

Community Supported English (CSE)

By

Kristine (Kiki) Augustin

A Master's Paper

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Arts in TESOL

Major Advisor's Signature

Date

University of Wisconsin-River Falls

2017

Abstract

Implementing a socio-cognitive approach to English learning in a localized context means creatively adapting plans to include lessons in the community and the classroom. A complementary approach to traditional approaches in an educator's toolkit is Community Supported English (CSE). Drawing on ideas from the local foods movement and place-based education, CSE uses local resources and connections to personalize learning for international university students or adult immigrants. Acknowledging the metaphor that the complexity of place metaphorically mirrors the complexity of the English learners challenge means building bridges to the community for the reciprocal benefit of all parties. Place is enhanced by newcomers and the newcomers learn from place-based connections with community partners. Challenges exist in this model, yet the goal for the learners remains an increase in linguistic and social competency while expanding the comfort zone of the classroom to include the community. The learner, instructor, and community benefit from this model in ways that enhance the social cohesion of a particular place. Two ways to implement CSE lessons will be discussed: service learning for language learners and ESL students-as-researchers. The localized focus of this paper includes a unit of month-long academic and pragmatic English lessons within the community of River Falls, Wisconsin.

Keywords: place-based education, community, service learning, ESL students-as-researchers, socio-cognitive approach, Community Supported English (CSE)

Acknowledgements

Thank you to my husband, Wayne, my two kids, John and Hattie, and my parents, Jack and Julie. Without their tireless support of my “project,” this paper would not have been possible. Our belief in each other is what gives each of us hope. My advisor, Dr. Douglas Margolis, gave much support, encouragement, and productive feedback along the way. Rhonda Petree and Diane Jacobson in the English Language Transition (ELT) Program have been amazing mentors. Conan Kmiecik helped spark an idea and let me run with it. Thank you to Dr. Annette Klemp for teaching me patience in teaching, and to Dr. Amy Frederick for serving on my defense committee. A community has embraced me; now is the time to contribute to that process for others.

Table of Contents

Introduction – CSE.....	6
1. A Complementary Approach.....	7
2. Making the Connection: CSA to CSE.....	9
3. The Social Realm – Theory & Background.....	12
4. The Constituent Parts of CSE.....	14
4.1 Place-Based Education for Language Learners.....	14
4.2 Task-Based Design.....	15
4.3 Pragmatics.....	23
4.4 Service Learning.....	26
4.5 ESL Students-as-Researchers.....	29
5. Challenges and Benefits.....	32
5.1 Recent Politics.....	33
5.2 Additional Challenges and Opportunities.....	34
5.3 Community Benefit.....	36
6. Implications for Instructors.....	37
6.1 Professional Development.....	37
6.2 Identifying Community Partners.....	38
6.3 Additional Support.....	40
Conclusion.....	41
7. The CSE Unit Plan.....	44
7.1 The Place.....	44
7.2 The Learners and Their Needs.....	45
7.3 The Course.....	45
7.4 The Class Arrangement.....	48
8. The CSE Lesson Plan.....	49
8.1 Unit One.....	49
8.2 Unit Two.....	50

8.3 Unit Three.....	52
8.4 Unit Four.....	54
8. 4.1 Day One.....	54
8.4.1.1 Week Four, Day One Plan.....	55
8.4.2 Day Two.....	56
8.4.2.1 Week Four, Day Two Plan.....	56
8.4.3 Day Three.....	57
8.4.3.1 Week Four, Day Three Plan.....	57
8.4.4 Day Four.....	59
8.4.4.1 Week Four, Day Four Plan.....	59
8.4.5 Day Five.....	59
8.4.5.1 Week Four, Day Five Plan.....	59
Unit and Lesson Plan Summary.....	62
References	
Appendices	

Introduction - CSE

Language pedagogy that makes a purposeful connection for students with meaningful tasks in a community setting is Community Supported English (CSE). Connecting “mindbodyworld” (Atkinson, 2013) for students in supported interactions can deepen the learning of language and culture. Educators who teach English to international students or adult immigrants, especially at the intermediate level, may wish to teach in class *and* in the community. This effort will strengthen the connection between language and culture, as well as bridge the gap towards reciprocal communication for students and community members alike.

Two ways to implement CSE will be discussed in this paper: service learning and English as a second language (ESL) students-as-researchers. These modes of student interaction in community settings encourage language learners to push their boundaries or comfort zone, while offering learners authentic communication contexts, rich input, and natural interactions. The overall goal common to each type of task, besides the increase in linguistic competency, is to get students outside the campus or peer “bubble” (Askildson, Kelly, & Mick, 2013, p.412) to foster authentic interactions. According to Fields et al. (2017), engagement within a community or community of practice (Wenger, 1998) is synonymous to service learning. Likewise, research and tasks outside of class that include community participants could also be categorized as community engagement.

Because CSE is a complementary and developing pedagogy, the next section will outline foundational ideas that shape this way of teaching. The work of Atkinson (2011, 2013) provides a foundation in a socio-cognitive approach that considers language acquisition within a specific context.

1. A Complementary Approach

Intercultural and socio-cognitive approaches to language learning are growing influences in language pedagogy. This influence contrasts traditional second language acquisition (SLA) approaches that may not consider context or the situation where the learning occurs (Atkinson, 2013 & 2011; Byram & Grundy, 2003; Corbett, 2003). According to Block (2003), traditional SLA research approaches have neglected the situational context in which learners acquire language. While there are many important aspects to traditional language teaching and learning, there are also limitations. One limitation is the overemphasis on cognition in the classroom, without considering the influences of interaction of the mind and body “out into the world” (Atkinson, 2011, p.144). A socio-cognitive approach that complements a traditionally cognitive one means that the mind and the context in which the mind operates in a place become one.

Atkinson (2011) calls socio-cognitive approaches to language learning “alternative” approaches because traditional ways may have an overemphasis on cognition, but forget about the body and the world encapsulating the mind. Essentially, a need to center the learner in a context, situation, or place considers a holistic and global perspective to the acquisition of language. This orientation to SLA means that praxis, or theory and action together, adopts a transdisciplinary perspective (Liskin-Gasparro, 2012). Interdisciplinary approaches in SLA are well established, but the prefix “trans” signifies an approach that not only includes other disciplines, but also crosses boundaries. An orientation that includes all parts of human experience in a situational context is what defines a socio-cognitive approach with a transdisciplinary perspective. In this paper, the CSE lessons will literally cross the campus boundaries to explore language in the library, art studios, and city hall.

A holistic and transdisciplinary perspective includes a pedagogical change in day-to-day activities. Task-based or project-based lessons in a communicative class can be one way in which the pedagogy reflects this holism. Nunan's (1989) framework for language-learning tasks elucidates this centering idea in terms of the goal, input, roles of the teacher and the learner, activities, and finally the setting. Additionally, Long (2015) describes task-based activities for language teaching through an historical lens that is rooted in progressive philosophies towards education (p.9). Giving weight to each of these components in the learning of language becomes the educator's objective for developing meaningful activities. Meaningful task-based activities for students in CSE lessons can range from scavenger hunts at the grocery store to research visits at local libraries. Subsequently, a syllabus or unit plan can have tasks that students must accomplish outside of the classroom such as surveys, questionnaires, or observations in the community.

Research on the setting or place where the learning happens, particularly if it is outside of the classroom, has often been neglected in favor of observational studies within classroom settings (Watson-Gegeo, 1988). In fact, Robinson's (2011) review of task-based teaching and research *only* addresses classroom learning or experimental lab studies, nothing outside of the class or lab walls. Yet, as Atkinson (2011) outlines, the learner connects ideas by outwardly projecting cognition. Long's (2015) analysis of tasks does not ignore interaction in communication, but the focus remains on the mind working in the classroom. Therefore, what if teachers augment task-based lessons to include the mind working in the community, as well as in the classroom?

The next section will establish another connection for CSE. The primary idea for CSE lessons comes from the local food and agriculture movement, namely, community supported agriculture (CSA).

2. CSA to CSE – Making the Connection

In the 1990's, a social response to the concurrent needs of increased market interest in sustainable agriculture, care for local places, and a consumer-driven demand for high quality produce pushed many small farmers to become innovators. Farmers decided to sell shares in their farms as well as connect their work to the community in which they lived; this concept became known as community supported agriculture, or CSA, and has since grown considerably (Adam, 2006).

Reynolds (2000) describes the connections between the consumer and producer as critical to the success of CSA. He states that, "The CSA is not a single farm but the place in a web of complementary farms where consumers connect with the land" (p.3). Conceptually, this web is as a way for people to communicate and connect across perceived boundaries, and to support local economies for the benefit of all. (Sharp, Imerman, & Peters, 2002). CSA farms are particularly helpful and successful at the crossroads between rural and urban living (Adam, 2006; Donahue, 2004); CSA farms bridge the gap between two groups who may have been previously unknown to each other. In a similar fashion, CSE attempts to bridge the gap between English learners and community members.

In addition to bridging gaps, the development of CSA farms according to Zsolnai (2002), promotes a truly sustainable operation from a social economic standpoint. He argues that local supply and production of goods and services helps communities "develop economic cultures that

enable them to live a good life within the limits of their own places, and at the same time, to maintain the integrity and stability of the natural world” (p.661). As such, the connections established between consumers and producers strengthen the bonds of shared community in a mutually beneficial relationship that has broader implications for the cohesion of a localized society and the stability of natural resources. In the same way, CSE can help English learners feel a greater sense of belonging and create understanding between parts of the community that might know very little about each other.

Furthermore, Donahue (2004) describes CSA farms as an answer to a “dominant” system of food production because the anonymity between the producer and consumer collapses to a personal interface. The boundaries soften and the reciprocal nature of a face-to-face relationship, not anonymity, becomes the overriding feature. The direct interaction between people who were previously anonymous to each other is a key element of the CSA model. Similarly, this direct interaction is the principle most likely to promote success for CSE because it means English learners will have more opportunities for direct, communicative practice.

Just as the local food movement seeks alternatives to the mainstream commodification of vital resources (Donahue, 1994), English language instructors need to move beyond the textbook and develop community connections in order to enhance personalized classroom learning (Corbett, 2003, p.4). In this model, individualized language learning or teaching does not have a monoculture or dominant system attitude (Liskin-Gasparro, 2012). The diversity of systems, whether in agriculture or language learning, strengthens the foundation of the whole. The whole becomes stronger when all participants engage across boundaries and develop personal relationships.

With the accepted assertion that a CSA farm can be a holistic source for direct interaction that may connect people across boundaries, the idea for a similar ethos to evolve for the pedagogy of English language takes shape in the form of CSE. CSE lessons break down the typical learner-to-instructor frame to include a community partner. The linguistic relationship becomes like the producer/consumer model in CSA farms with the instructor acting as the bridge from one to the other. Connections form that benefit the local economic and social fabric. For example, a visit to a local shop can include the interaction of the students and community members not only for cross-cultural understanding, but also because the students will become customers participating in the local economy. CSE lessons in the community can bridge social, linguistic, and economic gaps.

