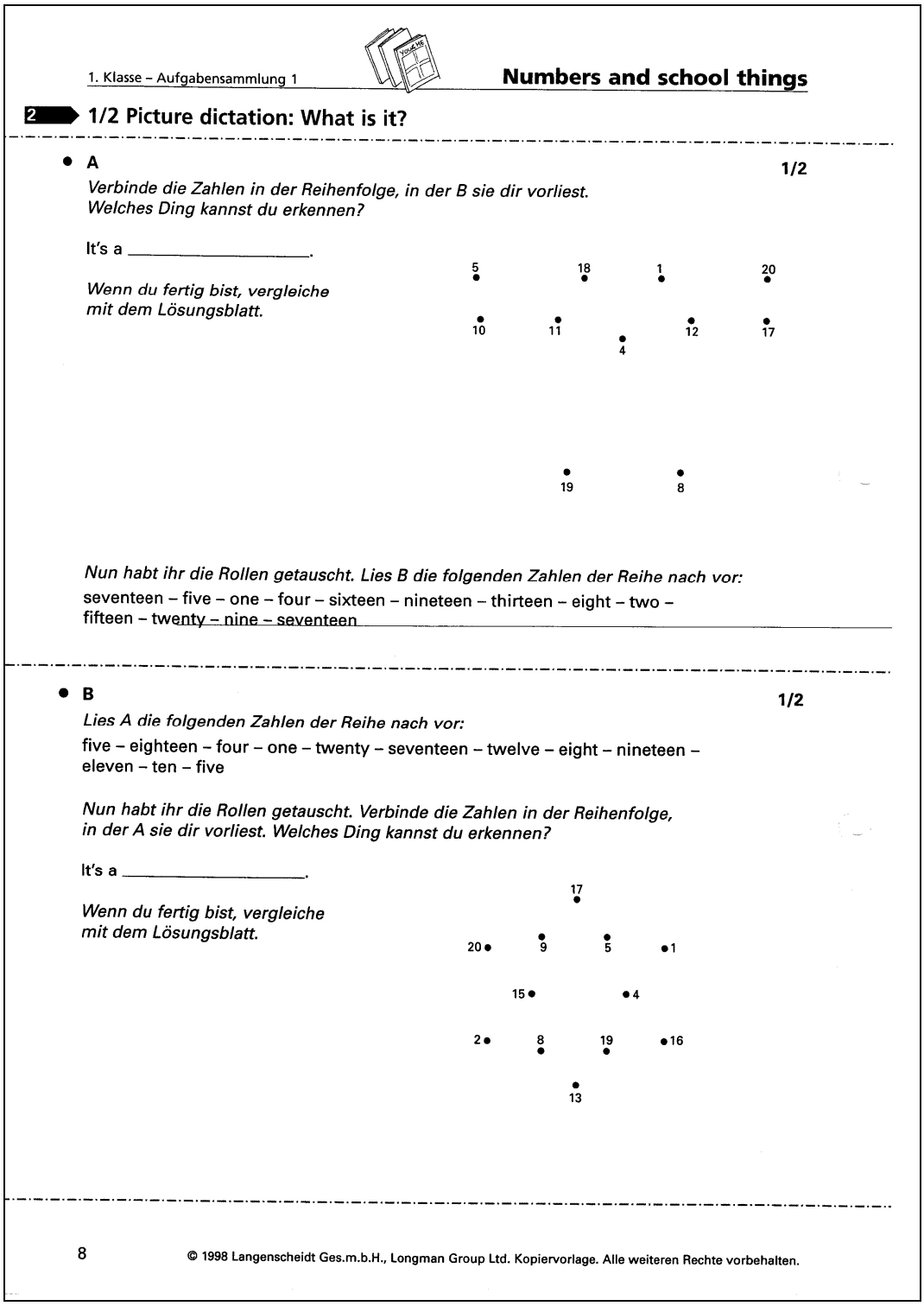
Figure 7: Number Two[19]

[19] Further number cards can be taken from the following homepage: http://www.abcteach.com.

Handout 4:

Connect the dots:

Read the numbers to your neighbor who should then connect the dots belonging to those numbers. What picture do you see?



1. Klasse – Aufgabensammlung 1

Numbers and school things

2 1/2 Picture dictation: What is it?

A 1/2

Verbinde die Zahlen in der Reihenfolge, in der B sie dir vorliest.
Welches Ding kannst du erkennen?

It's a _____.

Wenn du fertig bist, vergleiche mit dem Lösungsblatt.

5 18 1 20
10 11 4 12 17
19 8

Nun habt ihr die Rollen getauscht. Lies B die folgenden Zahlen der Reihe nach vor:
seventeen – five – one – four – sixteen – nineteen – thirteen – eight – two – fifteen – twenty – nine – seventeen

B 1/2

Lies A die folgenden Zahlen der Reihe nach vor:
five – eighteen – four – one – twenty – seventeen – twelve – eight – nineteen – eleven – ten – five

Nun habt ihr die Rollen getauscht. Verbinde die Zahlen in der Reihenfolge, in der A sie dir vorliest. Welches Ding kannst du erkennen?

It's a _____.

Wenn du fertig bist, vergleiche mit dem Lösungsblatt.

17
20 9 5 1
15 4
2 8 19 16
13

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Figure 8: Connect the Dots

Handout 5:

Reporting about your interview partner:

Her/ His name is _____.

She/ He is from _____.

She/ He is ____ married.

She/ He has _____ children.

Handout 6:

Pictures of a family tree.

Cut them out and put them into a hierarchical order

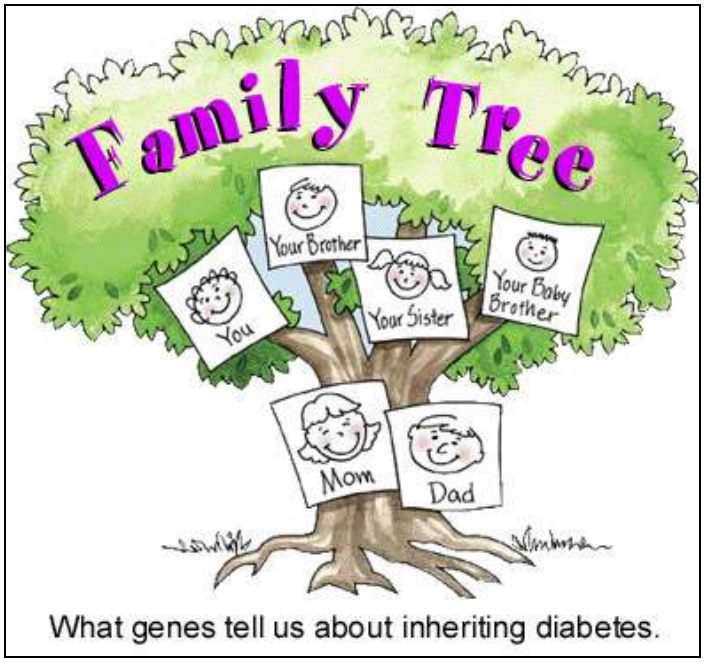


Figure 9: Family Tree

Handout 7:

Asking each other questions:

Ask your neighbor about his or her family.

Do you have a mother? Yes, I have.

No, I do not have.

Do you have a _____? Yes, I have.

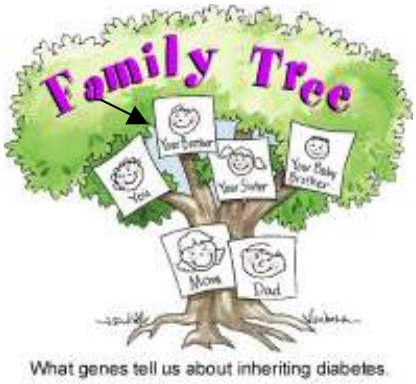
No, I do not have.

Handout 8:

Class Survey

	Name:	
	Where do you come from?	

(Please note: Figure continues on next page.)

	Are you married?	
	Do you have children?	
	Do you have a sister?	
	Do you have a brother?	

(Please note: Figure continues on next page.)

	Do you have a mother in India?	
	Do you have a father in India?	

Figure 10: Class Survey

<u>Handout 9:</u>

Do you have the blue mother? Yes, I have.

No, I do not have.

Game: "Family quartet"

8 families: yellow, black, brown, green, blue, red, orange, pink

each family consists of four members: father, mother, brother, sister

S get into groups of four. Each player gets eight cards. The goal of the game is to have as many complete family sets of the same color as possible. The S ask each other for specific cards.

Using the following phrases:

- Do you have the blue mother?
- Here you are.
- I am sorry, I do not have the blue mother.
- It is Lhamo's turn.
- I have four families.
- I am the winner.

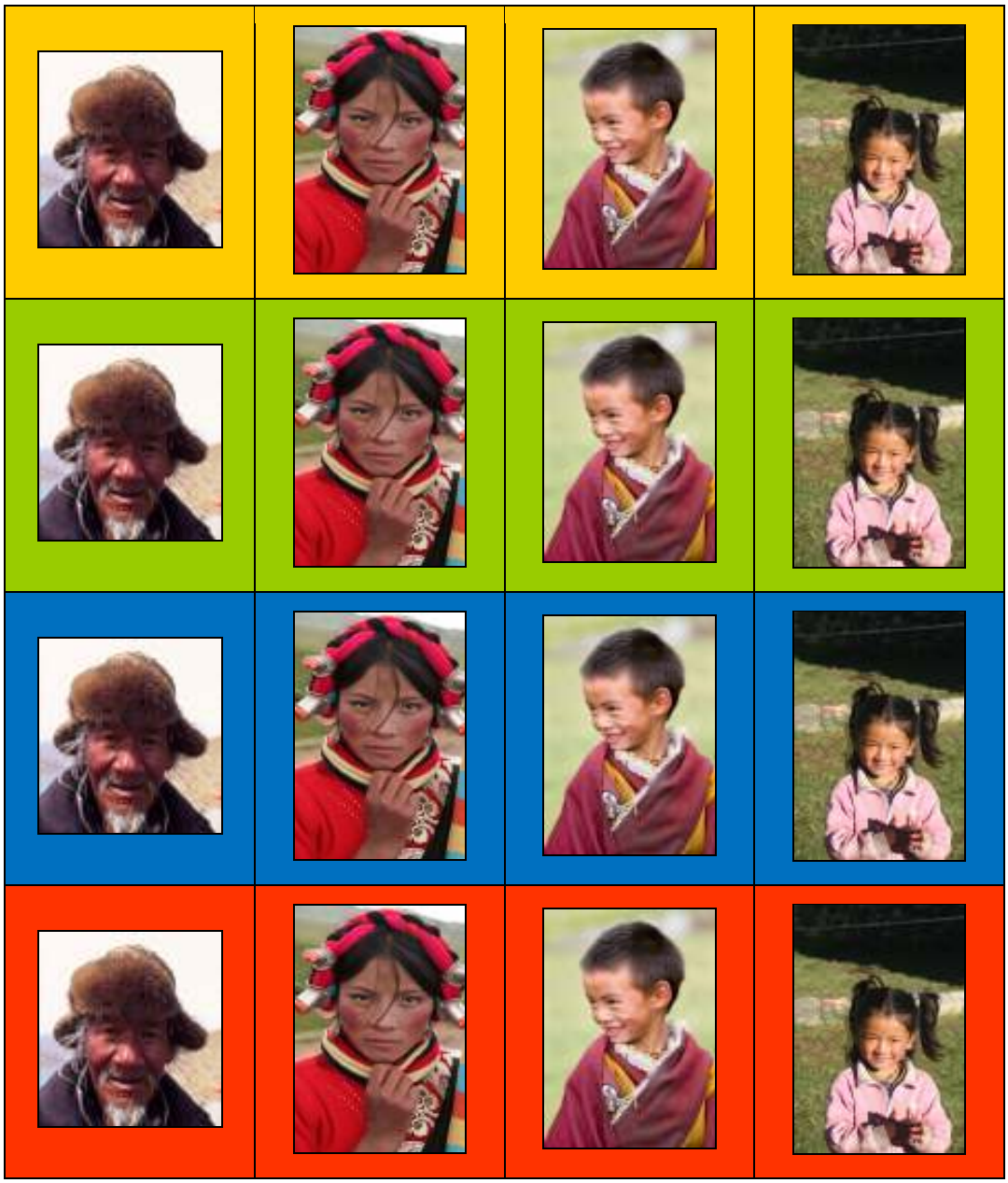


Figure 11: Family Quartet

Handout 10:

Pictures of different body parts:

head, shoulder, knee, toes, eyes, ears, mouth, nose

Figure 12: Body Parts I

Handout 11:

Song:

Head and Shoulders, Knees and Toes

Lyrics to the tune of "London Bridge"

Head and shoulders, knees and toes,

Knees and toes,

Knees and toes,

Head and shoulders, knees and toes,

It's my body!

Eyes and ears and mouth and nose,

Mouth and nose,

Mouth and nose,

Eyes and ears and mouth and nose,

It's my body!

Ankles, elbows, feet and seat,

Feet and seat,

Feet and seat,

Ankles, elbows, feet and seat,

It's my body!

Source: http://www.esl4kids.net/songs/head.html (2010-05-23).

Handout 12:

Pictures of different body parts:

arm, leg, hand, finger, foot, hair, chin, neck, ankle

Figure 13: Body Parts II

Handout 13:

Picture of a body silhouette

Exercise: Color the hands blue! etc.

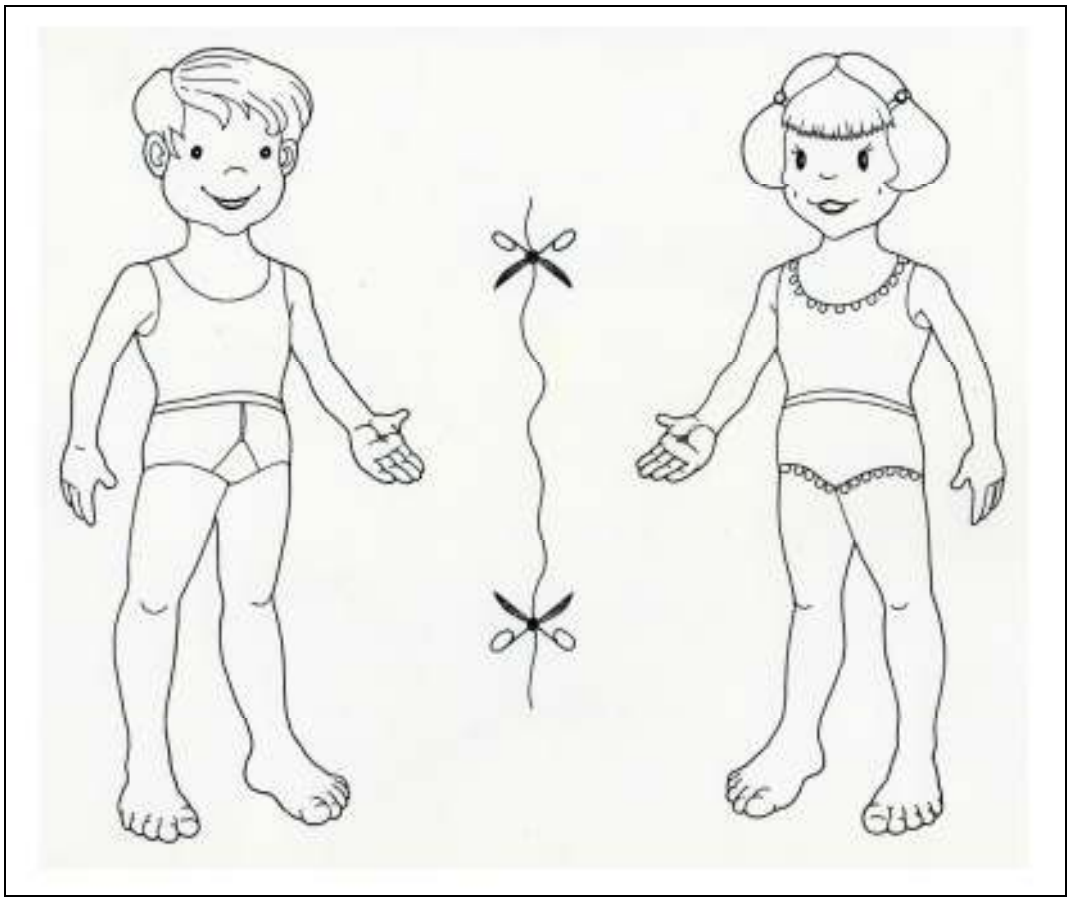


Figure 14: Body Silhouette

Handout 14:

Domino: body parts:

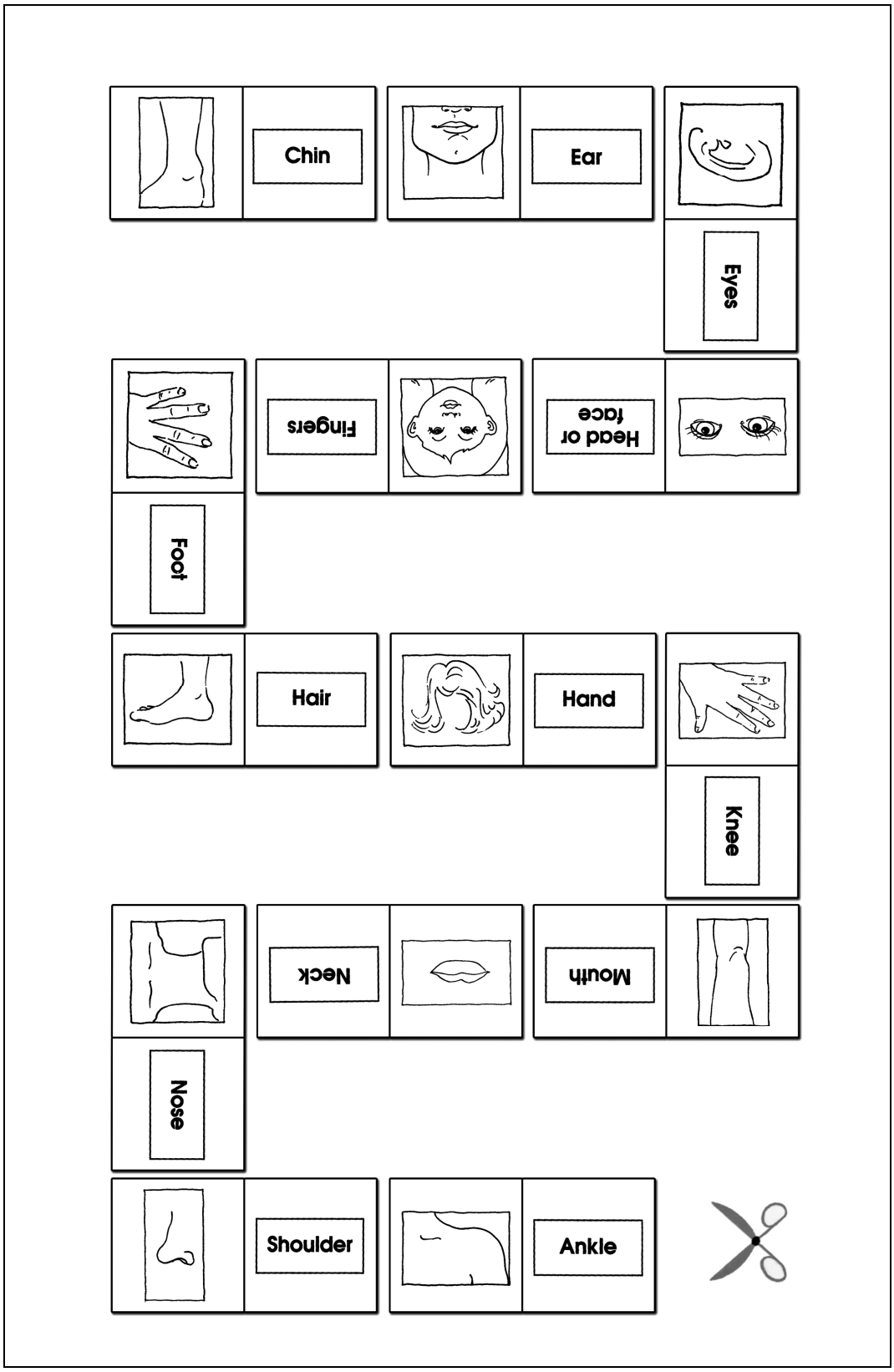


Figure 15: Domino: Body Parts

Handout 15:

Making you own monster:

Throw the dice for the correct amount of the following body parts. Afterwards color the body parts of your monster in different colors.

___ head	___ eye	___ hand	___ leg
___ ear	___ mouth	___ finger	___ foot
___ nose	___ arms	___ thumb	___ toe

Tell the others about your monster:

My monster has three hands!

It has four feet!

Handout 16:

Board Game: Family Members

Ask and answers questions while trying to reach the goal. The first one who enters the Goal field is the winner. To play the game the students need pieces to play with and a dice.

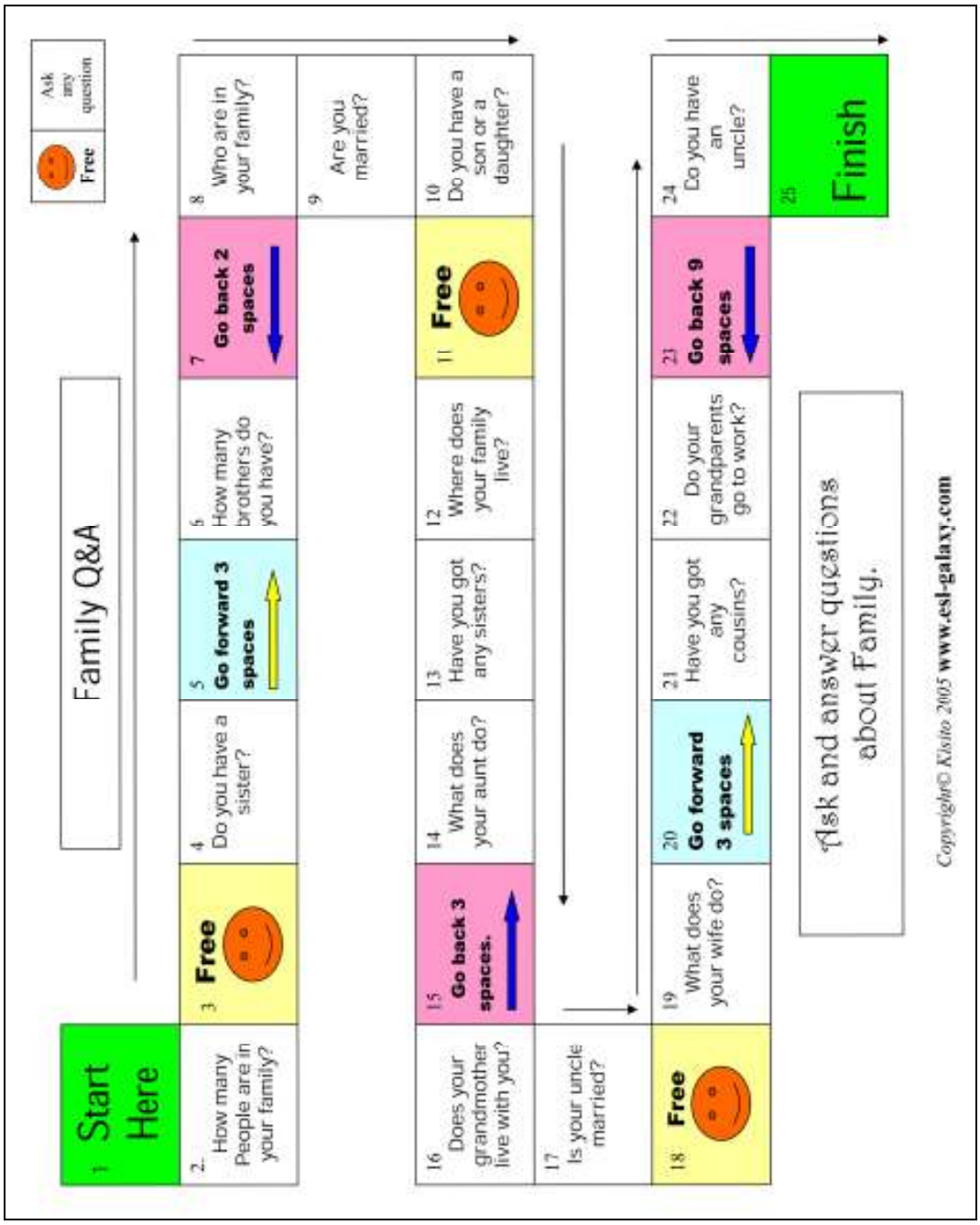
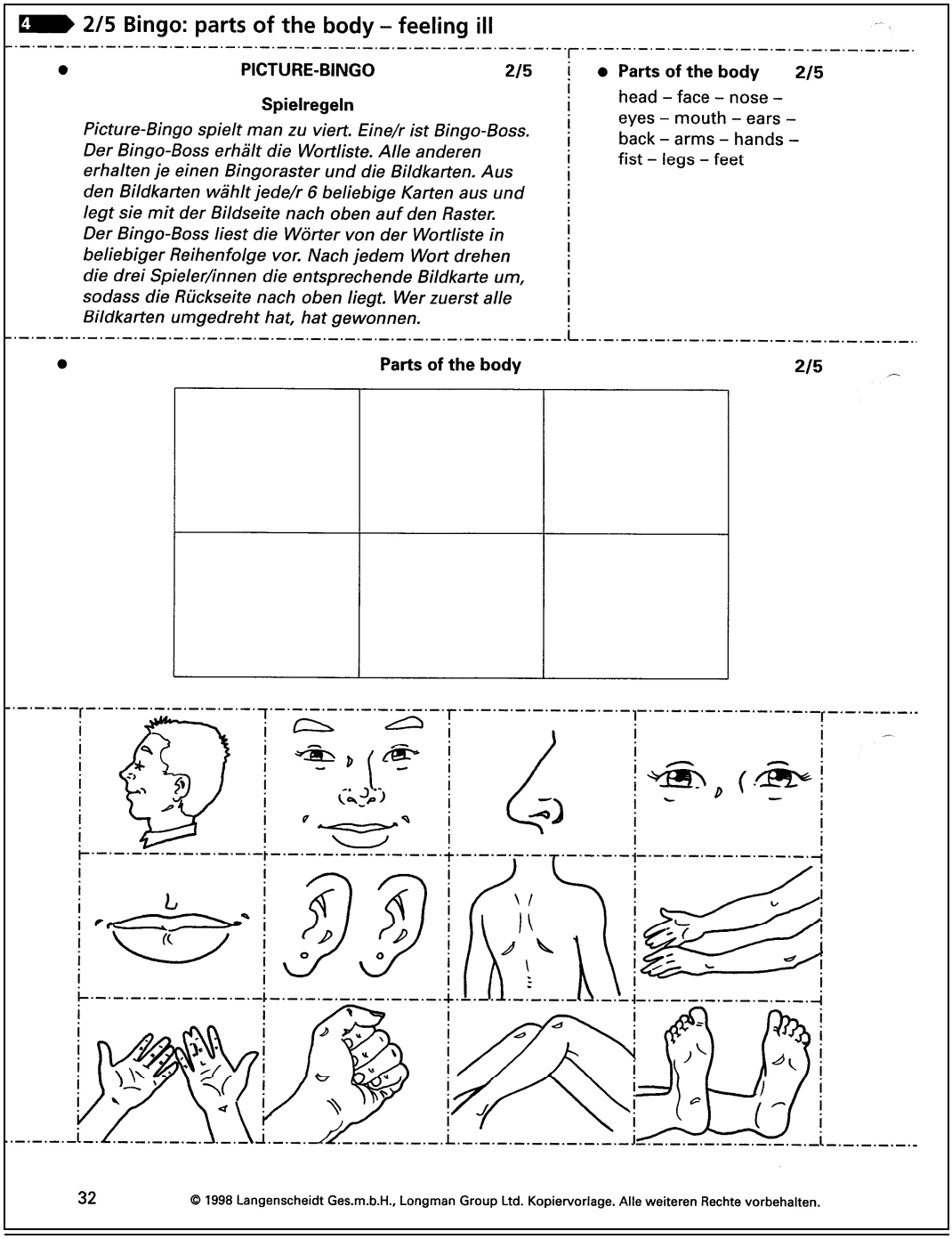


Figure 16: Board Game: Family Members

Handout 17:

Bingo: Parts of the body

Four students can play this game together. One is the Bingo Boss who receives the list of words. Each student has one set of pictures and the Bingo-grid. Each student has to choose six pictures and lays them face-up on the grid. The Bingo Boss reads out different words from the list. The pictures, which are mentioned by the boss, have to be turned around. The student who first has no cards facing up wins the game.



4 2/5 Bingo: parts of the body – feeling ill

PICTURE-BINGO 2/5

Spielregeln

Picture-Bingo spielt man zu viert. Eine/r ist Bingo-Boss. Der Bingo-Boss erhält die Wortliste. Alle anderen erhalten je einen Bingoraster und die Bildkarten. Aus den Bildkarten wählt jede/r 6 beliebige Karten aus und legt sie mit der Bildseite nach oben auf den Raster. Der Bingo-Boss liest die Wörter von der Wortliste in beliebiger Reihenfolge vor. Nach jedem Wort drehen die drei Spieler/innen die entsprechende Bildkarte um, sodass die Rückseite nach oben liegt. Wer zuerst alle Bildkarten umgedreht hat, hat gewonnen.