Many educators successfully engage in establishing a community within a classroom setting. Personal relationships may exist within the classroom, but not outside of the classroom with community members who are not usually a part of the classroom activities. The CSE model seeks to add to this classroom success by including community partners who can offer authentic input and personal connections with learners. This enhances language acquisition because of the varied input. Expanding the idea of where the classroom ends and the community begins is a central concept in CSE.

Wendt (2003) describes a holistic language learning approach that sees the learner as integral, individual, and a part of the contextual surroundings. He further asserts that research should include both the context and the process that contribute to the idea that a language learner simultaneously lives in two worlds (p.93). Atkinson's (2011, 2013) socio-cognitive approach of mind-body-world is central to this discussion and furthers the objective of connecting place, learning, and learner. Ultimately, the goal is to improve connections, both for the learners and for

the community. Paradigms such as the local food movement already exist; the shift towards language teaching that expands beyond the classroom can assume a similar paradigm.

In order for this shift to happen, the next section will provide some background in the concept of social learning.

3. The Social Realm – Theory and Background

An influential theory of learning developed in the late 1990's by Etienne Wenger contributes to the idea that learning is a complex mechanism with integral elements of identity and place. Wenger (1998) coins this learning and active space as a “community of practice” in which we negotiate and learn with each other through practice. “Practice is...a process by which we can experience the world and our engagement with it as meaningful” (p.51). The practice by which we communicate, participate, and learn from each other becomes the elemental way that we establish meaning in our minds. Establishing this meaning also critically shapes our own identities, particularly as social beings (p.57).

As social beings, the critical element that binds culture together in the social fabric is interaction (Enfield & Levinson, 2006, p.9). Human interaction, with all the nuances and commonalities that transcend shared language, becomes a part of the underpinning to English language learning in context. Additionally, talk and action together are, “...an intrinsically public, collaborative process...” that can convey “...construction of meaning with very slender resources” (Enfield & Levinson, 2006, p. 14-15). These insights about sociality add more support to the idea that language acquisition succeeds through interaction.

David Block's work discusses and supports the social power of language learning in context. In a 2003 secondary compilation of SLA research, Block critically re-evaluates old

models of SLA that did not acknowledge the social aspect. Throughout the text, Block identifies the work of researchers like Tarone & Liu, Michael Breen, and Susan Gass who are bringing in the social aspects of language to their work. Later, the work of Mike Long (1996) also addresses the social aspect of language in the interaction hypothesis: face-to-face communication supports second language acquisition.

In particular, Block's analysis of the work of Michael Breen gives a conceptual framework to these ideas. Breen's (2001) model of the learner contributions to language learning, directly examines the social contexts that English learners may experience outside of the classroom, and how these contexts can affect their learning. Breen calls this the "wider community identity and participation" (p.127), and diagrams it in terms of one of the many transitional layers that a learner travels through on their way to proficiency.

However, this transitional travel towards proficiency encompasses several questions. What happens when a new person arrives in a new place? What is it like to be a newcomer? How do you communicate within the new social ecosystem to which you seek to belong, or at least participate? Connecting language learning in a socially relevant way leads to a local and contextual approach that values the learner's experience within the setting (Landay, et al., 2001). This personalized viewpoint means asking participatory and lived experience questions and leads to more questions about how to bridge the divide, not only in terms of space and place, but also in terms of language. Thus, English educators can foster social engagement in language learning outside of the classroom using place and task-based topics in their lessons. For example, assignments to approach native speakers for surveys or questionnaires can help learners accomplish language tasks and meet new people while also learning content material.

Consequently, educators using this approach can follow through with connecting place and learning so that classroom teaching has a deeper, contextualized focus.

A significant part of CSE lessons is the place in which they happen. Therefore, the next section will build upon this emerging carrier of culture and language by describing the constituent parts of this approach, beginning with place-based education.

4. The Constituent Parts of CSE

4.1 Place-Based Education for Language Learners

What is place? For the purposes of this review, the term “place” means the localized geography in which an individual interacts with others or with external contexts. Place can refer to a specific geographic location, immediate surroundings, or a conceptual term for a technological place like a website or chatroom (Oblinger, 2006; Smith, 2002; Woodhouse & Knapp, 2000). “Place” is a point in space, a particular position, or the physical environment (Merriam-Webster, 2016). Waite (2013), Tan & Atencio (2016), and Smith (2002) also define “place” in terms of the social sphere that includes culture, history, and local knowledge. The place for language learning can be a classroom, but the idea of “place” in CSE means that the environment outside of the classroom takes precedence. “Place” is, therefore, a multidimensional concept that metaphorically mirrors the complexity of the English language learner’s challenge.

This concept functions in many fields of study under the umbrella-term of place-based education. Positing a language learner within this complex idea of “place” means adapting pedagogical aims to include the local context (Askildson, Kelly & Mick, 2013). For example, lessons about local infrastructure for ESL students studying to be engineers, walking field trips to the local bookstore for lessons about literacy in the United States, or presentations about how

local rainwater runoff affects water quality for ESL students studying to be biologists are ways in which place-based education for language learners succeeds.

Oftentimes, place-based education has focused on environmental or science learning through nature studies (Smith, 2002, p.588), outdoor adventure education (Tan & Atencio, 2016, p.25), or Learning Outside the Classroom (LOtC) curriculum (Waite, 2013, p.413). A review of the literature reveals that place-based education as a form of community-building, inclusiveness for language learners, and a mode for developing linguistic competencies has yet to be studied in depth. Thus, place-based education for language learners needs to draw on parallel ideas that include a socio-cognitive approach within communities of practice, task-based design, and lessons in pragmatics (Atkinson, 2011 & 2013; Campbell, MacPherson, & Sawkins, 2014; Pica et. al, 1996; Springer & Collins, 2008; Wenger, 1998; Yates & Major, 2015; Yule, 1996). Each of these pedagogical ways to approach language learning acknowledge the learner's experience in context and in contact with native speakers and other learners. An emphasis on place and individualized learning in language pedagogy begins with the importance of the learner's contributions to the contextual space in which they learn, be it in the classroom or in the community.

In traditional place-based education, students are encouraged to use observational techniques to deepen their understanding of ecological systems and natural resources (Smith, 2002, p.584). Zandlivet (2014) states that traditional place-based education does not necessarily have one theoretical underpinning; rather, it is an eclectic mix of several different fields. The central focus of place-based education is on the location where the learning is occurring (p.20).

Primary and secondary schools in Europe and Australasia have used elements of place-based education since the ideas were delineated in the late 1980's and early 1990's (Smith,

2002). However, the historical background for place-based education comes primarily from the educational ideas of John Dewey and his belief that disconnects between learning and everyday experiences do not encourage the construction of individual meaning (Smith, 2002, p.586). This idea from Dewey provides some of the strongest conceptual evidence that place-based education can be adapted for language learners. The everyday linguistic experiences that shape meaning for students of English naturally connect a learner with place, language, and community (Landay et al., 2001; Lee & Schulte, 2013; McPherron & Randolph, 2013; Shohamy et al., 2010), especially in the English as a second language (ESL) setting.

Essentially the place-based importance in language learning presupposes the idea that place enhances learning; Diana Oblinger (2006) writes that the space itself can be an “agent of change” and students respond to their surroundings in ways that are participatory and experiential. The milieu in which we live, work, and interact with others is the community context that can be difficult for language learners to access. Consequently, the social integration that learners desire needs a curricular focus (Campbell, MacPherson, & Sawkins, 2014, p.75). For example, many international students have media-fueled, preconceived notions about police and gun culture in the United States. A CSE visit to the local police station might dispel stereotypes that police in the United States always use force or should be feared. The space for change becomes a language lesson and a lesson in culture simultaneously. Subsequently, if a space becomes more familiar for students through repeated visits and focused activities or tasks, the language and cultural learning are increased and enhanced (Askildson, Kelly, & Mick, 2013).

Kramersch’s (1993) look at the cultural context of language teaching is an overview from the perspective of a language teacher. Although Kramersch is a foreign language teacher and not an ESL teacher, the ideas she outlines about the importance of situating the learning within the

complexity of culture resonate well with the ideas of place-based education for language learners. Specifically, she describes the newest direction of language teaching as one in which culture and language are a *place* [my emphasis] where native speakers and learners struggle with cross-cultural exchanges with dialogue and reflection (p. 24-26). She states, “A teacher’s responsibility is to give learners a ‘space’ to make their own meanings and help them interpret those meanings.” (p.26) Kramersch (2008) goes on to describe the *ecology* [my emphasis] of language learning, clearly describing current SLA theories in terms of context, place, and setting.

Central to the idea of place-based education for language learners is the formation of identity based on authentic relationships with other people and other places. Waite’s (2013) primary research study is a cross-sectional analysis of place-based education in a localized context in the southwest of England. While her primary focus is on environmental education for children, the observations made about the importance of place to identity are framed within a broader outlook on the changing nature of education: an outlook that includes Learning Outside the Classroom (LOtC). Waite makes connections to what happens with cultural identity when the learning happens in contexts other than the classroom. She outlines and reiterates the idea that identity and attachment to place are necessary for cultural cohesion (Raymond, Brown, & Weber, 2010 as cited by Waite, 2013, p.425).

Traveling into this new cultural cohesion as a learner means establishing an identity in a specific place; therefore, a significant component of the CSE idea starts with place-based education. Up to now, it has been primarily a science-based approach: the surroundings and the natural ecosystem of any given locality are unique to that place, and they are valid sources and resources for learning (Smith, 2002; Tan & Atencio, 2016; Waite, 2013; Woodhouse & Knapp, 2000; Zandlivet, 2014). However, the resources of a place can go beyond merely the natural

resources. The resources of place can also include the people and communities that make that place a livable and societal whole within the unique ecosystem we associate with one place or region. According to Shohamy et al. (2010), the people that inhabit one place are linguistic members of that place; they may speak the same language in many ways: visually, orally, and kinesthetically. Helping learners access this place-based knowledge by introducing them to these different ways communicating is a central goal of CSE.

Place-based education for language learners at any level in the form of CSE lessons must have a meaningful focus with components of in-class and out-of-class activities. Adopting a task-based curriculum can focus the learning on local context “in order to enhance connections with real-world communities of practice” (Campbell, MacPherson, & Sawkins, 2014, p.70). The next section will discuss elements of task-based design in CSE language teaching.