Parts of the body 2/5

head – face – nose – eyes – mouth – ears – back – arms – hands – fist – legs – feet

Parts of the body 2/5

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Figure 17: Parts of the Body

4.7.2. Unit 2: "What do I wear?"

Handout 1:

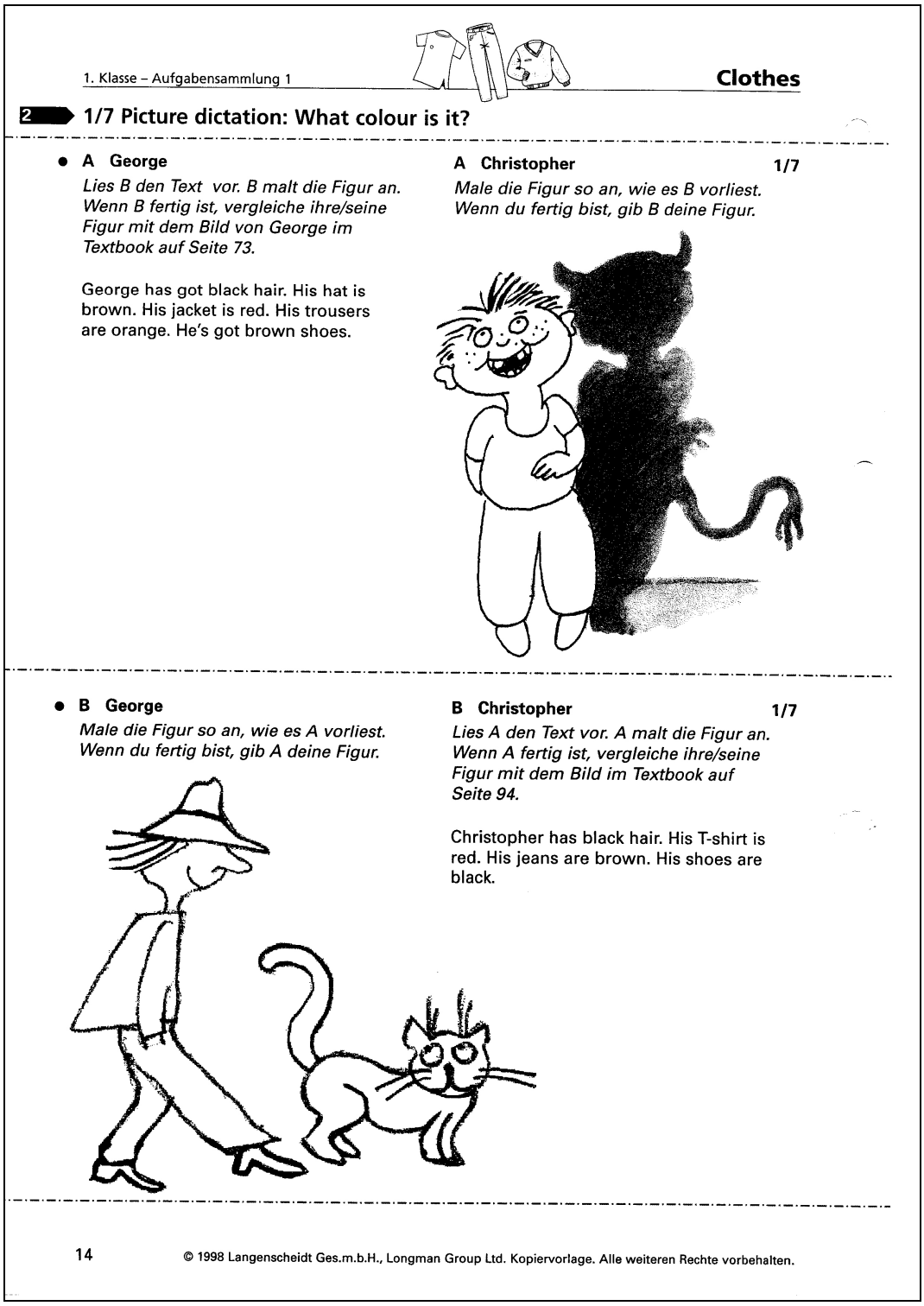
Pictures of different kinds of clothes

Figure 18: Pictures of Different Clothes

Handout 2:

Picture Dictation:

The teacher reads the text to the class and the students have to color the person.



1. Klasse – Aufgabensammlung 1 **Clothes**

2 1/7 Picture dictation: What colour is it?

● **A George**

Lies B den Text vor. B malt die Figur an. Wenn B fertig ist, vergleiche ihre/seine Figur mit dem Bild von George im Textbook auf Seite 73.

George has got black hair. His hat is brown. His jacket is red. His trousers are orange. He's got brown shoes.

A Christopher **1/7**

Male die Figur so an, wie es B vorliest. Wenn du fertig bist, gib B deine Figur.

● **B George**

Male die Figur so an, wie es A vorliest. Wenn du fertig bist, gib A deine Figur.

B Christopher **1/7**

Lies A den Text vor. A malt die Figur an. Wenn A fertig ist, vergleiche ihre/seine Figur mit dem Bild im Textbook auf Seite 94.

Christopher has black hair. His T-shirt is red. His jeans are brown. His shoes are black.

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Figure 19: Picture Dictation

Handout 3:

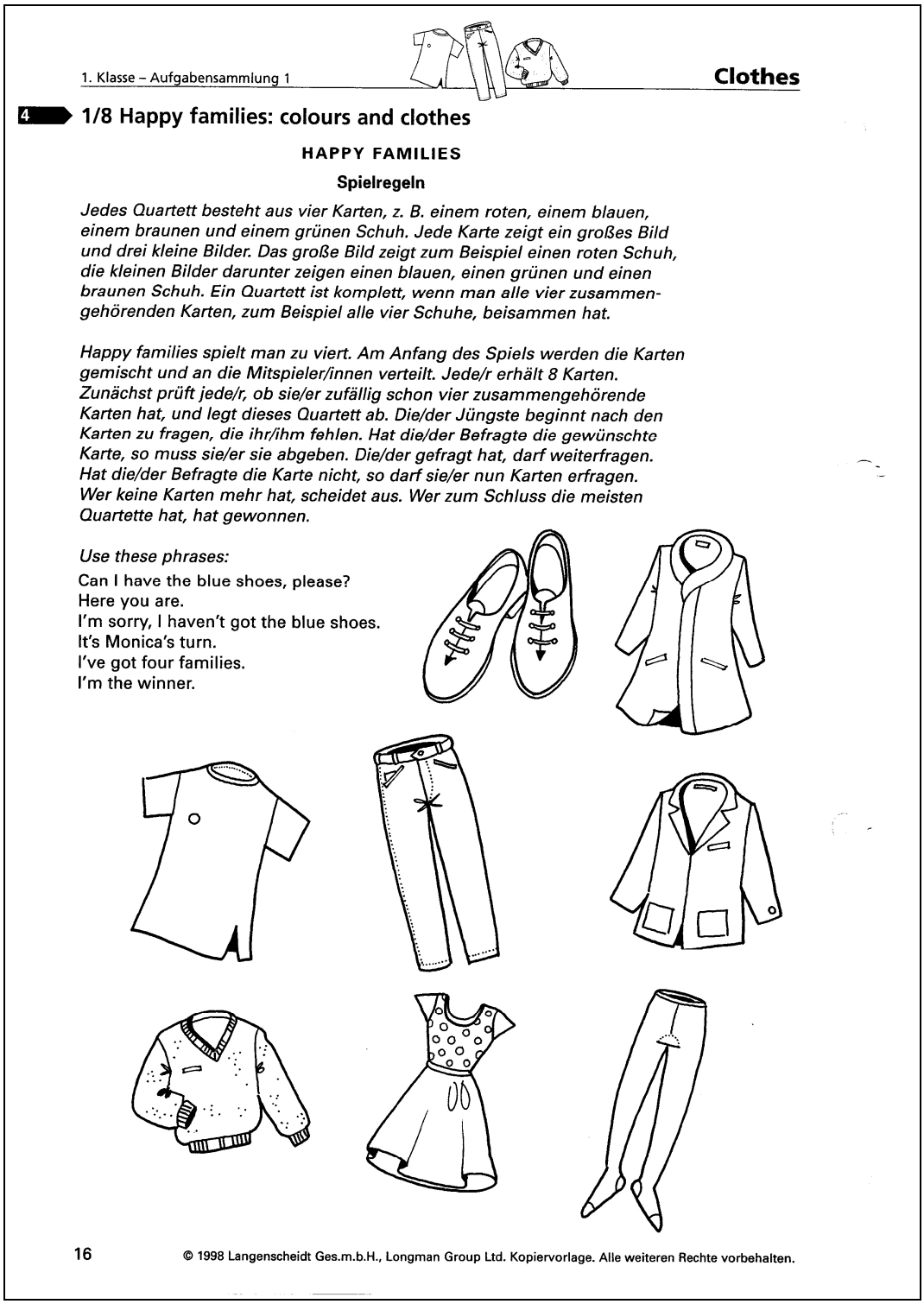
What colors does your carpet have?

My carpet has _____ in it.

It does not have _____in it.

Handout 4:

Clothes Quartet



1. Klasse – Aufgabensammlung 1 **Clothes**

4 **1/8 Happy families: colours and clothes**

HAPPY FAMILIES

Spielregeln

Jedes Quartett besteht aus vier Karten, z. B. einem roten, einem blauen, einem braunen und einem grünen Schuh. Jede Karte zeigt ein großes Bild und drei kleine Bilder. Das große Bild zeigt zum Beispiel einen roten Schuh, die kleinen Bilder darunter zeigen einen blauen, einen grünen und einen braunen Schuh. Ein Quartett ist komplett, wenn man alle vier zusammengehörenden Karten, zum Beispiel alle vier Schuhe, beisammen hat.

Happy families spielt man zu viert. Am Anfang des Spiels werden die Karten gemischt und an die Mitspieler/innen verteilt. Jede/r erhält 8 Karten. Zunächst prüft jede/r, ob sie/er zufällig schon vier zusammengehörende Karten hat, und legt dieses Quartett ab. Die/der Jüngste beginnt nach den Karten zu fragen, die ihr/ihm fehlen. Hat die/der Befragte die gewünschte Karte, so muss sie/er sie abgeben. Die/der gefragt hat, darf weiterfragen. Hat die/der Befragte die Karte nicht, so darf sie/er nun Karten erfragen. Wer keine Karten mehr hat, scheidet aus. Wer zum Schluss die meisten Quartette hat, hat gewonnen.

Use these phrases:

Can I have the blue shoes, please?
Here you are.
I'm sorry, I haven't got the blue shoes.
It's Monica's turn.
I've got four families.
I'm the winner.

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Figure 20: Clothes Quartet I