4.2 Task-Based Design

A meaningful activity that is accomplished and completed in a real-world context (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2014, p.31) generally defines the term “task.” Ellis & Barkhuizen use the word “meaningful” in contrast to “form-focused.” Additionally, tasks can happen in a class setting (pedagogic), or in a community setting (authentic) and often take the form of role-plays, communicative gap activities, or interviews (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2014, p.31-33). Corbett (2003) adds to this task definition by stressing the importance of intercultural competence within tasks by using observation and mediation during a task completion (p.4). He draws on the work of David Nunan (1989) who developed a framework for tasks in the classroom. The framework for communicative tasks includes six aspects: the goal, activities, input, learner and teacher’s roles, and the settings (Corbett, 2003, p.39). Long (2015) outlines many different types of tasks, like two-way, open, closed, divergent, complex, planned, familiar, or mixed proficiency (p.242-244),

that differ in the way they manipulate different aspects. Therefore, a task can take many forms and ideally is suited to the needs of the learner.

Tasks that marry the needs of the learner with situational or personalized learning in a specific place have a strong theoretical background in the ideals of progressive education (Long, 2015). Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), according to Long (2015), is the embodiment of the educator's responsibility to engage a learner in integrated studies that solve problems and answer questions in the real world (p.65). Furthermore, he asserts that the task, not the text, and promoting learning by doing are essential principles in task-based design (p.69).

In an interesting study that used task-based, jigsaw storytelling to investigate how modified input for second language (L2) learners may affect comprehensibility and output, Pica, et al. (1996) asked two main questions. (1) How do learners' interactions with other learners affect their learning? (2) What negotiation occurs between dyads of L2 learners compared to negotiation that occurs with L2 and native speaker (NS) dyads? The principal ideas behind these questions were to look at interaction, negotiation, and feedback. To address these questions, they recruited 30 English learners, whose first language was Japanese, and 10 native speakers. The participants were all university students whose task was to describe and sequence a story to either a NS or non-native speaker (NNS). In the communication tasks, Pica et al. compared the modified utterances of learners as they spoke with each other, or with a native speaker. Then, they specifically compared input and feedback from other learners next to input and feedback from NS.

Pica et al. found that second language (L2) learners can be a good source of modified input for other learners, and that learners provided more feedback to other learners than the NS did. However, the data and input in learner/NS dyads was more rich and varied. The strongest

correlation to where negotiation of meaning holds the most sway seems to be in the area of learner-to-learner feedback. The efficacy of learner-to learner feedback made learners modify their output more than the NS/learner dyads. Therefore, Pica et al. suggest that authentic task-based activities need a classroom or learner-to-learner component. In this manner, the language focus of an out-of-class task is practiced and modified according to individual needs. For example, student dyads in a classroom can formulate questions for a community member and practice them as a role-play before using the questions in a site visit. In this manner, they can get productive feedback from peers prior to the real-life implementation of the question in a community setting.

The Pica et al. study offers useful information about assigning tasks to learners for out-of-class activities. Based on the results of this study, it would seem to be very important for learner-to-learner interactions to get useful feedback from each other, before, during, and after a task. The findings of their study also suggest that learner-to-learner discussions are important for in-class activities, and that learner-to-native-speaker discussions are important for output and productive activities. This information could be used to accomplish in-class peer-to-peer practice of out-of-class language functions that would be appropriate in the daily lives of learners. Then, the rich input from native speakers can play a huge role in positive learning outcomes during the implementation of the task itself. This rich input from NS in settings outside of the classroom can add to learner's ideas of motivation, confidence, and self-efficacy (Askildson, Kelly, & Mick, 2013; Russell, 2007).

Another investigation that finds benefits to tasks both inside and outside of the classroom is Springer & Collins' (2008) exploratory study. They empirically document the difference between in-class language tasks, and out-of-class, or real world, interactions. Specifically, they

identified the roles that language learners assume given the context, and how the two different oral situations may enhance the language learning process. They investigated two research questions: How does the nature of oral interaction in classroom and real-world contexts differ and what relative benefits does each context afford the language learner? Compared to the Pica et al. quantitative study with university students, this study used a qualitative method with adult learners.

Although the study was small, the interviews and follow-up with the two adult participants, one male Russian speaker and one female Japanese speaker, were extensive. Springer and Collins used participant journals and field notes, video recordings in the class and in the field, and audio recordings while the participants volunteered in the community. The interviews with the students and observations of the students' interactions offered rich data for evaluating the learners' roles in different settings.

Springer and Collins found that classroom time allowed these learners to capitalize and focus on language and interlanguage (discrete-point focus); whereas, out-of-class volunteer activities allowed students to be “user[s]” (p.39) of the language. This use of language did not always happen in class because of time constraints or in-class focus on other topics. A key finding was that tasks are not always completed, because the learning *process* [my emphasis] is the most prominent feature of the interplay between the classroom and the community.

Springer & Collins found that language use in class and out-of-class supports learners and helps the process of language acquisition. This idea gives a strong theoretical underpinning to the concept of CSE. Ultimately, this research helps develop the idea that CSE needs in-class tasks in order to cement the out-of-class learning in the social situations that are instrumental to the CSE idea. A well-developed CSE lesson should balance time in the community with time in the

classroom as well. Another component of successful CSE, besides language practice in and out of class, is the teacher's approach to the tasks that can work in these differing settings.

Teacher's views of task-based lessons take on a unique importance in Larrotta & Brooks' (2009) book about teaching English to adults. The brief edition is a practical compilation of the experiences of teachers in the context of adult ESL classrooms. The practicing teachers write about different tasks that they assign, from dialogue journaling to listening projects in the workplace. The articles are qualitative descriptions from teachers about things that have engaged and motivated students in their teaching contexts. Many of the assignments use in-class and learner-to-learner activities based on lived experiences from workplace or community settings. The teachers' views are a valuable addition to the implementation of task-based lessons in a community setting because they are first-person accounts of the power that authentic task-based lessons can have on the lives of learners. Additionally, the different ways that individual students tackle tasks based on their own backgrounds and experiences is important to the overall theme of individualizing tasks with place-based education.

The conclusions drawn from these studies about authentic, task-based lessons that have both in-class and out-of-class components seem clear. First, students gain linguistic competency (Askildson, Kelly, & Mick, 2013). Second, students appreciate a practical focus that helps them navigate the real-world interactions that make up their daily lives (Springer & Collins, 2008; Yates & Major, 2015). Third, teaching and learning tasks that encompass in-class and out-of-class activities will be more contextualized and relevant to students (Larrotta & Brooks, 2009; Yates & Major, 2015). Additionally, they may also help students develop more of a sense of belonging, which has been found to support motivation and retention (O'Keefe, 2013; Russell, 2007).

Moreover, Nunan's (1989), Robinson's (2011), and Long's (2015) work on tasks for the communicative classroom focuses on just that, the classroom. However, if educators extend the communicative tasks to the final area of Nunan's framework, the setting, they push the boundaries of the classroom into the space outside of the classroom, whether it is the campus, or the wider community. The setting becomes the place where language learning happens. Within an individual setting, however, there are certain norms, shared concepts of behavior, and specific language used. In order to address this aspect of language learning, the next section will briefly address some research in the area of pragmatics.

4.3 Pragmatics

Some say that pragmatics is the study of language use in certain contexts. How users choose language forms for differing purposes or make meaning based on their surroundings informs the study of pragmatics. Therefore, it can be a complex pursuit because it presupposes the idea that one person can interpret another person's true meaning (Yule, 1996). This can be a frustratingly opaque task for language learners (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). However, small elements of pragmatic lessons can open up new fields of meaning for learners, especially if the lessons occur with authentic tasks such as community participation.

There are many parts to the study of pragmatics, but the main element of importance for the purposes of this review is the study of speech acts. Speech acts are language actions or intentions we use to do things with our words such as apologize, question, or promise (Yule, 1996, p.47). Drawing students' attention to the unstated or culturally complex meaning of different grammatical structures can help them become more pragmatically competent users of the language (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Tanaka, 1997). For example, practice with sentence starters for asking polite questions compared to sentence starters for gossiping with a friend may

alert students to the different ways we use language based upon audience. This pragmatic insight will help students navigate the space between the classroom and the community.

CSE lessons might help students develop pragmatic knowledge by giving them authentic interactions that require pragmatic skill. Therefore, a connected and personalized approach instrumental to CSE incorporates the study of pragmatics. When students recognize that users of the language shape the language to their needs, they are well on their way towards pragmatic competency. For example, in the lesson that accompanies this paper, students reflect on the language used to order in a fast food restaurant as compared to language used in a classroom. Exercises that draw students' attention to differences like this will develop pragmatic competency.

Additionally, this pragmatic shaping includes trying to make sense of new linguistic information based on context, or the physical environment (Yule, 1996, p.21). This idea is similar to Atkinson's (2011) view that dynamic cognition and learning happen in the world and a connection with it. He states that, "we learn *through* environmental action" (p.149). According to alternative second language acquisition, as explained by Atkinson (2011 & 2013), and the study of pragmatics, we shape the language by using it. Moreover, we shape the community by being in it.

One study that addressed this pragmatic competence for learners is Yates and Major's (2015) look at workplace chat and small talk. Small talk and social chat are areas of much concern in the study of pragmatics. The main purpose investigated the difficulty English learners may have understanding small talk. Yates and Major's participants were adult immigrants in Australia who had low-level skills at the outset of this longitudinal research. The participants described their desire to understand the social language of workplace and community settings.

Yates and Major conducted interviews and asked questions about what workplace communications were like for the learners as new users of the language. Important observations from the learners resulted in findings about socio-pragmatic language and behavior: learners need to know how to engage in and understand small talk, especially since many of them worked in the service industry (retail). Learning how to respond in workplace encounters with customers and co-workers was important to them. Additionally, the role of compliments and how to give and receive them, learning how to give negative feedback indirectly, and understanding that social and formulaic language does not always coincide with the development of deeper relationships were identified as the main areas that the learners wanted help with understanding. This study addresses the learners' views on what they need to learn in order to function as full members within a certain context or societal situation.

In addition to the learners' viewpoints, the Yates and Major study highlighted the important role that instructors can have in introducing local pragmatic competencies that may be necessary. As such, it provides more ideas about how to approach classroom activities so that the rewards are reaped outside of class. Teachers can encourage students to listen and observe their surroundings, becoming keen researchers of their contexts. Students can use journals, notetaking, or interviews to help them remember specific language points or vocabulary. In class, they can share those notes with other students. Then, role-plays based on students' ideas can help them practice the language they may need out-of-class. This type of experiential and reflective research can be a powerful way for students to unlock some of the mysteries of language use in real-world contexts.

In the lesson plan that accompanies this paper, I discuss the use of audio recordings of community members' speeches during CSE site visits. With the community member's

permission, this can be an effective way to capture natural language for the students. They can analyze it at a subsequent class for vocabulary and forms. Additionally, Ishihara & Cohen (2010) describe listening to authentic speech like this as an important way to discuss pragmatic areas like tone, distance, and word choice. The audio recordings, in addition to notes and observations from students, can further develop pragmatic skills during CSE lessons with community members.

The next section discusses primary research in one area where the task, setting, and learning are emphasized together: service learning. As one form of CSE lessons that individual instructors may choose to implement, service learning has an established pedagogy at the university level (Campus Compact, 2003).

4.4 Service Learning

The setting for learning takes on new meaning when that setting also includes a meaningful task that reciprocally helps the learner with language *and* helps a community with a real need. Service learning has a strong tradition in native English language settings like social work or civics (Perren, 2013). Many institutions have focused on service learning for pre-service teachers so that the lived experiences of teachers-in-training can contribute to their ethical growth as practicing teachers (Fields, Micek, Rosalia, Crosby, & Regalla, 2017), and provide them with practical experience from which to understand theoretical content. This ethical growth is accomplished by preparation, action, and reflection: the three central components of service learning (Eyler & Giles, 1999). However, in a handful of recent studies, the idea of service learning shows that it is a powerful tool for learning English as well (Askildson, Kelly, & Mick, 2013; Perren, 2013).

Service learning in the form of CSE lessons may accomplish many of the curricular objectives that ESL instructors establish for students: measurable outcomes of linguistic gains and the emergence of an identity as a participating member of a new community (Askildson, Kelly, & Mick, 2013; Kramersch, 2009). Additionally, the ways in which instructors assess service-learning activities (Watson & Anderson-Lain, 2014) can have a significant impact on the learning and on the community because the community partner is a co-educator in the process (p.99). Service learning seems likely to provide a variety of benefits to the main stakeholders: the students, the community, the teacher, and the educational institution (Campus Compact, 2003).

To illustrate how service learning achieves these benefits, Askildson, Kelly, & Mick (2013) reported the intercultural and linguistic gains of a group of international students during an eight-week service-learning project affiliated with Notre Dame. Thirty-nine students from twelve countries took part in an intensive program with in-class lessons and out-of-class service in the community. Two days a week, peer facilitators accompanied groups of international students to community partner sites. At these sites, they participated in projects such as supporting food pantries, nursing homes, and homeless shelters. The other three days of the week were spent in the classroom. The mix of in-class and out-of-class work was designed specifically around the needs of the students and the community partners.

With daily journaling and a focus on language development in socially contextualized situations, the international students were encouraged to reflect on their own experiences during the course. Moreover, on the second day and the last day of the program the students took a TOEFL exam. The language gains over the course of the eight-week program averaged a seventy-two-point gain in language proficiency. The researchers conclude that this phenomenal

jump in language proficiency happened in a short period because learning and engagement in the community played a substantial role.

This study at Notre Dame suggests that community engagement through service learning is a viable option for place-based education with a focus on language development. In another study that looks at the successful implementation of service learning at the university level, Perren (2013) describes the experiences of students and outlines some of the best-practice strategies that educators can use to implement service-learning projects.

Perren's study reported the actual words and thoughts from international students and the community partners who were involved in service-learning programs at a Midwestern U.S. university where ESL students were participating in a community and current events course. Perren analyzed over 150 reflections of students who took part in the service-learning project. Overall, Perren found that the students' self-reports of vocabulary gains, new cultural knowledge, and the importance of community identity emerged as key concepts in the data. Perren also identified three themes that emerged, "*novelty* as empowering, community membership as transformative learning, and *effort* as struggle and resistance" (p.503). Finally, he concluded that ESL students preferred the service-learning opportunity to other forms of learning because they experienced transformational personal growth in addition to the development of new language skills. Furthermore, the students gained a sense of new identity as community members because of the task-based connections they made during the service learning.

Service learning projects at food pantries, nursing homes, and homeless shelters are successful ways in which CSE lessons can be conceived. Using the resources and skills of students as they adjust to a new place would seem to be a valuable option for connecting place and learning with the goal of language development. Service learning works, especially for

language learners, because it gives them authentic opportunities to interact in the target language in ways that require basic language. This, in turn, can offer students new insight about classroom-acquired forms. Another option for developing language skills within a community setting is to position ESL students-as-researchers.

4.5 ESL Students-as-Researchers

The concept of CSE lessons has a strong connection to many other fields of study including the scientific pursuits of ethnography and anthropology (Corbett, 2003; Watson-Gegeo, 1988). These areas of study do not acknowledge a chasm between language and culture, just as this CSE approach to language teaching and learning does not encourage a divide between learner, community, and classroom. In order to bridge the divide for students, an educator can approach CSE lessons by assigning tasks whereby the student assumes the role of a curious researcher (Corbett, 2003; McPherron & Randolph, 2013; Tanaka, 1997).

If teachers start with a perception that language students are processing new linguistic information like researchers in any situation, the idea of place-based tasks with students formally acting as researchers is a natural conclusion. Authentic task-based assignments whereby the students and teachers choose a group or community to study; research, interview and analyze representative members of that group; and analyze data to form linguistic or cultural hypotheses are powerful ways to unlock new cultural and linguistic learning. These are roles of participant observation whereby a student is actively involved and consciously observing simultaneously. Finally, ESL students present their “findings” (Corbett, 2003, p.113) as an assessment of the learning.

In a qualitative study that incorporates student research for language gain, Rivera described a literacy program for Latinas in New York City during the 1990's. The students had low literacy levels and needed ESL training. Based on the individual needs of the students, a critical research program was adopted. The learners looked at how social policies in action affected their lives. Using the participatory approach, the program included the women's native language, and encouraged the students to analyze the realities of their own lives within the community. Central to the program was linking the students' lives to the communities in which they lived and worked; the women did so using interviews and video-journaling, primary tools in the ethnographer's toolkit. The findings of the student researchers and the reporting by Rivera show the power of the participatory approach, especially for groups who may feel isolated from the dominant social community. Giving a voice to the thoughts, ideas, and struggles of people who are not in the majority can be an important step in social change, and acceptance within the community. The ethnographic and critical approach that the students used to develop more language skills and integrate ideas about society reveals the strength of the idea of ESL students-as-researchers. Students reported feeling empowered to use language in the community because they had a job to do as ethnographers.

Lee & Schulte (2013), in another qualitative investigation, discuss students' synthesis of out-of-class information in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting. The study describes a new academic niche called linguistic landscape research. This new field sees the modern text all around us, in every sign, street, and store (Shohamy et al., 2010). Lee and Schulte apply this idea to research pedagogy by assigning undergraduate students at a Korean university with out-of-class tasks aimed at helping them understand texts and writing from a new perspective.

The Korean undergraduate students who participated in this study self-developed research projects in which they looked at language on business and street signs in Seoul, South Korea. The students and their instructor went to different parts of the city and photographed how, when and where English and languages besides Korean appeared. Finally, they reflected upon why some signs used symbols and English words, and why some did not. In the words of one of the student participants, this research helped her see that “words have some kind of image and certain diverse meanings and there do [sic] not exist perfect synonyms...” (p.114).

This investigation positioned the students as researchers in visual literacy (Corbett, 2003). The Korean students identified different aspects of text. For example, many texts in an area of the city frequented by young people used more English and visual symbols. Texts in areas of the city where there were residents that were more elderly had no English translations. Therefore, the students reflected not only on language use, but also on language change. As a result, they became more critically aware of the ways in which texts can convey identity, and establish the nature of place. The students came to recognize different functions of language, and the adoption of identity based on language use. Additionally, they gained a better understanding of how and why certain texts were composed or adapted.

I find this emerging field of linguistic landscape research to be central to the ideas of assigning interesting task-based assignments in the community, especially at the university level. This study gives more weight to the idea that the classroom can expand to include the place outside of the classroom walls. How we read texts and genres in street signs, business signs, and billboards is another way in which a language lesson can become a window to critical thinking about one’s place in society or one’s position in a new place. For example, when students in an ESL setting read and interpret signs in a community, critical thinking about formal and informal

language, the place of grammar in American culture, or observations about the local economy may develop. A linguistic landscape project in the community has the potential to unlock this learning in addition to language development.

Finally, a study by McPherron & Randolph (2013) followed two university ESL classes that used ethnographic techniques to make comparisons between home and U.S. cultures. They asked the students to observe situations in order to discover why people in the U.S. “do what they do” (p.316). McPherron and Randolph introduced the projects by discussing stereotypes and prejudices with the students so that critical reflection on personal bias was apparent from the outset of the project. Then, students reflected on some of the things they had already observed about U.S. culture that intrigued or surprised them. From this reflection, students chose research sites at coffee shops or grocery stores and compared their observations at these U.S. sites to comparable places from their home culture. From these projects, the students, “Reported that they enjoyed practicing research work, as it prepared them for future university work and gave them motivation to approach local residents” (p.328).

The ESL student-as-researcher idea can be implemented creatively in many ways. The next section presents several practical applications and outlines some of the implicational challenges of using the CSE approach to language teaching. Putting service-learning tasks or student-as-researcher assignments into practice means that the educator needs to prepare for a myriad of possible outcomes.

5. Challenges and Benefits

The intersection of language learning and community involvement can be a challenge for many learners (Springer & Collins, 2008; Yates & Major, 2016). Whether they are international

students, or adult immigrants, the difficulty of engaging with a local community of native English speakers poses new questions and opportunities for students. These questions and opportunities for learning can include strictly linguistic issues, but ultimately context, language, and culture are inter-related because they are constructs that we assemble based on our lived realities (Wendt, 2003, p.96). Yule's (1996) introductory text to the study of pragmatics refers to co-text as the linguistic environment and context as the physical environment in which language is used (p.21). Acknowledging and building upon the lived, daily realities, or contexts, of learners who are outside of the majority language and culture may help lessen their challenge (Larrotta & Brooks, 2009; Rivera, 1999).

5.1 Recent Politics

The above ideals, however, do not convey the recent political climate and government actions regarding immigration status. On January 25, 2017 and March 6, 2017, President Donald Trump signed executive orders 13768, 13767, and 13780. These executive orders focus on immigration policy, as well as interior and border security (Chishti, Pierce, & Bolter, 2017). According to the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers [AACRAO], many international students and their families view these executive orders as exclusionary and negatively targeted toward certain groups (*Trending Topics Survey*, 2017). Moreover, this perception within the immigrant and international community as a whole has contributed to feelings of uncertainty and fear (Svrluga, 2017).

The focus of these policies does not lessen the challenge of establishing an identity within a local community or learning to communicate as a contributing member of that community. In fact, the opposite is true. The reporting information associated with the executive orders "will skew public perceptions of immigrants, both legal and unauthorized" (Chishti, Pierce, & Bolter,

2017). English learners may feel unwelcome and unsafe (Blad, 2016; Svrluga, 2017) because of the quantified increase in negative language and attitudes that the Southern Poverty Law Center (2016) has labelled the “Trump Effect.”