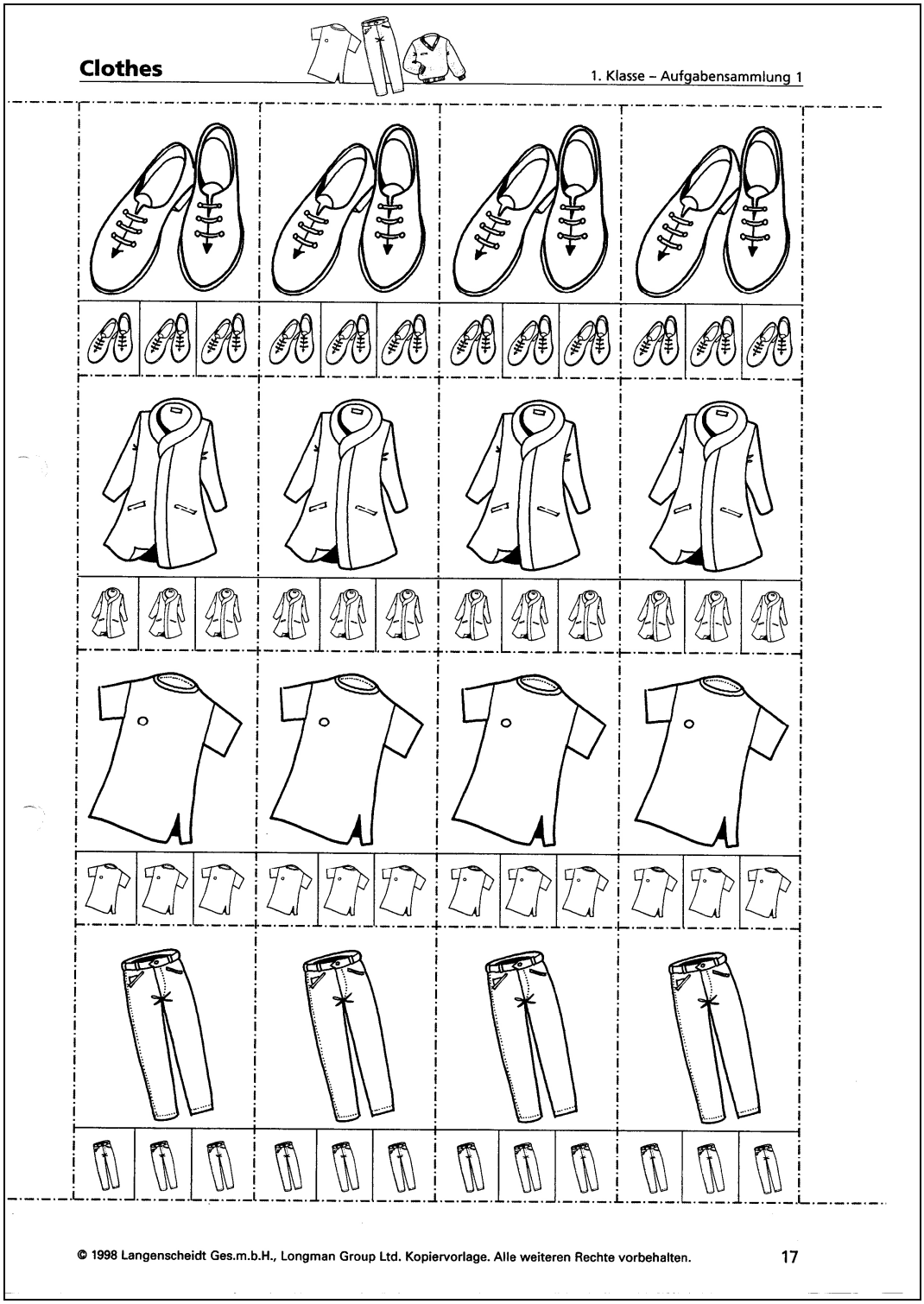


Figure 21: Clothes Quartet II

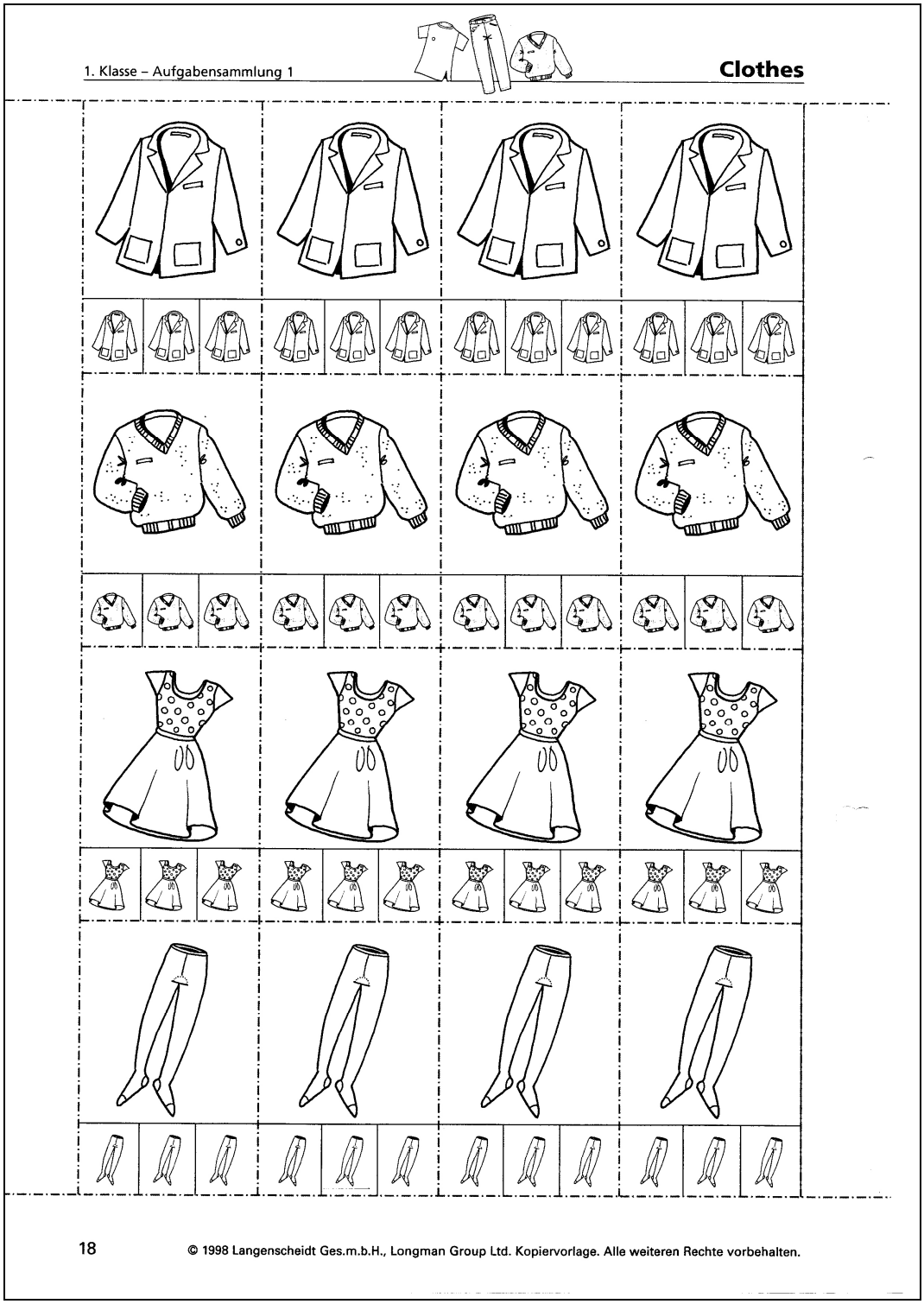
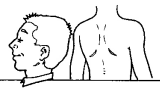


Figure 22: Clothes Quartet III

Handout 5:

Game: "Draw a clown!"

1. Klasse – Aufgabensammlung 2



My body

4 **2/8 Draw your clown**

DRAW YOUR CLOWN

Spielregeln

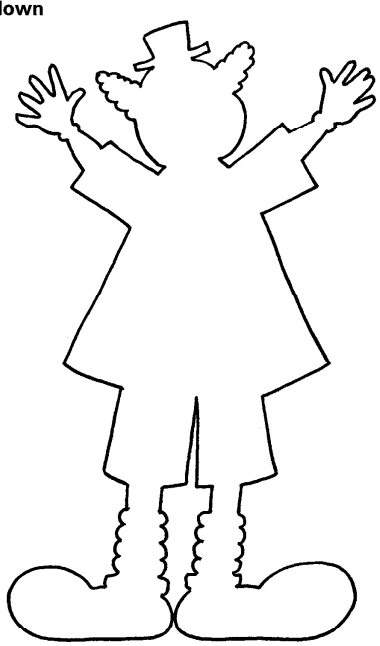
Dieses Spiel spielt man zu viert. Ziel des Spiels ist es, einen Clown fertig zu zeichnen. Der Clown ist fertig, wenn er 2 Augen, 2 Ohren, eine Nase, einen Mund, bunte Haare, ein buntes T-shirt, eine bunte Hose, bunte Socken und bunte Schuhe hat.
Für das Spiel benötigt ihr: pro Spieler/in eine Karte mit dem Umriss des Clowns, 4 Würfel, bunte wasserlösliche Overheadstifte und das Blatt "Draw your clown".

Die/der Jüngste beginnt das Spiel. Sie/er würfelt mit allen vier Würfeln und addiert die Anzahl der Würfelaugen. Z. B.: Der erste Würfel zeigt die Zahl 5, der zweite Würfel die Zahl 4, der dritte Würfel die Zahl 1 und der vierte Würfel die Zahl 3. Die Spielerin/der Spieler rechnet: 5 + 4 + 1 + 3 = 13. Sie/er zeichnet mit dem Overheadstift auf die Karte, was bei Nummer 13 steht: Draw a small mouth. Die anderen entscheiden, ob sie/er die Aufgabe richtig erfüllt hat. Dann ist die/der Nächste zum Würfeln an der Reihe. (Achtung: Man darf nur eine Nase, zwei Augen ... zeichnen. Man darf keine Nase zeichnen, wenn man bereits eine Nase gezeichnet hat.) Gewonnen hat, wer zuerst mit dem Zeichnen des Clowns fertig ist.

Draw your clown **2/8**

4 to 6 = *Draw one green eye or one blue eye or two black eyes.*
7 = *Draw a big nose.*
8 = *Draw a small nose.*
9 = *Draw one big ear on the right side.*
10 = *Draw one small ear on the left side.*
11 = *Draw an ear with an earring.*
12 = *Draw a big mouth.*
13 = *Draw a small mouth.*
14 = *Draw a closed mouth.*
15 = *Draw an open mouth.*
16 = *Colour the hair blue.*
17 = *Colour the hair red.*
18 = *Colour the hair yellow.*
19 = *Colour the hair green.*
20 to 24 = *Colour the T-shirt or trousers or socks or shoes.*

My clown



36

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Figure 23: Draw a Clown

Handout 6:

Different cards either showing a picture of a piece of clothing (taken from handout 1) or the written words.

Trousers	Coat	Tights	Dress
Shoes	T-Shirt	Jacket	Sweater
Hat	Socks	Skirt	Scarf

Handout 7:

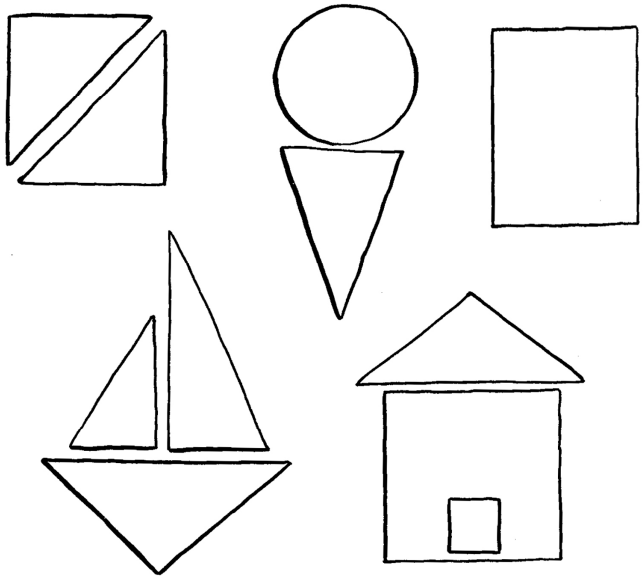
Different shapes

1 Find the small green square

TARGET LANGUAGE Colours and shapes, prepositions

RESOURCES Colour paper, scissors

PREPARATION Cut out paper of different colours, shapes, and sizes such as big and small circles, squares, rectangles and triangles, for example:



Prepare a set of cut-outs for every pair or small group of learners.

TIME GUIDE 15 minutes+

Activity

1. Let the learners work in pairs or small groups. Give each pair or group a set of colour cut-outs and ask them to spread the shapes on their desk.
2. Play a simple game. Ask the learners to find a particular shape. When they have found it, tell them to put it up. Continue with more examples.

   Can you find a triangle?
   Can you find the small green square?
   Can you find the big blue circle?

12

Figure 24: Different Shapes

Handout 8:

Chapter 1, exercise 3:

Find the small green square 1

Check the shapes and comment on their choices. For example:

Very good. That's the small green square.

That's not a triangle. It's a square. Look, Jan is holding a triangle.

3 Let the learners play with the shapes on the desk. Tell them which shapes they should put together to make new shapes or simple pictures. For example:

a *Find the two small triangles. Can you put them together and make a square? Can you put them together and make a bigger triangle?*

b *Let's make an ice cream. Find the big brown triangle. It's the cone. Now look for the big blue circle. It's blueberry ice cream. Put it on the cone.*

c *Let's find the small green circle and the small brown rectangle. Can you put them together and make a little tree?*

d *Find the two little squares. Put them together. It's your birthday cake. Let's find the small yellow rectangle. It's the candle. Put the candle on the cake.*

e *Let's make a car. Let's find the two little circles. Okay. Now find the big green rectangle. Put the rectangle on the two circles. Let's find the white square. Put the square on the top to make the roof. Good.*

f *Find the big brown triangle. Now find the small white triangle. Put them together and make a brown boat with a white sail. Very good. Let's look for the big blue circle. It's the lake. Put the boat on the lake. Great! Let's find the small red circle. That's the sun. Put it over the lake.*

g *Find the big white square. Okay. Now look for the big brown triangle. Let's put the triangle and the square together and make a nice house. Good. Find the small red square. It's the door. Put it on the big white square. Fine. Let's find the big green rectangle. It's the garden. Put it next to the house. Okay, now we'll find the small blue triangle. That's our swimming pool. Put the swimming pool in the garden. Beautiful!*

13

Figure 25: Exercises

Handout 9:

Pictures which show different textures

	Wood		Leather
	Stone		Wool
	Glass		Metal

Figure 26: Pictures Showing Different Textures

Handout 10:

Bandolero: matching textures

Before being able to use the following handout, one has to produce a nail board which functions as aid. One has to put 10 nails on the two long sides of a wooden board (24 x 32 cm). The handout, which shows different objects or words on each long side, is inserted between the two rows of nails. Each nail should be positioned next to a symbol or word from the work sheet. The students have to choose the correct answers by connecting two nails with for example a rubber band. For checking the answer the students have to turn the handout out around and see if the students' answers match with the lines on the paper which show the appropriate pairs. Therefore, teacher has to draw the lines on the back of the handout. Once this aid is developed it can be used over and over again with different topics.

In this case the pictures and words from handout 9 can be used.

(Suschnig 1998: 12)

Handout 11:

Previously mentioned *adjectives* could be:

soft, hard, smooth, harsh, heavy, light etc

4.7.3. Unit 3: "Fruits and Vegetables"

Handout 1:

Pictures of different fruits:

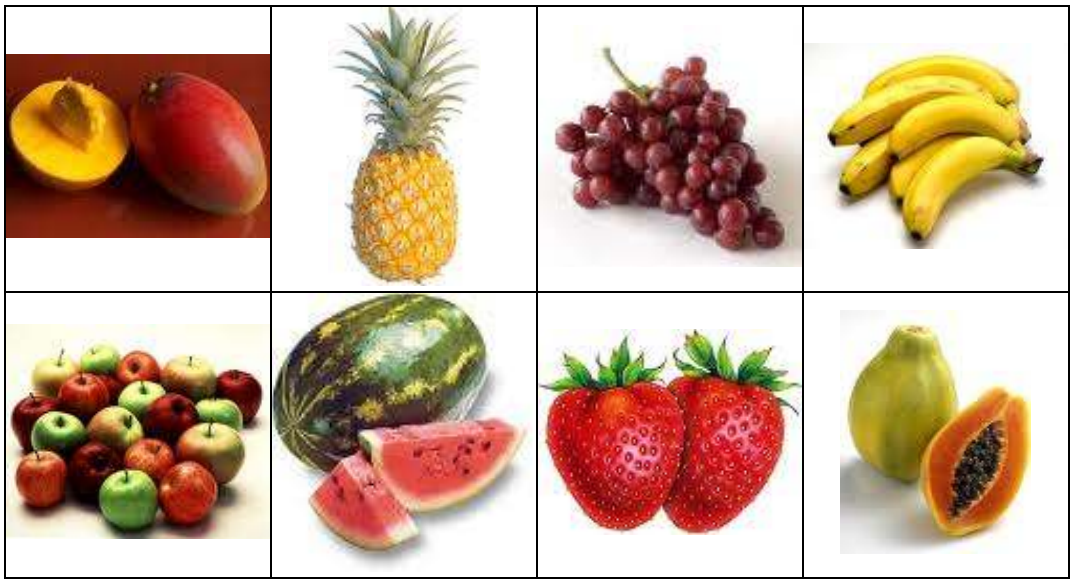


Figure 27: Different Fruits

Handout 2:

Pictures showing fruits and vegetables:

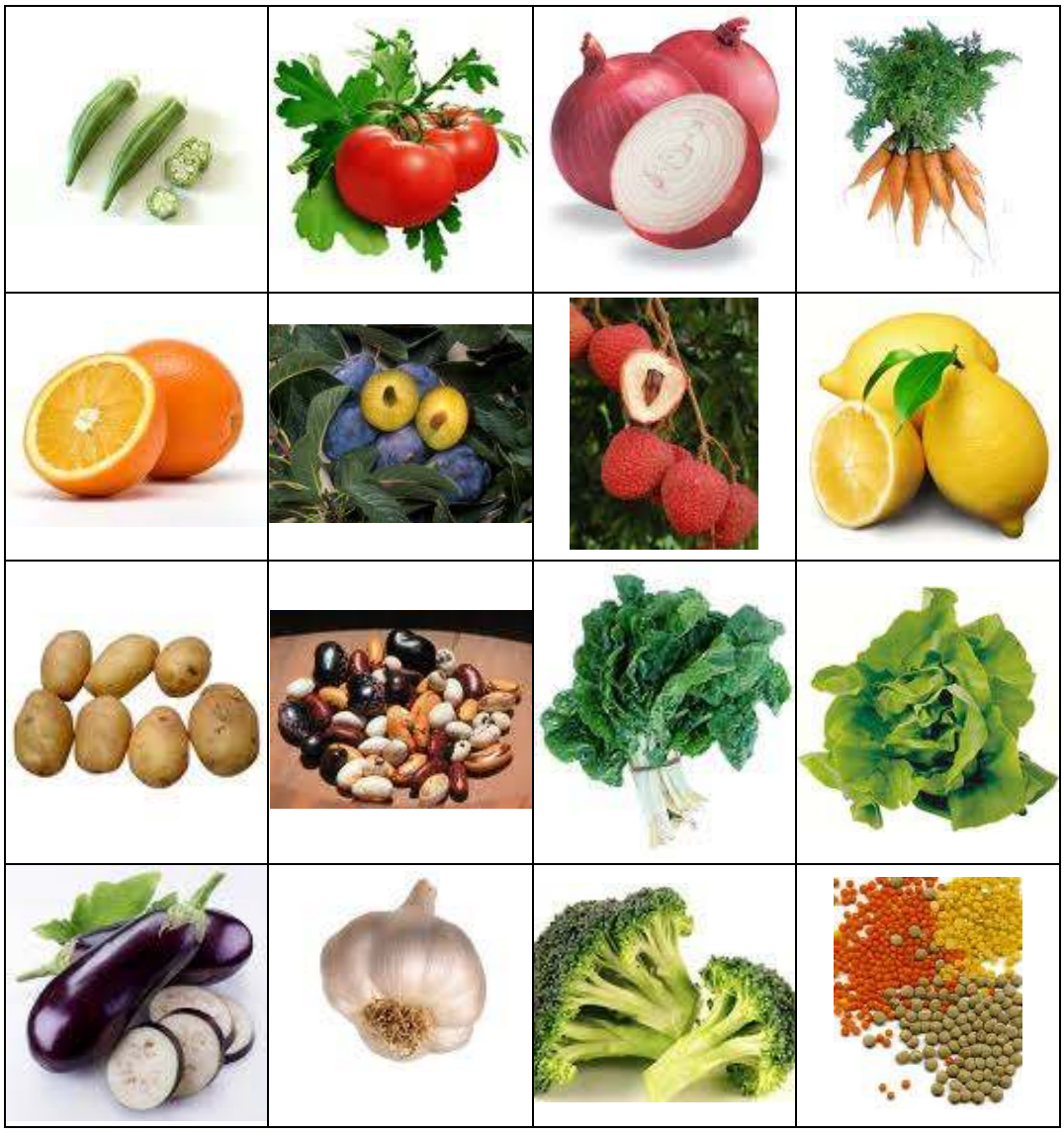


Figure 28: Different Fruits and Vegetables

Handout 3:

(Written version of handout 1 and 2)

Mango, Tomato, Banana, Carrot, Apple, Watermelon, Lemon, Lychee, Lettuce, Plum, Eggplant, Broccoli, Okra, Grapes, Onion, Papaya, Strawberry, Potato, Bean, Spinach, Orange, Garlic, Lentils, Pineapple

Handout 4:

Domino: fruits and vegetables

	Mango		Okra
	Tomato		Grapes
	Banana		Onion
	Carrot		Papaya
	Apple		Strawberry
	Watermelon		Potato

(Please note: Figure continues on next page.)

	Lemon		Bean
	Lychee		Spinach
	Lettuce		Orange
	Plum		Garlic
	Eggplant		Lentils
	Broccoli		Pineapple

Figure 29: Domino: Fruits and Vegetables

Handout 5:

Bandolero: fruits and vegetables.

This handout can be made out of handout 4.

Handout 6:

Fruit Salad or Vegetable Stew

No. of Players: 5 or more

Indoor: Yes

Outdoor: Yes

Equipment: Something to mark a circle such as stones plastic place markers chalk or clothing

How to play:

Choose four fruit names - such as apples, oranges, banana, pears. Each player is given a fruit name. One player is chosen to be on. S stands in the middle. The player who is on calls a fruit name and everyone with that name has to move places. They must try to get into someone's place while the other players are moving. The player left without a place is on next.

The vegetable stew game can be played according to the same rules as the fruit salad game just with vegetable words.

Handout 7:

10 Questions:

Is it ….? (shape/texture)

Is it made of ….? (material)

Is it used for ….?

Etc.

(Compare Westrup 2005: 48-49)

Handout 8:

Memory with fruits and vegetables

The teacher has to cut out each picture or word before the game can begin. The cards are turned around and every student tries to find pairs while turning two cards around. If he or she finds a pair, he or she has another go. The student with most of the pairs wins the game.

Pictures are taken from handout 4.

Handout 9:

Picture dictation:

Hand out a piece of blank paper to the S. T tells the S what to draw where.

Eg.: Draw one red apple in the middle of the paper.

On the right side there is a yellow carrot.

Etc.

Handout 10:

How to make a fruit salad

At the market 1. Klasse – Angebot für fächerübergreifendes Arbeiten

F/3 Take two: a fruit salad

TAKE TWO

Rules

Find the pairs. Then put the pairs into the correct order. What's the solution?
Find the words. Check with the key. Then write the recipe.

How to make a fruit salad:	f	Put the fruit into a large bowl.	s
You need: 3 apples, 3 bananas, 3 oranges, nuts, sugar and lemon juice.	r	Add some nuts and the lemon juice.	a
You can also use other kinds of fruit like grapefruits, kiwis, ...	u	Put some sugar in.	l
First peel (schäle) the apples, bananas and oranges.	i	Mix the salad carefully.	a
Then cut the fruit into little pieces.	t	Ask some friends to eat the fruit salad with you.	d

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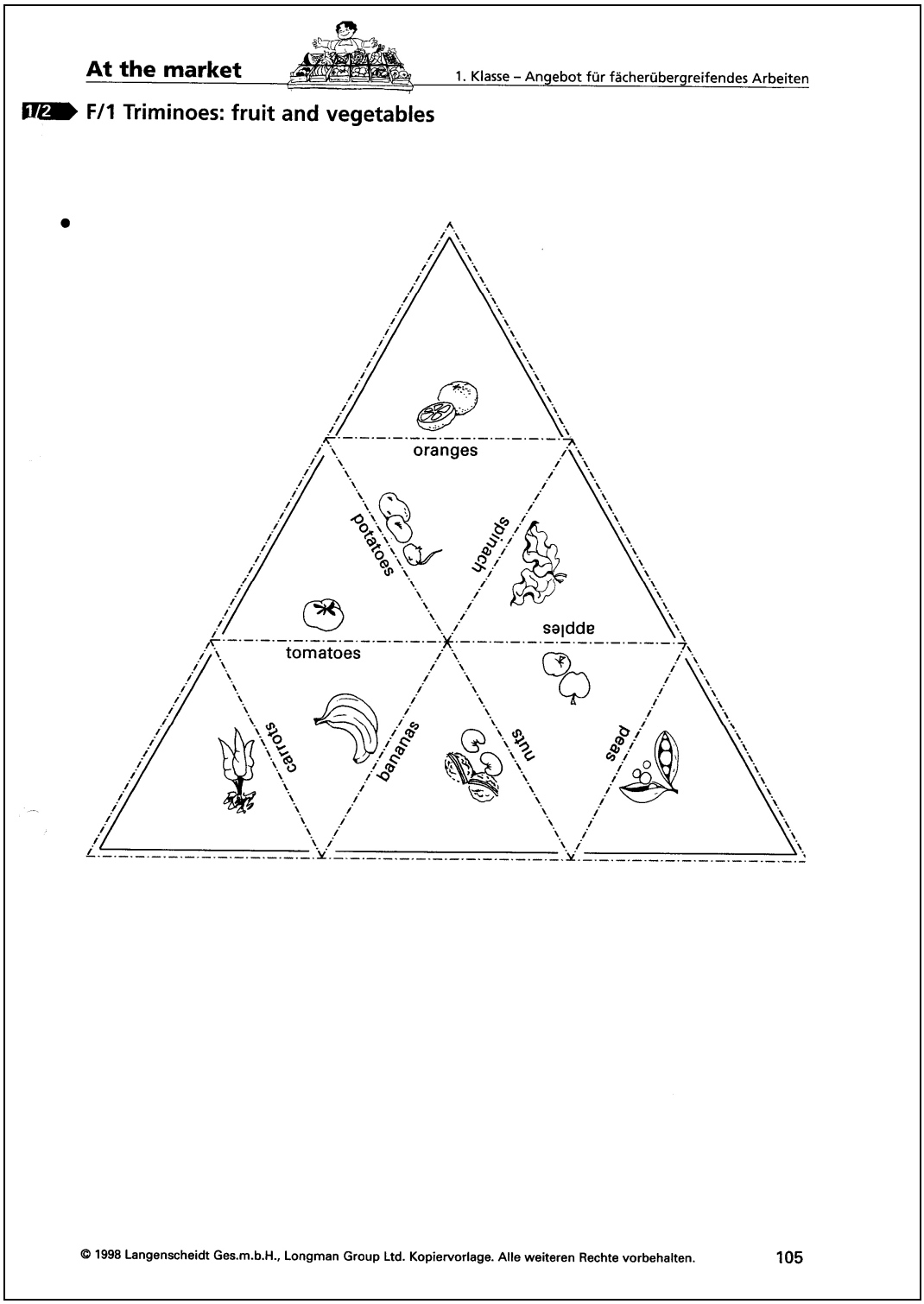
Figure 30: How to Make a Fruit Salad

Handout 11:

Triminoes: fruits and vegetables



At the market 1. Klasse – Angebot für fächerübergreifendes Arbeiten

1/2 **F/1 Triminoes: fruit and vegetables**

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Figure 31: Triminoes: Fruits and Vegetables

Handout 12:

Telling the time:

Depending on how good the students have become so far, the teacher has to decide how many exercises the students might be able to fulfill from the following handout:

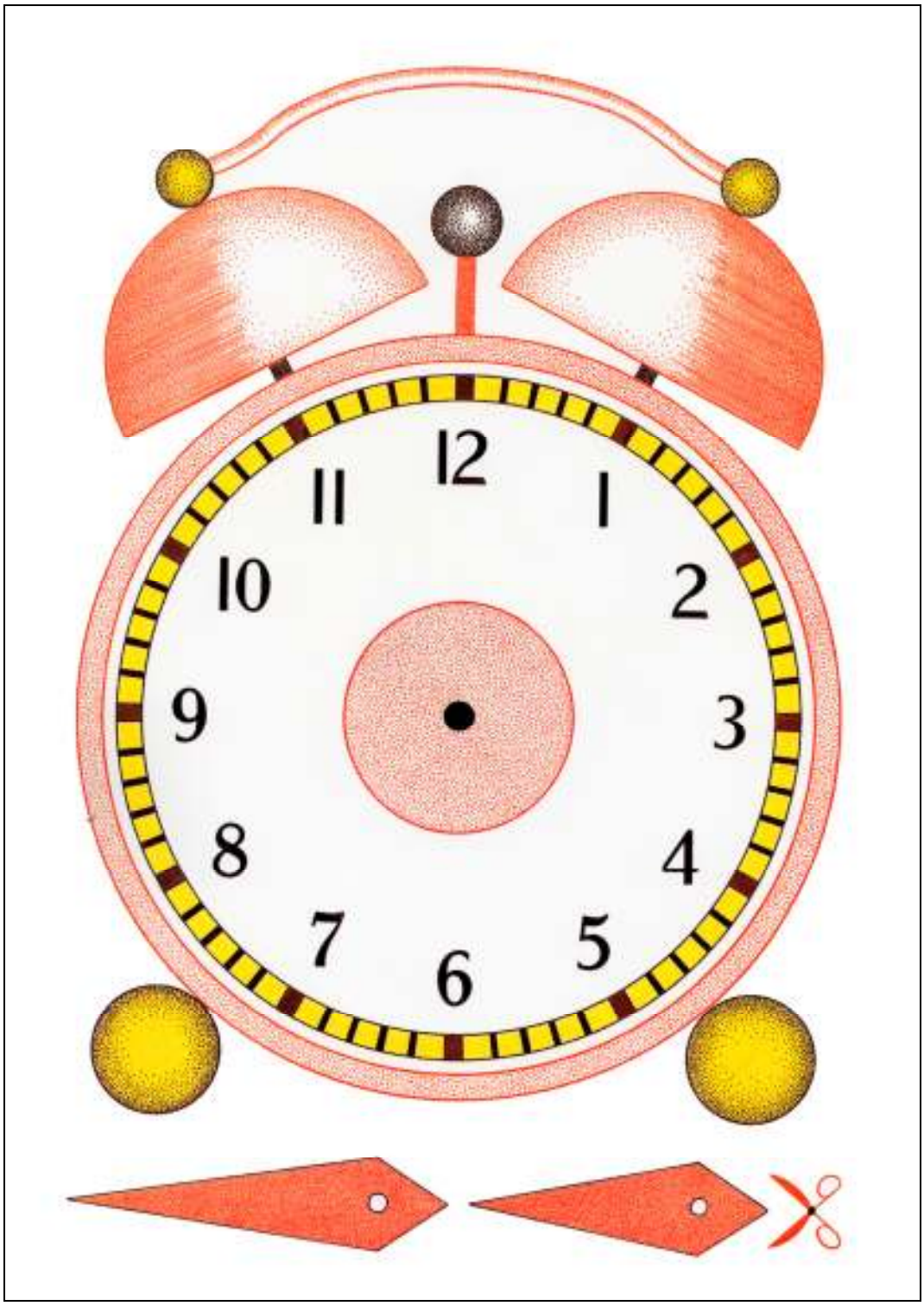


Figure 32: Clock

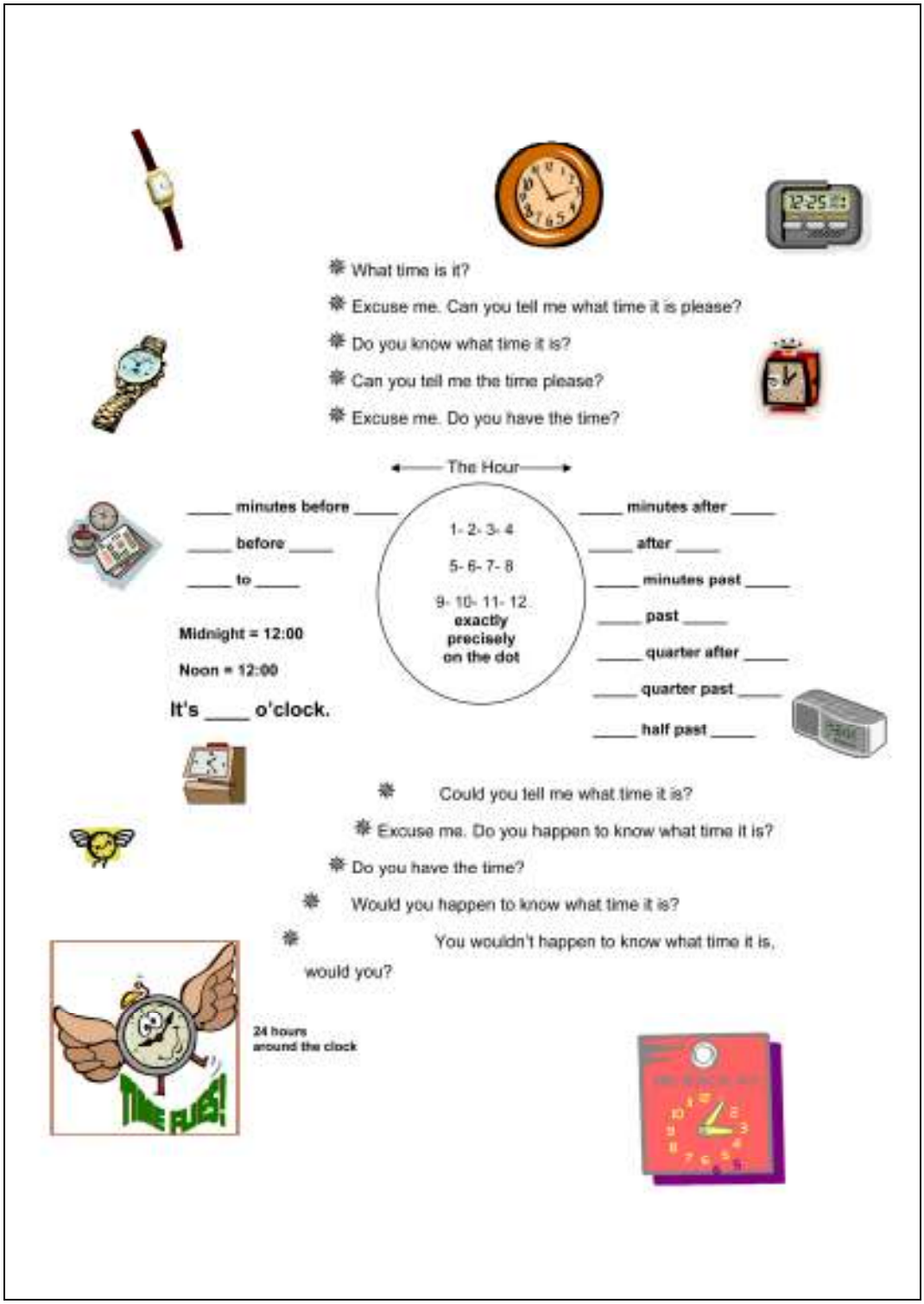
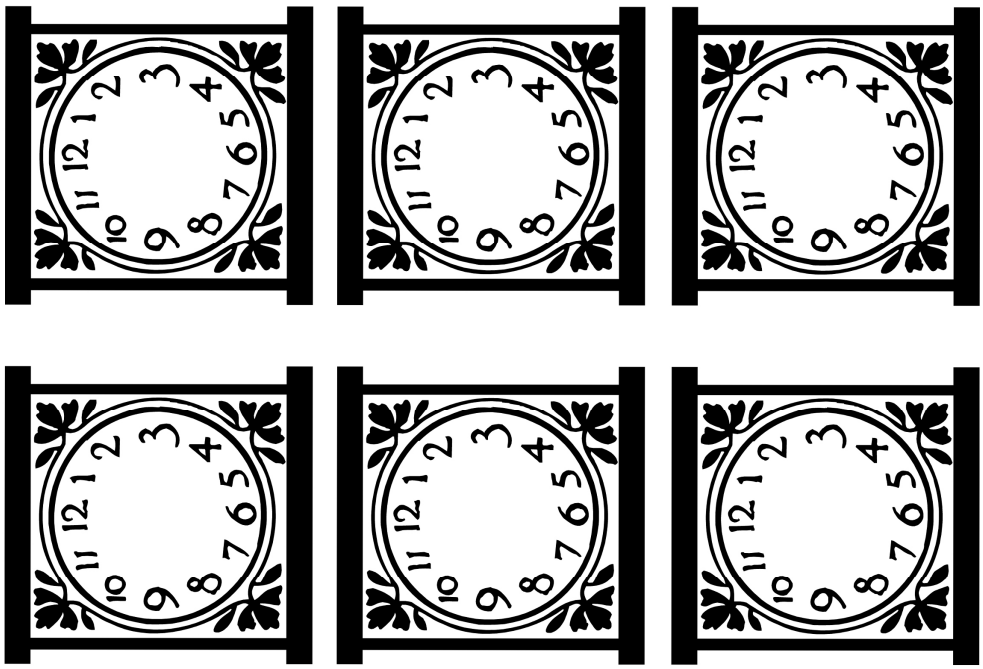


Figure 33: Telling the Time I

Handout 13:

Telling the time:

Only exercise 2.



The Time Lesson

1. Ask the students what time it is. Use a battery operated clock so that you can move the hands. If you do not have a battery operated clock, or if the classroom is too large for everyone to see it, use the board and draw circles instead.
2. Ask the students to draw hour and minute hands in each clock. Students ask each other what time it is by pointing at the small clocks on the handout sheets. Students ask the teacher what time it is by pointing at the small clocks on the handout sheets.
3. Pass out another blank sheet. Tell the students to draw in minute and hour hands. The students can write out in complete sentences what time it is by looking at the clocks on the handouts.
4. Use the pictures on the lesson page to practice demonstrative pronouns. Students should answer questions with complete sentences.

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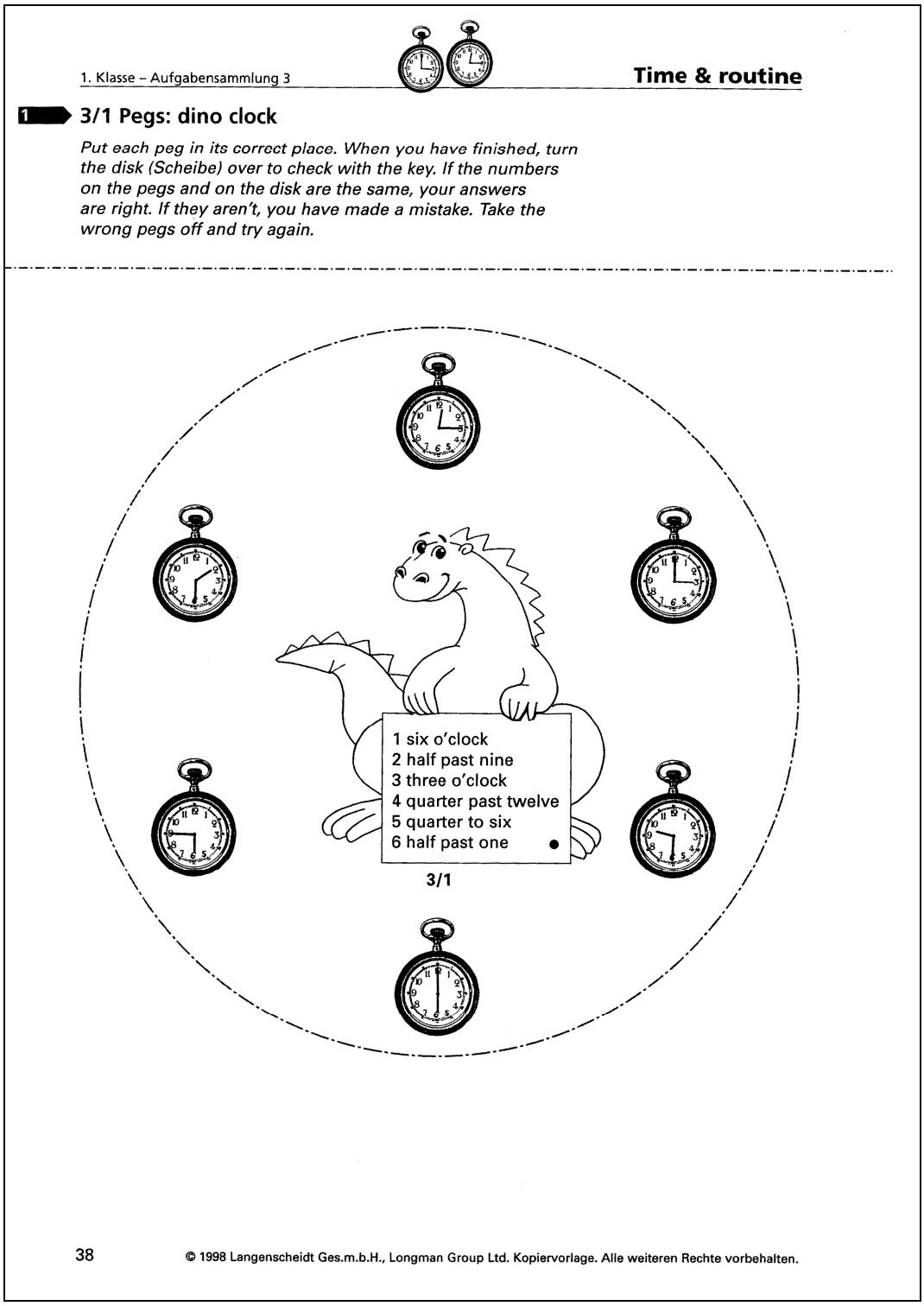
Figure 34: Telling the Time II

Handout 14:

Dino clock



1. Klasse – Aufgabensammlung 3

Time & routine

1 3/1 Pegs: dino clock

Put each peg in its correct place. When you have finished, turn the disk (Scheibe) over to check with the key. If the numbers on the pegs and on the disk are the same, your answers are right. If they aren't, you have made a mistake. Take the wrong pegs off and try again.

1 six o'clock
2 half past nine
3 three o'clock
4 quarter past twelve
5 quarter to six
6 half past one

3/1

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Figure 35: Dino Clock I

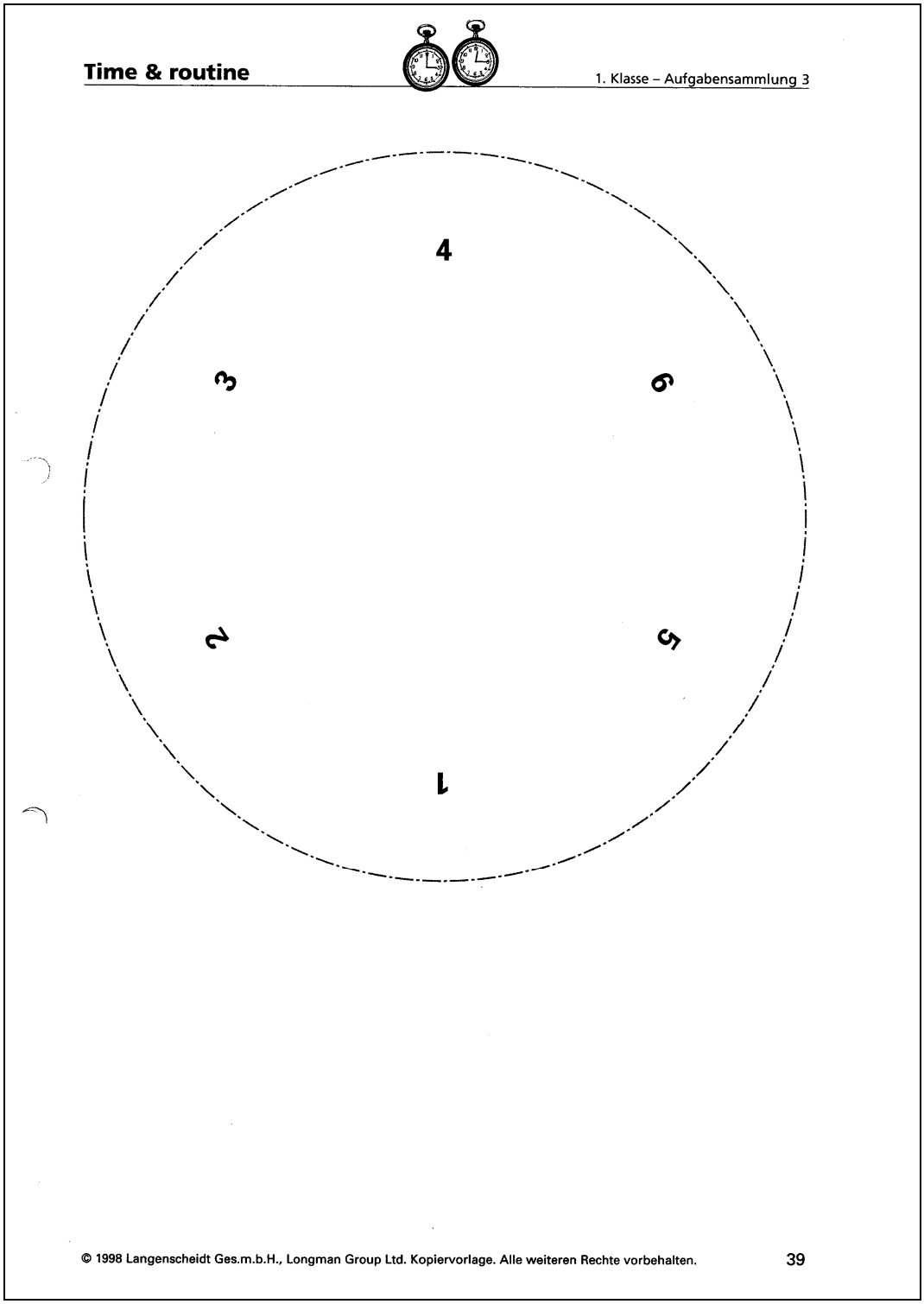


Figure 36: Dino Clock II

Handout 15:

Time domino

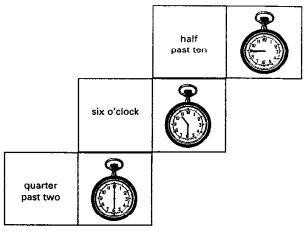
1. Klasse – Aufgabensammlung 3

Time & routine

1/2 **3/2 Dominoes: What's the time?**

Open dominoes

Put the cards in front of you. Make a ladder (Leiter).