Therefore, the welcoming and inclusive message of CSE lessons becomes even more critical: community members get to know the immigrants or international students in their midst. For community members and students who actively participate in CSE lessons, new economic and social connections strengthen the fabric of the local community by potentially dispelling negative attitudes or beliefs. The reciprocal learning relationship can be beneficial to the community’s economic, political, and social well-being because business gets new customers, government gets feedback from active citizens of other nations, and all parties interact for the benefit of learning. Moreover, immigrants and international students, who may believe that all Americans agree with the Trump administration’s executive orders, may discover that local citizens who oppose these policies welcome learners as individuals.

5.2 Additional Challenges and Opportunities

Implementing place-based education for language learning poses many other opportunities and challenges for the students and the educator. Along with logistical issues, partner commitments, and the potential need for mediation, some of the other opportunities and challenges are the need for critical and reflective thinking, time to make the community connections, and support from other teachers or institutions to facilitate a task-based lesson design in the form of CSE.

A balanced curriculum that includes lessons taught and learned in a community setting also needs time in the classroom. Yet, when it comes time to go into the community, how do the

students get there? CSE lessons work well in small communities where the classroom setting is in a central location, or the campus/classroom is nearby. The logistical transportation issues of implementing CSE lessons in a large city are myriad and include other complications like insurance (Askildson, Kelly, & Mick, 2014). However, if students can walk to the setting, CSE lessons in the community are ideal. Educators looking to implement CSE lessons must consider transportation issues and not assume that students will just get themselves to the community site. It takes coordination and planning on the part of the educator to certify that the students arrive on time and are ready to learn in the community.

This logistical planning should also include recognition that the CSE educator may need to be a community mediator. In CSE lessons the instructor acts as the linguistic bridge between the learner and the community member. If there are intercultural miscommunications or linguistic misunderstandings, the teaching burden increases. Thus, pre-teaching exercises should include discussions with students that prepare them for abrupt behavior, or other negative receptions. For example, a student venturing into the community as a researcher may encounter community members who are in a hurry and have never before communicated with someone whose first language is not English. The community member may not have the time or the patience to interact with the student. This is not ideal, but very realistic. Preparing students for this possibility means the instructor must encourage the learners to be ambassadors of their country of origin. Understanding that people are busy no matter where they are might be enough for the students. Moreover, the instructor and the learners must hope that the community members will value their shared humanity and not just the linguistic boundaries.

Educators need to remain aware that problems will arise, but humor, flexibility, and humility can extend the opportunities for learning. Approaching the idea that misunderstandings

or miscommunications will happen means that the CSE educator can foresee some of the possibilities and work to mitigate them before they occur. The ability to do so takes engaged and committed practitioners who believe in the practice of cross-cultural communication and intercultural understanding (Walker, 2012).

5.3 Community Benefit

This individualized commitment also extends benefits to the community in which the CSE lessons happen. Community members who become primary participants in CSE lessons feel pride in extending welcome to their community or place of business (E. Sayre, personal communication, December 2015). For example, after a CSE lesson, a local place of business proudly displayed a thank-you note written in Korean script after a site visit by students. This display suggests that opening doors to global citizens can be novel for community members who value meeting people from all over the world (R. Wronski, personal communication, June 2015). New friendships develop and face-to-face interaction with international students can be exciting, especially for community members who may not have the opportunity to travel internationally.

These interpersonal benefits contribute to the strength of the CSE idea, but there is a monetary benefit as well. When businesses and city halls make an effort to welcome and include international citizens and immigrants, they gain new paying customers and tourist dollars for the community. Inclusive attitudes expand the reach of a business or city to the world (Walker, 2012). Visiting international students remember good experiences and tell friends who may be the next visitors. Immigrants trying to integrate their lives in a welcoming place tell family members to join them. For local citizens unaccustomed to ethnic and linguistic diversity, this may initially be a difficult transition, but when a financial benefit is clear, entrenched attitudes towards international students or immigrants may soften (Walker, 2012).

Each of the curricular challenges and opportunities will have individual solutions and a one-size-fits-all approach would not be appropriate (Perren, 2013). Implementing CSE lessons in the form of task-based service learning or research means that challenges exist, but the benefits could be substantial. CSE lessons can enhance and beneficially change the teacher, learner, institution, and community (Campus Compact, 2003).

6. Implications for Instructors

6.1 Professional Development

One study that looked at some of the teaching issues associated with place-based education draws the conclusion that teachers need to reflect on their own beliefs and stereotypes. Tan & Atencio's (2016) study of how physical education teachers in Singapore enacted a newly-adopted and government-sponsored outdoor education curriculum draws interesting conclusions with deep implications for educators in other teaching areas. In the study, they looked at how individual teachers view and react to place-based pedagogy. Although their findings were specific to physical education teachers in Singapore, the researchers draw larger conclusions about the need for teacher's professional development when it comes to place-based pedagogy. Tan & Atencio recommend that instead of seeing "place" as the mere location where a class is taught, teachers need to critically reflect on all the elements that make a place unique. Specifically, they conclude that a concept of place is more than physical space, but also a connection with community (p.33). This connection means understanding the society, needs, and history that make that place different from others (p.25).

In addition, the professional development within the constituent parts of place-based pedagogy should include a focus on personal networking. In order to accomplish tasks in the

form of CSE lessons, a teacher needs to spend time making contact with individuals in the community who can aid this goal. Professional networking within the community can be time-consuming, but ultimately the teacher is identifying and connecting with the community participants who will make CSE a success. Students will benefit from the personal and professional contacts of the teacher because those contacts can be sources for in-class or out-of-class tasks. For example, if the community contact manages a grocery store, a lesson on shopping for groceries can include a site visit to the grocery store with a tour given by the manager. This simultaneously personalizes and contextualizes the learning. Fully developing and utilizing a network of community contacts benefits the teacher and the student in Community Supported English lessons.

6.2 Identifying Community Partners

Cultivating understanding and making connections within the community for the benefit of students involves first identifying the most appropriate and helpful partners. Who will be receptive to international students coming into their place of business, and who will not? Who will take the time to interact and establish relationships with learners, and who will not? This discovery process takes time. However, once the community partners are engaged by the motivation of helping students learn and the prospect of gaining help in return, the time commitment lessens because the relationship is established. Then, it is important to maintain the relationship through the acknowledgement of thanks and appreciation. Cultivating a mutually beneficial partnership is key (Askildson, Kelly, & Mick, 2013). Additionally, it is important for the CSE educator to respect the idea that time is a valuable commodity. Without recognition of the community members' role, the situation is skewed toward a perception that only the institution or the learner benefits (Bortolin, 2011). Simple efforts to recognize the community

partners with small gifts or thank you notes can help maintain and continue the reciprocal partnership that is so necessary to CSE.

Furthermore, the CSE educator needs to vet the surroundings and locations for the lessons so that committed partners are a part of the process. This process can again be time-consuming, but the benefits are such that the right community partners have a lot to offer students. The partners may see the value solely in the intercultural relationship, or in monetary terms. For example, opening a business to a CSE lesson means reaching out to new customers who may not have otherwise known about the business. As such, a CSE lesson can be beneficial to all parties involved. There is value in creative and serendipitous exploration of learners in the community, but a focus on a particular task takes a commitment from the educator to be certain that the students can accomplish the task. Planning and researching on the part of the instructor is elemental to CSE lessons.

Another key feature for the educator is the need for this process to be continual. New partners can be identified and relationships cultivated so that the CSE lessons remain as interesting for the teacher as they are for the students. Always looking at the community with fresh eyes, or through the eyes of the learner who is new to the place, means being a reflective and flexible practitioner. If a lesson fails, as some inevitably do, the onus for finding an innovative approach falls to the teacher (Long, 2015). Searching out a new site or a new community partner means adopting creative ways to observe the community. Reading the newspaper, listening to local news, talking with neighbors, all are ways in which the educator can conceive new ideas in pursuit of the next task in Community Supported English.

6.3 Additional Support

Teachers who may want to pursue the idea of CSE lessons in an ESL setting also need to remain cognizant of the need for additional lessons in western or American culture, particularly if the CSE task involves service learning (Askildson, Kelly, & Mick, 2013; Perren, 2013; Russell, 2007). For example, if a privileged language learner is thrust into a service-learning setting in a local food pantry, conflicts and questions could result. Furthermore, if a language learner comes from a culture where elderly family members always live with the family, the student may be upset or confused by a service-learning setting in a nursing home (Perren, 2013). Therefore, the educator must spend time preparing students for a critical analysis of some of the parts of culture they may not have previously envisioned. Lessons about social inequality, government policies, or aging, death, and dying may seem separate from the goal of gaining linguistic competency in English; however, the contextualized meaning of lessons like these during a service-learning experience could be powerful beyond measure (Askildson, Kelly, & Mick, 2013).

It also cannot be underestimated the extent to which an educator would need administrative and curricular support to implement CSE. According to MacPherson, Tanis, & Sawkins (2014): “The key challenge for curriculum developers is to support teachers and students in co-constructing a community of learners that engage in practices, knowledge, and language of the target communities.” (p.75) Adapting this idea to the local level for English learners seems to coincide well with the currently stated goals of the University of Wisconsin system, of which I am a member.

In 2016, The University of Wisconsin system convened a strategic task force to address many pertinent issues. This task force developed a long-range plan in order to strengthen and

improve the university standing within Wisconsin as a whole. They produced 2020FWD: a wide-ranging document that has establishing community connections and collaboration across boundaries as one of its stated goals. This strategic framework developed by UW System regents and community stakeholders envisions categories upon which to focus the dynamic resources of university communities. One of the four categories is entitled: “Focus on Business and Community Mobilization.” For the health of the University system and the continued vibrancy of a global outlook with a local emphasis (UW System, 2016), CSE lessons may meet many needs but ultimately need institutional support. The strategic framework of 2020FWD would seem to offer theoretical support to the CSE concept and give further proof that large institutions find value in educational opportunities that engage and connect in local communities.

Conclusion

The pursuit of English language teaching for successful second language acquisition requires a multicolored and diverse array of ideas and possibilities. There is no one way to approach it and, in fact, an eclectic approach may work best. An approach that seems to fulfill many of the stated ideas of learning based on socio-cognitive approaches to SLA is the concept of Community Supported English lessons.

CSE lessons provide a task-based approach with a background in a nascent place-based pedagogy derived originally for science education. Additionally, CSE lessons provide a focus on the idea that local context matters. This enhances a connection that is both a part of the community and within it. The adaptive interaction (Atkinson, 2013) that automatically happens between learners and community members leads to new knowledge for all parties. Tasks within the community mirrored by discrete-point and sequenced language lessons in the classroom lead to a build-up of language memory (Robinson, 2011). Then, learner-to-learner feedback within

the classroom enhances real world, out-of-class activities. Considering learners' lived experiences when designing lessons or curriculum, means considering the context in which they are learning.

Service learning for language purposes can be a powerful mediating force that helps students simultaneously view language and culture. Community projects that include aspects of service learning benefit the learner and the community (Askildson, Kelly, & Mick, 2013; Perren, 2013; Russell, 2007). However, there are many challenges to this type of language learning, and it takes a curricular commitment on the part of the educator and the institution where the learning is happening, whether it is on the campus or in the community. Yet, as the Notre Dame study in South Bend, Indiana points out, the language gains can be tremendous.

Another approach to CSE discussed above is the language student-as-researcher. Drawing on experience from anthropology and ethnography, this CSE lesson uses elements of observation and interview techniques to accomplish linguistic gains. This approach entails less time commitment than service learning. Therefore, it may be a more realistic option for the busy practitioner to implement in pursuit of the CSE idea.

All told, the concept of CSE lessons is an emerging approach that has a strong foundation in socio-cognitive language acquisition theory. Whether the language student is a participant observer or an integrated community member depends in part on the commitment of the educator. Place-based education supplies the background that place and context matter to learning because we are active members in that place. Transferring that idea to learning English, especially for international students or adult immigrants, means that the learning needs to happen both inside and outside of the classroom in order for the student to be a fully-engaged participant of the world outside the classroom window.

The next section will outline a thematic unit plan and includes a specific weeklong lesson to demonstrate how CSE could unfold in a university level course. Of the two different types of CSE previously described in the literature review, the lesson plan that follows implements the student-as-researcher idea with integrated elements of service learning such as the preparation, action, and reflection model (Eyler & Giles, 1999). My personal teaching experiences with a group of eighteen engineering students from South Korea in the summer of 2015 led to the development of CSE.

In the summer of 2015, I taught an American Culture class to a group of engineering students from South Korea. My role during that summer course was to prepare students for language learning using my insider, or *emic*, experiences (Long, 2015) as an established member of the community. The Korean undergraduate students came to the University of Wisconsin-River Falls for an immersion experience. For one month, they lived on the university campus and had daily classes in academic writing, vocabulary, and American culture. Their capstone project for the American culture class was to compile a newsletter that chronicled their time and learning in the United States. We did focused, in-class activities that were the introduction to out-of-class field trips to local sites. Furthermore, weekly informal and formative assessments were implemented in the form of dialogue journaling. Although the course was not graded, the home institution requested textual evidence of language gains. Therefore, productive informal and semi-formal assessments were integrated throughout the units in the form of writing prompts and oral presentations. This experience led to the development of the activities in the unit and lesson plans that follow.

In the spirit of place-based and locally contextualized education for English learners in the form of CSE, the lessons that follow are within my own community of River Falls, Wisconsin with an imagined group of Korean learners.

7. The CSE Unit Plan

The CSE unit plan gives an overview of a month-long course in terms of place, learners, and class arrangements. The first three weeks of the lesson plan are described in broad terms in a chart format. The specific daily lesson plans are during the fourth and final week. This design purposefully emphasizes the whole month and the climax of the concluding week. Additionally, it gives critical importance to the idea that the language learning outcomes of the students are process-based and build incrementally with experience.

7.1 The Place

River Falls is a small city in western Wisconsin with a population of about 15,000. It is home to a satellite of the state university system. Approximately 6,000 students currently attend the University of Wisconsin-River Falls, and about 140 of those students are international students from about 50 different countries. Additional educational opportunities in the city also include a technical college and a community education program through the local school district. There are several industries in town including a cookie factory, a biotechnology company, and a global software firm. The university campus is a five-minute walk to a thriving and picturesque Main Street where small, local businesses such as a food co-operative, a CSA brewery, and an independently owned bookstore do business. Using the natural and economic resources of the city as a “textbook” naturally enhances English language-learning curriculum (Kmiecik & Augustin, 2015).

The central geographic feature and great source of pride for the city is a Class I trout stream (WI DNR, 2017) that flows through the downtown area; called the Kinnickinnic River, a Menomonie Indian name for wild roses. Wild roses and other native plants grow abundantly along the banks of the river in the spring and summer. Kayaking, fly-fishing, and hiking are significant hobbies for many of the local residents because of the pristine and protected waters of the “Kinni” (KRLT, 2017).

Another significant feature of River Falls is not only the proximity to a large metropolitan area (Minneapolis/St. Paul, Minnesota), but also the rural character of the surrounding area. Farms of many different sizes surround the city limits and the original rural character of the city survives in the family-like atmosphere that many visitors perceive. The campus community also reflects this rural character because of a large population of agricultural science students.

7.2 The Learners & Their Needs

For this lesson plan, the ESL students are 16 undergraduate students in an intensive month of English-language training. Their proficiency level ranges from high-beginner to low intermediate and specific skills with which they need the most practice are speaking and listening. Because it is an ungraded summer course, the academic language is balanced with information about social language, customs, and culture that may be novel and enjoyable for the learners. They are native Korean speakers.

A main objective of the intensive program is gaining communicative competence in social and academic settings. At the outset, the students are able to listen intently and follow directions with some simple sentence responses, but they do not yet have confidence in their fluency, accuracy, or complexity. A regular university lecture, with academic language and

jargon, would be beyond their current skill set. However, a shorter community presentation that implicitly integrates social language and customs, as well as linguistic information in smaller chunks is manageable

Extensive, dialectical, or idiomatic speech is problematic for this group of students. Instruction, therefore, downsizes the complexity of native-speaker language in the community and highlights vocabulary that may be new or unknown; vocabulary acquisition and strategies to learn vocabulary are course goals. Schmitt's (2000) idea that vocabulary-learning strategies for beginners are different from strategies for advanced students contributes to the development of a hybrid strategy that uses both listing and contextual information for new words. The month-long informal assessment of the dialogue journals looks for productive evidence of this emerging strategic complexity and new productive vocabulary.

7.3 The Course

The individual course is a general skills ESL class. There are four units altogether; each unit is one week. The classes are two hours long every weekday. The units are arranged thematically around the cultural and geographical assets within walking distance of the university campus.

An integral part of each week is one or more site visits, either on campus, on Main Street, or near the city. For the site visits, the instructor has taken care to choose site visit participants who are at least minimally knowledgeable about speaking with language learners. During the vetting process of finding appropriate site-visit participants, the instructor generally mentions the need for slowing the rate of speech, giving a listener time to understand, and using simple and clear vocabulary (Petree, 2017). However, because site visit participants may not have a lot of

practice with language learners, the instructor records the speeches for playback in class so students have the opportunity to process the interaction in real-time without understanding all of what is being said. The instructor then analyzes the audio for new vocabulary, idioms, collocations, and dialect and prepares a worksheet for the students in the next day's class. This is a labor-intensive process, but one that serves to reinforce the importance of the social interaction during the experience and the discrete language forms after the experience. This tactic also makes the listening task meaningful: the students have already been an integral part of the experience. Thus, the listening releases a greater capacity for a focus on forms.

Occasionally, depending upon the site visit, the instructor will request a sample list of specific vocabulary used in the field so that students can have some introduction to new vocabulary *before* the site visit. For example, before the week two visit to the potter's studio, the instructor can communicate with the potter about phrases such as "throwing a pot" and "a slab of clay", and "the wheel". This introduction to field-specific terms also helps the students formulate their assigned questions for the site visit participant.

The four weeks of the intensive program are thematically organized to give a broad overview of the cultural aspects of a small Midwestern city. The first week sets the scene with history and geography. The second week focuses on the cultural resources of the place, including people and the arts. The third week is about food production and consumption. The culminating fourth week wraps up the learning from the previous weeks. The theme of week four centers on the natural and the built environment: How the two interact and intersect with people in a specific place becomes the underpinning theme of the whole month.

7.4 The Class Arrangement

Chairs and tables follow an open plan or lab-like format, and the teacher may sit at tables with the students. There is a computer workstation with video and sound projection for the use of technological aids. Open and free-flowing movement during the class helps the students feel comfortable with the instructor and with peers; it fosters a collaborative and adaptive interaction, avoiding a hierarchical one.

On the first day of class, the sixteen students rank a thematic group that they would like to work on for the month. Based on these rankings, the teacher will assign each student to one of the four topics according to interest, but also to the individual language levels of the students from observed formative assessments on the first day. The four groups of four students will be assigned one week during which they are responsible for presenting the learning to the whole class on the last day of the week. During their assigned week, one student takes notes, one student listens for new vocabulary, one student observes interesting pragmatic and cross-cultural differences, and one student answers the research question of the week.

These research presentations are the personal observations of the four members as well as information that they gather from other students and the instructor. The final presentations are relatively informal; however, each member of the group must orally contribute based on their assigned role. The instructor assigns the group roles according to differentiation techniques, whereby the student with the highest level of linguistic knowledge fulfills the role of answering the research question, and the student with the lowest level listens for new vocabulary or observes behaviors that seem different from their home culture.

8. The CSE Lesson Plan

8.1 Unit One (week one)

Topic: Local History & Geography (Setting the Scene)

Research Question of the Week. How does the natural landscape affect the local history and geography?

Day one	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introductions and orientation to the course including personalized video story of the life of the instructor within the local community • The concept of student-as-researcher is introduced and discussed • Students are encouraged to reflect on experiences when they did research • Instructor establishes the idea that research is asking and answering questions using observation and critical thinking.
Day two	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Orientation to campus and campus community with walking field trip. • Informational session about campus history with local historian • Special focus on unusual campus buildings or structures
Day three	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In-class processing of linguistic information from recorded walking tour with historian • Students' analysis of vocabulary, dialect, and idioms.

Day four	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Library research day with emphasis on local data • Guided research in technology-enhanced classroom looks at city website and Department of Natural Resources (DNR) website of local geography • Listening activities and guided research worksheet prepare students for day five
Day five	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Presentations from group one about the week's activities: Language and history learned during the week from their own perspectives. • Answers to research question of the week • Class finishes with reflective writing prompt in dialogue journal.

8.2. Unit Two (week two)

Topic: Cultural Resources (People & Arts)

Research Question of the Week: How do the arts contribute to your ideas about American culture?