DOMINOES

Spielregeln

Dieses Spiel spielt man zu zweit. Die Karten werden gut durchgemischt. Beide Spieler/innen erhalten je 6 Karten. Die/der Jüngere beginnt mit dem Spiel: Sie/er legt eine beliebige Karte auf und sagt, was sie/er auf der Uhr auf der Karte sieht, z. B.: "It's quarter past eight." Wer die Karte mit dem entsprechenden Text hat, legt sie an die erste Karte an. Dann sagt sie/er, welche Uhrzeit sie/er auf der rechten Kartenseite sehen kann, und so weiter. Gewonnen hat, wer zuerst keine Karten mehr hat.

quarter past two		six o'clock		half past ten	
quarter to nine		ten o'clock		half past two	
quarter to twelve		two o'clock		quarter to three	
half past six		quarter past eight		nine o'clock	

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Figure 37: Time Domino I

Time & routine

1. Klasse – Aufgabensammlung 3

nine thirty am	08:15	eight fifteen am	10:25	ten twenty-five am	14:30
two thirty pm	19:45	seven forty-five pm	24:00	midnight	11:15
eleven fifteen am	16:50	four fifty pm	06:45	six forty-five am	14:00
two pm	20:15	eight fifteen pm	03:10	three ten am	09:30

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Figure 38: Time Domino II

Handout 16:

Bingo: Telling the time

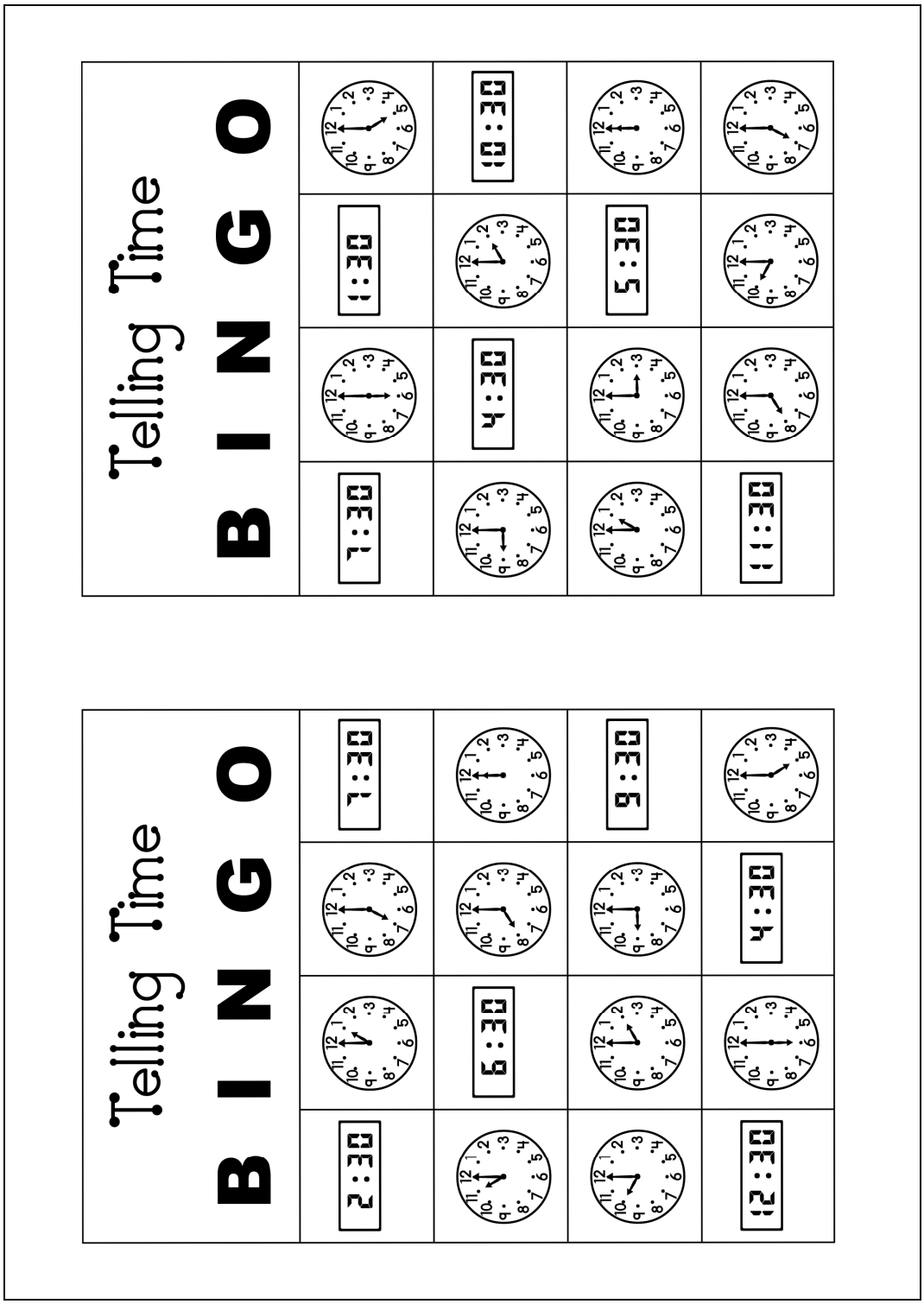


Figure 39: Bingo: Telling the Time

4.7.4. Unit 4: "At the Market"

Handout 1:

Sales Dialogue:

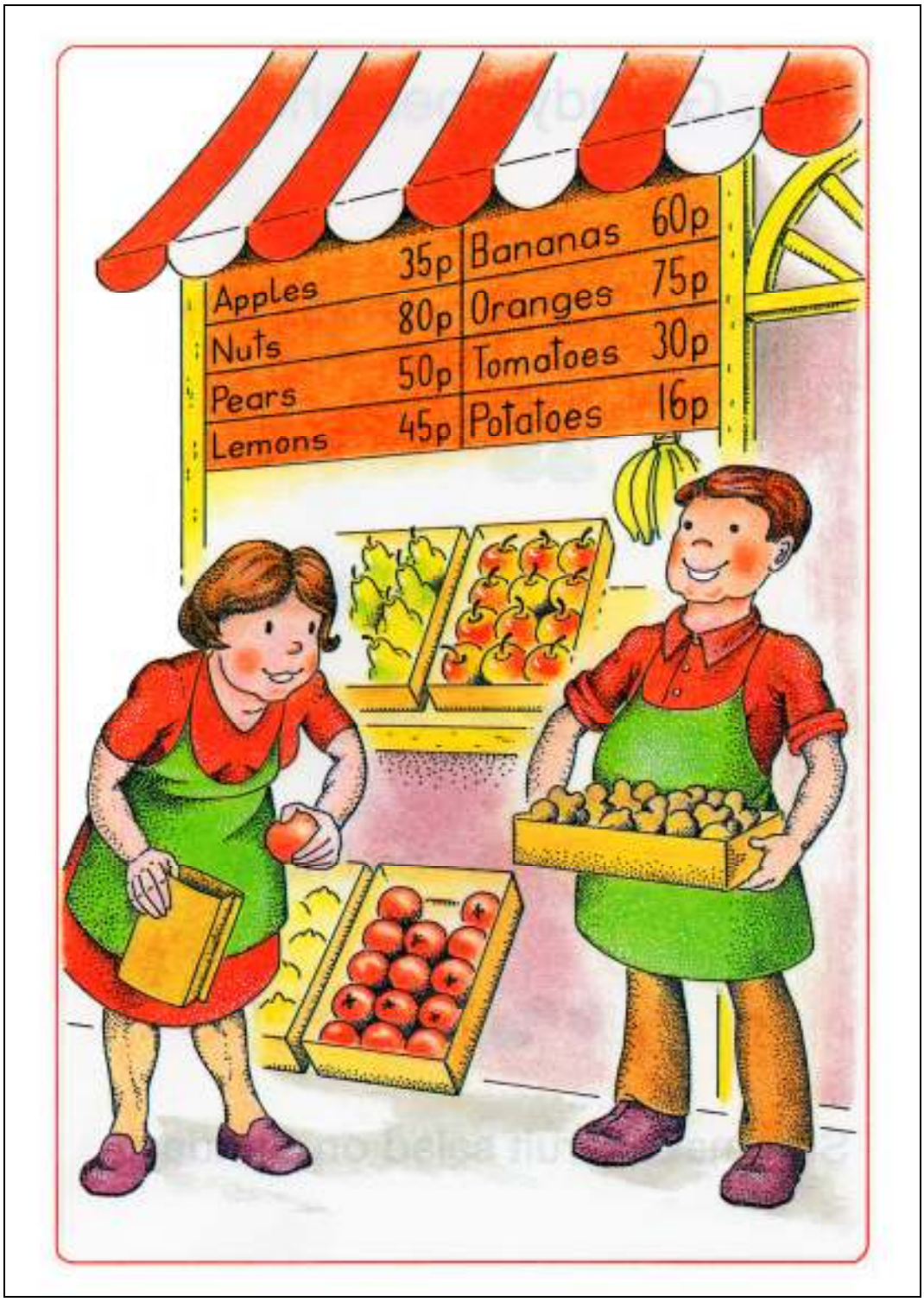


Figure 40: At the Market

A: Good morning!

B: Good morning!

A: Do you have _____?

B: Yes, I have _____.

No, I do not have _____.

A: How much are/is the _____?

B: The _____ are/is _____ Rupees.

A: That is too expensive! No thank you

Okay, I'll take _____.

B: Good bye!

A: Good bye!

Handout 2:

Game: Hot Seat

One player sits in the middle of the class. This student either thinks of a word or has been told a word by the teacher. The other students have to ask questions which can be answered with yes or no until they discover the answer. For this lesson, the target words should have something to do with the market situation or should be words which have recently been learned. A new student sits in the hot seat after the right answer has been found.

(Compare http://www.teflgames.com/hotseat.html (2010-05-25)

Handout 3:

Play Money

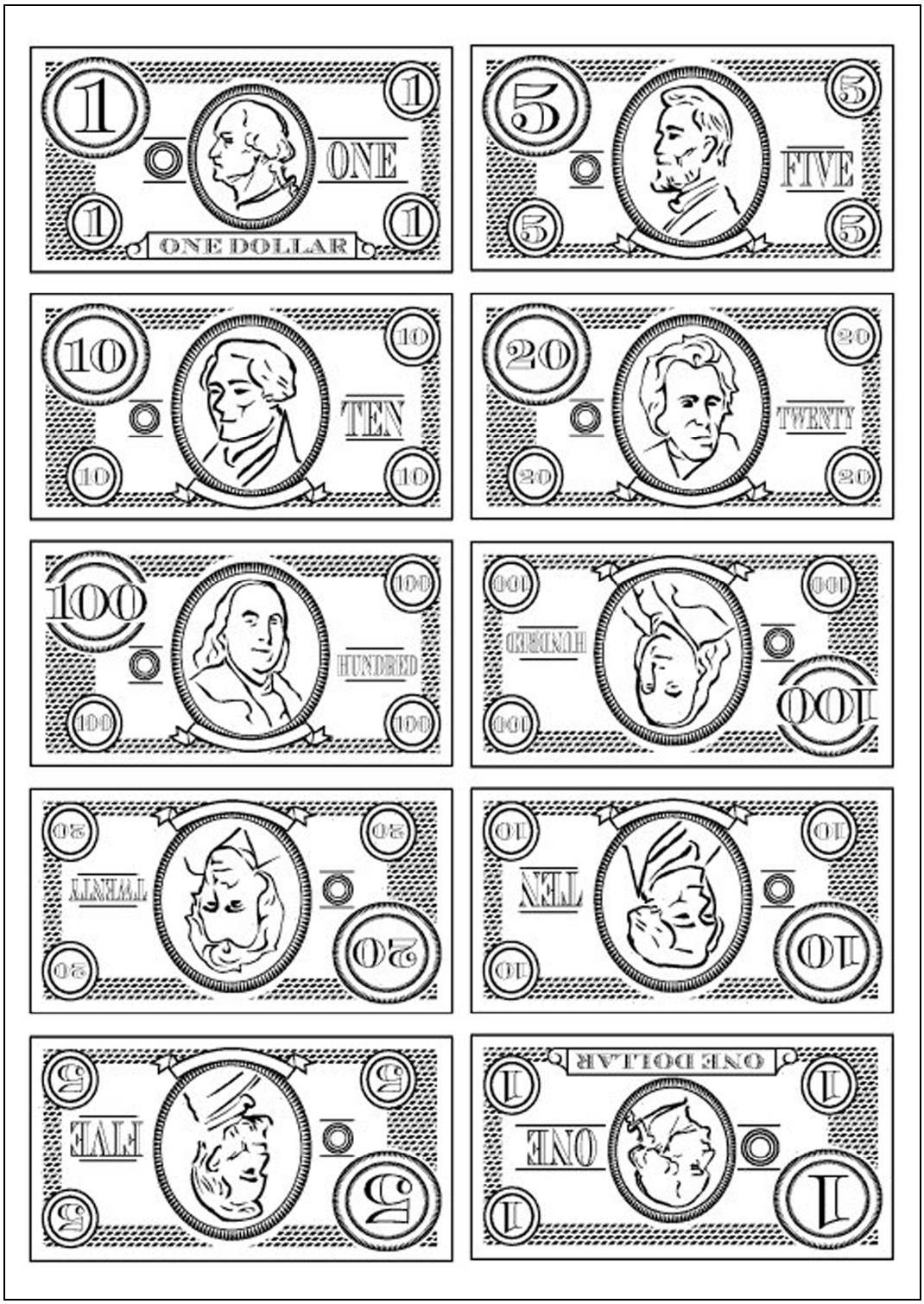


Figure 41: Play Money

Handout 4:

12 Shopping

LANGUAGE Practising asking questions; talking about prices and amounts. For example:

A **Good morning.**
B **Good morning. How much are your …?**
A **They're … (euros) each / a kilo.**
B **And how much are your …?**

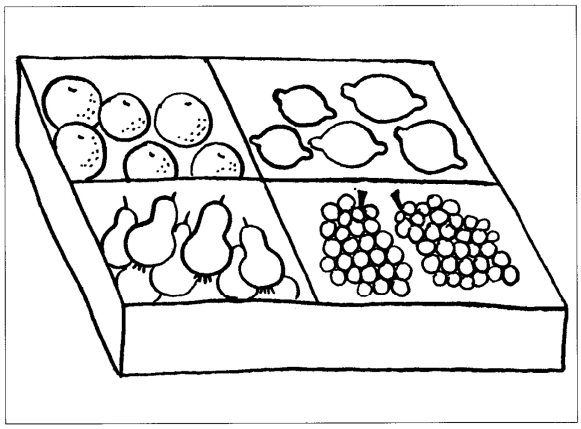
RESOURCES Paper to make small posters about 60cm x 30cm.

Something to put the posters on the walls with, for example, sticky tape.

You will need one sheet of paper for every four learners plus one for yourself.

A poster for the dialogue.

PREPARATION Prepare a poster with the conversation above.
Prepare a poster with four fruit, for example:



TIME GUIDE 20–30 minutes.

Activity 1 Ask the class to call out any names of fruit they can think of and write them on the board. For example:

apples	bananas	melons	mangoes	strawberries
peaches	cherries	avocados	lemons	pineapples
oranges	grapes	grapefruits	coconuts	figs

34

Figure 42: Going Shopping I

2 Put the class into groups of four and tell each group to choose four fruit from the board, draw them and their names on a poster, and decide a price (per kilo in the local currency) for each fruit. They should *not* write the price on the poster.

3 When all the groups have finished tell them to put their posters where the other groups can see them, for example, on the wall beside them.

4 Put the dialogue and your poster on the board. Start the dialogue and prompt the class to respond and ask the first question:

TEACHER *Good morning.*
CLASS *Good morning. How much are your oranges?*
TEACHER *They're … (euros) a kilo / each.*

Continue till they have asked about all four fruit.

5 Tell the groups they have €5 (or the local equivalent) to spend on fruit. They should send out two learners to ask about prices in the other groups. The other two learners stay with the poster and answer questions from the other groups.

6 Give the class five minutes to ask and answers questions. They can walk around visiting groups freely.

7 Tell the groups to get back together and discuss which fruit they are going to buy with their €5 and what they are going to sell.

8 Each group should say what they are going to buy, from which group, and for how much.

Variations

1 You can use a different vocabulary area, for example, vegetables.

2 You can use different topics, for example:

- asking about a room, flat, or house to rent
- asking about the price of holidays.

Figure 43: Going Shopping II

Handout 5:

Scrambled Dialogue

Put the following pictures into the correct order.

	Produce the carpet		Go to the market
	Present the carpet		Talk to the customer
	Arrange the price		Sell the carpet

Figure 44: Scrambled Dialogue: At the Market

Handout 6:

A possible dialogue for selling a carpet:

A: Hi

B: Hello!

A: Oh this is a beautiful carpet!

B: Thank you! I made it myself.

A: Wow! How long did you work on it?

B: About one month!