Day one	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Linguistic preparation for a visit by a local poet and musician • Student pairs prepare questions for the poet and listen to his music with projected lyrics on video screen. • Popular music video with lyrics used as a comparison
----------------	--

Day two	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflective writing prompt in dialogue journal about the poet’s visit • Students are encouraged to write or draw their impressions. • Preparation for a site visit to a local pottery studio on day three. • Worksheet and PowerPoint slides with contextualized vocabulary and introduction to the local arts scene. • Student pairs prepare questions for potter.
Day three	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Walking tour to local pottery studio • The local pottery studio is located in the oldest building in Main Street, so the students also get more local history. • The potter gives a wheel-throwing and hand-building demonstration after which the students are encouraged to try for themselves. • The walk back to campus includes a stop at a Little Free Library where students learn details about community literacy efforts.
Day four	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recorded audio of potter’s demonstration analyzed for new vocabulary, dialect, and idioms • Reflective writing prompt in dialogue journal comparing and contrasting the arts and literacy in the US to the arts and literacy in South Korea. • Sentence starters projected on screen to initiate ideas. [See Appendix E]

Day five	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Glass-blowing demonstration by art students on campus. • Presentation by group two about the week’s activities and findings of research question.
-----------------	--

8.3. Unit Three (week three)

Topic: Food (Agriculture & Eating)

Research Question of the Week. How does American food production, food choice, and dining differ from your home country?

Day one	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mock American-style fast food diner set up in classroom before students arrive. • American student volunteers act as servers and clerks in a fast food restaurant. • Instructor directs Korean students to read a mock menu and decide what they will order. • Korean students place order and pay bill. American students speak quickly and without moderated speech so that the learners have practice in an “authentic” and fast-paced situation. • All students come together after the mock situation to ask questions and interact.
----------------	---

Day two	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unpacking and debriefing of yesterday’s mock restaurant activity. • In-class preparation for site visit to a local community supported agriculture (CSA) farm • Students learn about the concept via a video with subtitles and a cloze worksheet during a listening activity. • Student pairs prepare questions for farmer.
Day three	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students analyze audio of recorded portions of the farmer’s speech during the site visit. • New vocabulary, idioms, and collocations highlighted in a prepared worksheet • Preparation for site visit to industrial farm and grocery warehouse on day four.
Day four	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Site visit to large-scale dairy farm followed by a stop in a large grocery warehouse to find specific foods on a scavenger hunt.
Day five	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflective writing prompt in dialogue journal about the differences and similarities between the CSA and the industrial dairy farm or differences and similarities between grocery shopping in the US and South Korea. • Sentence starters initiate thoughts.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Class period ends with a <i>Jeopardy</i>-style trivia game about student learning up to this point in the program. • Group three presents their findings of the week's research question. • Weekend homework in journal is to reflect more on cultural and community differences that students have observed.
--	---

8.4. Unit Four (week four):

Topic: The Natural & the Built Environment (Place).

Overview. As with the previous descriptions about the three weeks leading up to this lesson plan, a brief introduction of each day is described. Then, a detailed a lesson plan chart follows that operationalizes the plan according to objectives, time spent, tasks, and materials needed.

This week begins with a review of last week's site visits. The theme for last week was food and focused on relationships to food and agriculture in the local economy. The field trips during unit three included a visit to a CSA farm, a large-scale dairy, and a grocery store.

8.4.1 Week Four - Day One (in class):

Research Questions of the Week. How are the local bridges and building materials reflective of the geography, ecology, or history? How do local people interact with the natural resources and infrastructure?

After a brief review of last week and a warm up, the instructor opens the week with a thematic overview of the coming week's activities. As a result, students will know what to expect and where to direct the focus of their attention for the week. The week will conclude with

a site visit to city hall and a presentation by the city engineer. Students are encouraged to begin thinking about questions they will ask the city engineer. As with previous weeks, student pairs formulate, submit, and ask at least one question during the site visit. The pair assignments designated by the instructor give care to match a lower proficiency student with a higher proficiency one.

8.4.1.1 Week Four, Day One Plan

Objective	Student pairs will select a bridge that crosses the Kinnickinnic river in order to analyze and appraise the structure. Students will use this analysis to ask specific questions to the city engineer about this bridge.
Materials	Video URL for introduction Worksheet map for bridge decision (Appendix A) Worksheet with vocabulary and question starters (Appendix B)
Warm Up	Wordless video highlighting the bridge crossings over the river.
Time	10 minutes
Task One	Walking tour to the Swinging Bridge crossing the Kinnickinnic river. At the Swinging Bridge, discussion of the architecture and engineering that makes this bridge structure possible.
Time	45 minutes
Break	10 minutes
Task Two	Student pairs choose a bridge on the local map using worksheet (Appendix A). Students study the bridge structure and learn vocabulary relating to bridge building (Appendix B). Students discuss bridge characteristics and research vocabulary meanings. Vocabulary: bridge, vehicle, pedestrian, movement, structure, design, material, concrete Student pairs use new vocabulary to formulate questions for city engineer.

Time	40 minutes
Conclusion and Preparation for next lesson	<p>Mini-presentations to the whole group about their specific bridge. Students compare notes about vocabulary and meanings.</p> <p>Students share questions for whole-class feedback.</p> <p>Students submit written questions to instructor for formative feedback and revision before site visit to city hall.</p> <p>15 minutes</p>

8.4.2 Week Four, Day Two – Library Visit for Directed Research

8.4.2.1 Day Two Plan

Objective	<p>Students will choose a theme to research: bridges (built environment) or fishing (natural environment)</p> <p>Students will use their expanding knowledge of the city to formulate or revise questions they will ask a local angler or the city engineer.</p> <p>Students will assess the characteristics of iconic bridges through a directed research activity on library computers.</p> <p>Students will discover information about local traditions and hobby fly-fishing.</p> <p>Students will use this knowledge to write a reflective paragraph.</p>
Materials	<p>Playing cards</p> <p>Websites worksheet (Appendix C)</p> <p>KWL Graphic Organizer (bridges or fishing) (Appendix D)</p> <p>Sentence Starters (Appendix E)</p>
Warm Up Time	<p>Build bridges with playing cards or Go Fish (two stations set up in classroom)</p> <p>15 minutes</p>
Task One Time	<p>Introduce the website worksheet (Appendix C)</p> <p>Walk to library for directed research about bridges/fishing and worksheet completion.</p> <p>50 minutes</p>
Break	<p>Sample goldfish crackers for a snack.</p> <p>10 minutes</p>

Materials	Worksheet on river ecology & vocabulary (Appendix F). Ranking sheet for local foods tasting (Appendix G). Sentence starters for written reflection (Appendix E).
Warm Up	Informal question sharing and practice.
Time	15 minutes
Task One	Visit by angler. Sampling and ranking of local foods. Students use ranking sheet to analyze and learn how to form personal opinions about local or wild-caught foods (Appendix G).
Time	45 minutes
Break	More food sampling and informal mingle with community member. Time for photographs and hands-on exploration of fly-fishing materials and tackle.
Time	15 minutes
Task Two	Written reflection about class visit. Sentence starters projected on screen (Appendix E).
Time	30 minutes
Conclusion and Preparation for next lesson	Turn in written reflection for instructor feedback. Discussion and preparation for day four site visit. 15 minutes

8.4.4 Week Four, Day four – Site Visit

Site visit to city hall for informative interview with city engineer. City engineer will demonstrate how the local building codes have been adapted to protect the waters of the Kinnickinnic River. This action maintains a cold-water temperature to support trout populations.

8.4.4.1 Week Four, Day Four Plan

Objective	Students will walk through town for a final day of reflection. Students will engage with the city engineer to discover the features that make the city hall unique. Students will participate in a demonstration of porous-paver construction that protects the Kinni river from warm rainwater runoff. Students will tour a small raingarden. Students will ask the city engineer their prepared questions and take notes.
Materials	Camera and audio recorder or smartphone
Warm Up	Reflective walk to city hall with time to pause for final photographs in the community.
Time	20 minutes
Task One	Presentation and tour of city hall with city engineer with notetaking and questions by the students.
Time	30 minutes

Task Two	Hands-on outdoor demonstration by city engineer of porous-pavers. Outdoor walking tour of rain garden. Time for more student questions.
Time	20 minutes
Break	Walk to ice cream parlor. Discuss site visit. 20 minutes
Conclusion and Preparation for next lesson	Return walk to campus with more time to take photographs. Return to class: Remind presentation group to be prepared for tomorrow. Remind all students to bring dialogue journals for writing exercise and final reflections. 30 minutes

8.4.5 Week Four, Day five – In Class

8.4.5.1 Week Four, Day Five Plan

Objective	Student groups present research findings of the week using low-stakes presentations of observations and reflections. Students will write final reflective journal entry in order to assess personal language, cultural knowledge, and course evaluation Students will celebrate!
Materials	Students present research findings. Sentence starters (Appendix E). Video slide show with images from month of study.
Warm Up	Farewell cupcakes!
Time	20 minutes

Unit and Lesson Plan Summary

The CSE lessons described in this plan are local and personal. They are a direct result of lived teaching experiences. CSE lessons can follow this model, but the concept of localized instruction leaves opportunities for an instructor's creativity: the place shapes the lessons. CSE is an inclusive and complementary approach that acknowledges the richness of place while also building on authentic linguistic input. Whether it is through service learning for language learners or ESL students-as-researchers tasks, CSE lessons can build social and linguistic connections for learners, community members, instructors, and educational institutions.

References

- American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admission Officers (2017). Trending topics survey: International applicants for fall 2017 – institutional and applicant perceptions.
- Retrieved from: <http://www.aacrao.org/docs/default-source/TrendTopic/Immigration/final-report.pdf?sfvrsn=0>.
- Adam, K. (2006). Community supported agriculture. *Business Management Series: Appropriate technology transfer for rural areas (ATTRA)*. Retrieved from: <https://attra.ncat.org/attra-pub/summaries/summary.php?pub=262>.
- Ash, S., Clayton, P., & Atkinson, M. (2005). Integrating reflection and assessment to capture and improve student learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 11(2), 49–60.
- Askildson, L., Kelly, A., & Mick, C. (2013). Developing multiple literacies in academic English through service-learning and community engagement. *TESOL Journal*, 4(3), 402-438.
- Atkinson, D. (2013). Language learning in mindbodyworld: A sociocognitive approach to second language acquisition. *Language Teaching*, 47(4), 467-483.
- Atkinson, D. (Ed.). (2011). *Alternative approaches to second language acquisition*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Blad, E. (April 13, 2016). Donald Trump's rhetoric has made some students feel unsafe, report

says. *Education Week*. Retrieved from:

http://blogs.edweek.org/edweek/rulesforengagement/2016/04/donald_trumps_rhetoric_ha_s_made_some_students_feel_unsafe_report_says.html?qs=Donald+Trumps+rhetoric

Block, D. (2003). *The social turn in second language acquisition*. Washington

D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Bortolin, K. (2011). Serving ourselves: How the discourse on community engagement privileges

the university over the community. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*.

18(1). 49.

Boxer, D., & Cohen, A. D. (2004). *Studying speaking to inform language learning*. Clevedon,

England: Multilingual Matters.

Campbell, C., MacPherson, S., & Sawkins, T. (2014). Preparing students for

education, work, and community: Activity theory in task-based curriculum

design. *TESL Canada Journal*, 31.