A: How much is it?

B: This carpet costs 1200 Rupees.

A: That is very expensive!

B: It is handmade. Look at the bright colors! You can find typical Tibetan shapes in it. Touch it! It is very soft.

A: Mhh. That is true! I like the colors.

B: Yes. It is also good quality. I did it myself!

A: Yes. How much was it again?

B: 1200 Rupees. That is not much!

A: Mhh. Okay. I'll take it.

B: Thank you! Have a great day!

Handout 7:

Final Board Game

The board on which this game is played shows interconnected pathways consisting of blue and red squares; the red ones are called activity fields and the blues ones are neutral. To play the board game the students also need tokens to move along the pathways, a dice, and a pack of question cards. The rules are rather simple: whenever a student lands on a red activity field, she has to answer a question from the question cards. If her answer is right, she can choose in which direction she wants to go next. If the answer is wrong, the others choose where she has to go next and thus can send her away from the goal. The one who reaches the goal first is the winner.

Board Game

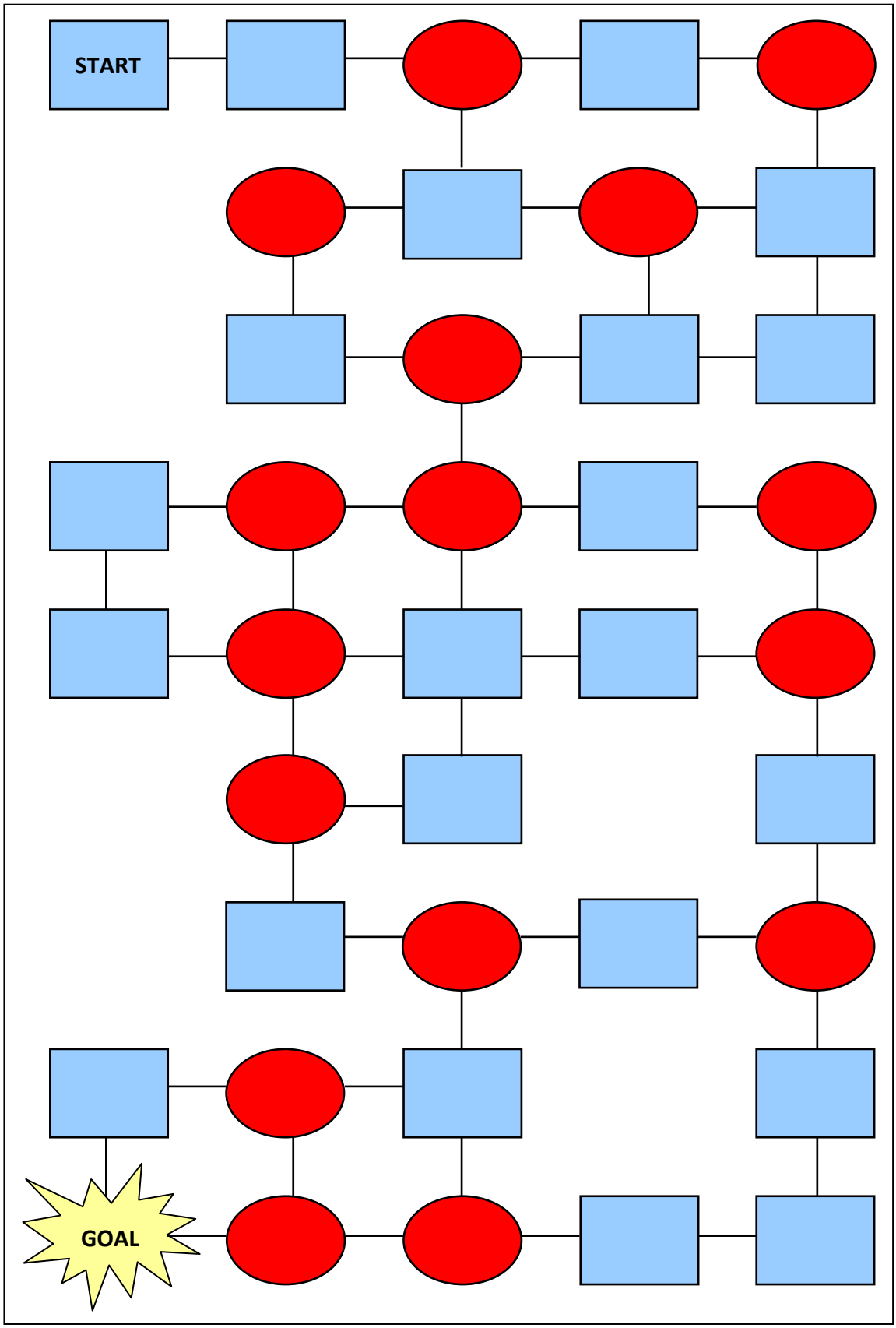


Figure 45: Final Board Game

Board Game Questions

Where do you come from?	How much are the mangos?	Point to your nose.	How many fingers do you have?
When do we meet?	What time is it?	What color is your T-shirt?	What color is your hair?
What color are your pants?	Are you married?	Do you have a brother?	Do you like mangos?
What is your favorite color?	Do you have children?	Do you go to school?	What is your job?
You see with your …	You hear with your …	You eat with your …	You run with your …
How many people are playing this game?	Can you find a square in the classroom?	Can you find a triangle in the classroom?	Can you find a circle in the classroom?
What is a table made of?	What is the carpet made of?	What is a bottle made of?	Describe a stone.
Describe a carpet.	Describe a feather.	Name a fruit that starts with O	Name a fruit that starts with G
Name a vegetable that starts with O	Name a vegetable that starts with L	Name a vegetable that starts with S	Name a vegetable that starts with C
Name a fruit that starts with P	Name a fruit that starts with B	What color are the teacher's shoes?	How much is the garlic?
Say 2 sentences about your carpet.	What time is it?	Do you have a sister?	How many toes do you have?
Say 2 sentences about your carpet.	When do we meet?	How long have you been in India?	Can you speak English?

Figure 46: Final Board Game Questions

5. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this thesis has been to develop a beginning language course designed specifically to support volunteer workers teaching English to semiliterate Tibetan women. The volunteers are equipped with a finished course design, including handouts and teaching materials. Moreover, the lesson plans that guide the volunteers through this coherently designed course ensure that a successful learning process can be maintained, even when the individual volunteers might have to change from time to time. Therefore, the volunteers as well as the Tibetan women should benefit jointly from this master plan.

Much of the present paper has necessarily been devoted to a discussion of various aspects of language course design in light of current findings from practical linguistics. The resultant methodology of this course is based on a communicative language teaching approach. The pioneering work of David Arthur Wilkins, one of the most influential scholars demonstrating the importance of teaching a language as communicative competence, has provided a primary basis for the course design. It is apparent that a focus on the communicative use of language rather than on traditional grammatical concepts is eminently advisable for the case at hand. The students are not even equipped with a conceptual structural understanding of their own mother tongue, and so presenting a foreign language to them merely in terms of its structures would most likely lead to confusion rather than to a successful learning experience. Therefore, the tasks found in this English course are based largely on information-gap activities, in which the teacher encourages the students to talk and use their newly acquired language knowledge in practical situational contexts.

In adapting Western theories of pedagogy for use in the learning situation of Tibetans living in exile in India, I have encountered certain basic problems. It is often difficult to apply theories that have been developed in and for Western cultures to this specific learning situation, because most of the students are semiliterate or illiterate, while most of the available learning materials use written words. To be sure, some of the students can get used to working with words and short phrases, but for the most part, the teacher has to work with pictures and oral learning strategies, such as songs. This is the reason why most of the teaching materials that I have chosen for this course are based on pictures or physical objects.

A further difficulty occurred when I tried to distribute my questionnaires to some Tibetan monks. There could be various reasons why I never received an answer, but most probably they can be summarized under the two headings of weak information

infrastructure and divergent cultural attitudes. My attempt to gather data directly from the prospective students may have failed because of language deficiencies or lack of motivation to participate in such an impersonal questionnaire. Direct interviews would probably have worked much better, as personal relationships are far more important than simply filling out a sheet of paper.

A greater obstacle to my thesis was the fact books and articles on teaching semiliterate adults were not accessible. I had to try to apply some Western theories to a learning situation for which those concepts have not yet been tested. The students of this target group have a completely different access to language, because for them language cannot easily be thought of as structural patterns. Their language awareness must rather be compared to the mentality of children while learning their mother tongue. But it would not be accurate to equate the learning psychology of the child and the illiterate woman. One particular example of this difference became evident in my research: Namely, the interaction of sometimes childish behavior (for example, some Tibetan women becoming childish while talking about body parts) with compelling economic reasons for studying a language. This is a fascinating psychological aspect which has not been discussed so far in Western language learning theories. The tension between naive playfulness and serious economic need, insofar as both factors are involved in language learning, would need further investigation.

Finally, the English course presented in this thesis has a dual use and purpose. In the first instance, it is for a specific target group. I give a short introduction to the situation of the Tibetan people and the Tibetan language to provide a contextual description of this target group and to help the volunteer teacher or the reader to understand the situation of Tibetan people living in exile. Then, by applying Western language learning and course design theories to the socio-economic and cultural conditions of exile Tibetans, I have tried to develop an English course for Tibetan women living in exile in India.

In the second instance, the course I have developed has greater potential value beyond this particular application. I want to suggest that this English course can be modified for use by other target groups having similar characteristics, namely, being semiliterate and wanting to sell handmade articles to improve their quality of life. Therefore, this practical hands-on blue print can be adapted to fit the needs of similar groups in other cultures. After all, acquiring a foreign language provides direct economic benefit and empowers the students, in this case the Tibetan women, to participate in trade activities and thus improve their personal situation.

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9. PICTURE CREDITS

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Figure 3: *Tibetan Woman,* http://farm1.static.flickr.com/34/110845395_650c05755f.jpg (2010-05-26).

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Figure 5: *Tibetan Children*, http://i.pbase.com/o3/27/182227/1/85919099.Mp1bbJqt.IMG_4268.JPG (2010-05-26).

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Figure 8: *Connect the dots*, Suschnig 1998: 8.

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Figure 10: *Class Survey,* composed of:

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Figure 11: *Family Quartet*, composed of:

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Figure 14: Body Silhouette, Bichlmayer 1988a: 35.

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Forte 2001: 119,120.

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Figure 17: *Parts of the body,* Suschnig 1998: 32.

Figure 18: *Picture of different clothes*, composed of:

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Figure 21: *Clothes Quartet II,* Suschnig 1998: 17.

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Figure 45: *Final Board Game,* self designed.

Figure 46: *Final Board Game Questions,* self designed.

10. APPENDIX

Questionnaire

My name is Fiona Larsen and I am studying English and History at the University of Vienna, Austria in order to become a High School teacher. I want to write my thesis on the English learning situation for Tibetan people who live in exile in India.

If you have any questions or if you are interested in the results, feel free to contact me:

Email: efionalarsen@hotmail.com

Please cross the to you appropriate answer:

1) What is the most advanced school you have attended so far?

   - o Elementary School
   - o Middle School
   - o High School
   - o College
   - o University

2) In which country/countries did you go to school?

   _____

3) Have you been learning English so far?

   - o Yes
   - o No

4) If you have been learning English, how long have you been doing so?

   - o Less than a year
   - o 1-2 years
   - o 3-4 years
   - o more than 4 years

5) How would you evaluate your English level?

- o absolute beginner
- o advanced beginner
- o intermediate learner
- o advanced learner

6) Where have you been learning English?

- o Tibet
- o India
- o Nepal
- o Other countries:_____

7) Do you know any other languages besides your mother tongue?

- o No
- o Yes:_____

7.a) If so, where did you learn it/them? _____

7.b) How long have you been learning it/them?

i)_____

- o Less than a year
- o 1-2 years
- o 3-4 years
- o more than 4 years

ii)_____

- o Less than a year
- o 1-2 years
- o 3-4 years
- o more than 4 years

8) How much time are you willing to spend on improving your English?

	at home					in class				
Time in minutes per week	0-15	16-30	31-45	46-60	>60	0-15	16-30	31-45	46-60	>60
Reading										
Writing										
Studying Vocabulary										
Listening										
Speaking										

9) Do you own any books written in English?

- o Yes
- o No

10) Do you own any English language learning books or materials?

- o Yes
- o No

11) Where do you have access to English? (multiple answers possible)

- o Internet
- o Newspapers
- o Magazines
- o TV
- o Cinema
- o Radio
- o Following International Sport Events
- o Participation in Sports
- o Songs
- o Friends and associates
- o Other possibilities:_____

12) Why do you want to study English? (multiple answers possible)

- o To use it in your job
- o To improve your job situation
- o To work as a translator
- o To be involved in the Tibetan situation
- o To learn about other cultures
- o To promote the Mission of Buddhism
- o To move to another country
- o To talk to other people
- o Other reasons:_____

13) How do you feel about the following statements?

Please make a cross on the line, where you feel it is appropriate for you; for example:

Positive Negative

e.g. English is difficult. ----------X---

a) English is a prestigious language.

---

b) It is wired for me to listen to a Tibetan conversation where once in a while English words are used.

---

c) I understand those English words used in a Tibetan conversation.

---

d) I try to avoid being exposed to English.

Personal questions:

14) What is your mother language? _____

15) Which language do you speak at home? _____

16) What is your nationality? _____

17) How old are you?

- o Younger than 16
- o 16-18
- o 19-21
- o 22-25
- o 26-30
- o over 30

18) What is your sex?

- o Male
- o Female

19) What is you occupation, if you have one?

_____

20) How long have you been living in India?

- o 1-3 months
- o 4-6 months
- o 6-9 months
- o 9-12 months
- o longer than 1 year

21) What other countries have you visited so far?

_____

Thank you for your time and effort!!!!!!

11. CURRICULUM VITAE

First names / Surnames	Evelyn Fiona Larsen
Nationality	Austrian
Date of birth	04. Feb. 1983
	Work experience:
Dates	1998-2008
Occupation	Working for Hilfswerk, Lernquadrat, and Union Baden Teaching various English and Sports classes to children and teenagers Giving private tutoring lessons
Dates	2000-2005
Occupation	Working as a ski instructor in Salzburg and Lower Austria
Date	2007
Occupation	Working as a volunteer in Mcleod Ganj, North India
Date	2009
Occupation	Supervising "family holidays" for the Wiener Jugenderholung
	Education and training:
Dates	1989-1993
Schooling	Elementary School in Baden
Dates	1993-2001
Schooling	Gymnasium Baden "Biondekgasse" Graduation with High Honours
Date	2000
Schooling	Certified ski instructor (Anwärter and Children's instructor)
Dates	2001-2002
Schooling	Studying "Chemistry"
Dates	2002-2010
Schooling	Studying "History" and "English" at the University of Vienna in order to become a teacher
Date	2004 (Wintersemester)
Schooling	Studying "Anthropology" at Scottsdale Community College, Phoenix, Az.
Dates	2005-2010
Schooling	Studying "Anthropology" at the University of Vienna
Mother tongue	German
Other languages	English, Latin, Ancient Greek