Campus Compact (2003). *Campus Compact's introduction to service-learning toolkit:*

Readings and resources for faculty. Providence, RI: Campus Compact.

Chishti, M., Pierce, S. & Bolter, J. (March 22, 2017). Muscular public relations strategy to paint

immigrants and immigration as negatives embedded deep within Trump executive

orders. *Migration Policy Institute*. Retrieved from:

<http://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/muscular-public->

[relations-strategy-paint-immigrants-and-immigration-negatives-embedded-deep](http://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/muscular-public-relations-strategy-paint-immigrants-and-immigration-negatives-embedded-deep)

Corbett, J. (2003). *An intercultural approach to English language teaching*. New York, NY:

Multicultural Matters Ltd.

Donahue, T. (1994). Community-supported agriculture: Opportunities for

environmental education. *Journal of Environmental Education*, 25(2), 4-8.

Enfield, N., & Levinson, S. (Eds.) (2006). *Roots of human sociality: Culture, cognition, and*

interaction. New York, NY: Berg.

Eyler, J., & Giles, D. (1999). *Where's the learning in service-learning?* San Francisco: Jossey-

Bass.

Fields, M., Micek, T., Rosalia, C., Crosby, C., Regalla, M. (2017, March). Community

engagement: Enriching student experiences, teacher preparation, and program

implementation. Presentation at TESOL International Conference, Seattle, WA.

Ishihara, N. & Cohen, A. (2010). *Teaching and Learning Pragmatics*. Harlow, U.K.: Pearson.

Kinnickinnic River Land Trust (2017). Retrieved from: <http://kinniriver.org/>.

- Kmiecik, C. & Augustin, K. (2015, October). Using main street as a text in an American culture course. Presentation at WITESOL, Oshkosh, WI.
- Kramersch, C. (1993). *Context and culture in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kramersch, C. (2008). Ecological perspectives on foreign language education. *Language Teaching*, 41(3), 389-408.
- Kramersch, C. (2009). *The multilingual subject: What foreign language learners say about their experience and why it matters*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Larrotta, C., & Brooks, A. (Eds). (2009). *Bringing community to the adult ESL classroom*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Landay, E., Meehan, M.B., Newman, A, Wootton, K., & King, D. (2001). "Postcards from America": Linking classroom and community in an ESL class. *English Journal*, 90(5), 66-74.
- Liskin-Gasparro, J. (2012). MLJ Reviews. *The Modern Language Journal*, 96, 131-132.
- Lee, V., & Schulte, J. (2013). The language lessons around us: Undergraduate English pedagogy and linguistic landscape research. *English Teaching Practice and Critique*, 12(2), 102-120.

- Long, M.H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In Ritchie, W.C., & Bahita, T.K. (eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). New York: Academic Press.
- Long, M. (2015). *Second language acquisition and task-based language teaching*. Hoboken: Wiley.
- McPherron, P., & Randolph, P. (2013). Thinking like researchers: An ESL project that investigates local communities. *TESOL Journal*, 4(2), 312-331.
- Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Oblinger, D. G. (Ed.) (2006). Space as a change agent. *Learning spaces*, 13.1–13.11. Retrieved from: <https://www.educause.edu/research-and-publications/books/learning-spaces/chapter-1-space-change-agent>.
- Ogle, D. (1986). K-W-L: A teaching model that develops active reading of expository text. *The Reading Teacher* 39, 564-570.
- O'Keeffe, P. (2013). A sense of belonging: Improving student retention. *College Student Journal*, 47(4), 605-613.
- Petree, R. (2017, March). Communicating with non-native speakers of English. Presentation at The University of Wisconsin-River Falls, WI.

Pica, T., Lincoln-Porter, F., Paninos, D., & Linnell, J. (1996). Language learners' interaction:

How does it address the input, output, and feedback needs of L2 learners? *TESOL*

Quarterly, 30(1), 59-84.

Place. (n.d.). In *Merriam-Webster's online dictionary*. Retrieved from: <https://www.merriam->

[webster.com/dictionary/place](https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/place).

Reynolds, P. (2000). Organics at the crossroads. *Acres USA*. September. p. 1; 8–11.

Rivera, K. (1999). Popular research and social transformation: A community-based approach

to critical pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(3), 485-500.

Robinson, P. (2011). Task-based language learning: A review of issues. *Language Learning*,

61, p. 1-36.

Russell, N. (2007). Teaching more than English: Connecting ESL students to their community

through service learning. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 88(10), 770.

Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. New York, NY: Cambridge University

Press.

Sharp, J., Imerman, E., & Peters, G. (2002). Community supported agriculture (CSA): Building

community among farmers and non-farmers. *Journal of Extension*, 40(3), 1-6.

Shohamy, E., Ben-Rafael, E., Barni, M., & Ebrary, Inc. (2010). *Linguistic landscape*

in the city. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

Smith, G. (2002). Place-based education - Learning to be where we are. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 83(8), 584-594.

Southern Poverty Law Center (2017). The Trump effect: The impact of the presidential campaign on our nation's schools. Retrieved from:
https://www.splcenter.org/sites/default/files/splc_the_trump_effect.pdf

Springer, S., & Collins, L. (2008). Interacting inside and outside of the language classroom. *Language Teaching Research*, 12(1), 39-60.

State of Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources. (2017). Retrieved from:
<http://dnr.wi.gov/topic/fishing/trout/streamclassification.html>.

Svrluga, S. (March 24, 2017). 'They're afraid to come:' University leaders worry Trump policies will deter international scholars. *The Washington Post*. Retrieved from:
<https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/grade-point/wp/2017/03/24/theyre-afraid-to-come-university-leaders-worry-trump-policies-will-deter-international-scholars/>.

Tan, Y., & Atencio, M. (2016). Unpacking a place-based approach – “What lies beyond?” insights drawn from teachers' perceptions of outdoor education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 56, 25-34.

Tanaka, K. (1997). Developing pragmatic competence: A learners-as-researchers approach. *TESOL Journal*, 6(3), 14-18.

University of Wisconsin System (2016). 2020FWD: Moving Wisconsin and the world forward.

Retrieved from: <https://www.wisconsin.edu/strategic-planning>.

Waite, S. (2013). 'Knowing your place in the world': How place and culture support and obstruct educational aims. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 43(4), 413-433.

Walker, A. (2012). Collaborating with a community: Lessons from a rural school district. *TESOL Journal* 3(3), 469-487.

Waters, S., & Anderson-Lain, K. (2014). Assessing the student, faculty, and community partner in academic service-learning: A categorization of surveys posted online at Campus Compact member institutions. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, 18(1), 89-122.

Watson-Gegeo, K. (1988). Ethnography in ESL: Defining the essentials. *TESOL Quarterly*, 22(4), 575-592. doi:10.2307/3587257

Wendt, M. (2003). Context, culture and construction: Research implications of theory formation in foreign language methodology. In M. Byram & P. Grundy (Eds.), *Context and Culture in Language Teaching and Learning*. New York: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Woodhouse, J., Knapp, Clifford E. (2000). *Place-based curriculum and instruction: Outdoor and environmental education approach*. Las Cruces, N.M.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education Small Schools.

Yates, L., & Major, G. (2015). "Quick-chatting", "smart dogs", and how to "say without saying": Small talk and pragmatic learning in the community. *System*, 48, 141-152.

Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Zandlivet, D. (2014). Places and spaces: Case studies in the evaluation of post-secondary, place-based learning environments. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 41, 18-28.

Zsolnai, L. (2002). Green business or community economy? *International Journal of Social Economics*, 29(8), 652-662.

Appendix A: Week Four - day one, Bridge Selection Task

Directions: Watch the video about the Kinnickinnic River. Choose a bridge on the map for further study.

1. Does this bridge have a name?
2. How far is the bridge from the campus? (Estimate)
3. Is this a bridge for cars or pedestrians or both?
4. Why did you choose this bridge?

Map from video – Practice giving directions from campus to the bridge you chose.

Appendix B: Week Four - day one, Key Terms & Prompts

Directions: With your partner, discover the meaning of the vocabulary words. Include evidence of how to pronounce the words.

1. bridge_____

2. vehicle_____

3. pedestrian_____

4. movement_____

5. structure_____

6. design_____

7. material_____

8. concrete_____

Using at least one of the vocabulary words in each question, use the prompts to talk about and write questions for the city engineer.

Question 1:___Excuse me, I am interested in..._____

Question 2:___May I ask you..._____

Appendix C: Week Four - day two, Website Worksheet

Theme one - bridges

1. What are the job duties of a city engineer?

http://study.com/articles/Salary_and_Career_Info_for_a_City_Engineer.html

2. What are some iconic bridge structures in the United States?

<https://travel.thefuntimesguide.com/famous-bridges/>

<http://www.attractionsofamerica.com/thingstodo/famous-bridges.php>

Theme two - fishing

1. What is fly-fishing?

<https://youtu.be/t2SgcCw6I8M>

2. What is the difference between fly-fishing and spin fishing?

<https://thecatchandthehatch.com/the-difference-between-fly-fishing-and-spin-fishing/>

Appendix D: Week Four - day two, KWL Chart for Directed Library Research Task

Theme: Fishing

Name:

What do you know about fishing?	What do you want to know about fishing?	What did you learn about fishing?

Adapted from Ogle, 1986

Appendix D: Week Four - day two, KWL Chart for Directed Library Research Task

Theme: Bridges

Name:

What do you know about bridges?	What do you want to know about bridges?	What did you learn about bridges?

Adapted from Ogle, 1986

Appendix E: Weeks 1 - 4, Reflective Question Prompts and Sentence Starters for Dialogue

Journaling

1. What language did I learn?

Today I learned...

The new language helps me to...

2. How did I learn this language?

I learned this language by...

I learned that...

3. Why does this language matter?

This language will help me...

Appendix F: Week Four - day three, Key Terms & Sentence Starters

Directions: With your partner, discover the meaning of the vocabulary words. Include evidence of how to pronounce the words.

1. trout_____

2. fly fishing_____

3. resource_____

4. runoff_____

5. riverbank_____

6. fishing tackle_____

7. weather_____

8. flow_____

Using at least one of the vocabulary words in each question, talk about and write questions for the fly fisherman.

Question 1: __Can you tell me..._____

Question 2: __I would like to know..._____

Appendix G: Week Four - day three, Ranking Sheet for Food Sampling

Directions: On a scale of one to five, rank the local foods you taste. Then think about why and share with the whole group.

1 = I don't like it.

2 = I don't like it, but I might eat it.

3 = It's OK

4 = I like it.

5 = I love it!

Fresh trout

1 2 3 4 5

Smoked trout

1 2 3 4 5

Water Cress

1 2 3 4 5

Rhubarb

1 2 3 4 5

Cheddar Cheese

1 2 3 4 5

