Critical Appraisal of Language Teaching Methodology

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AC	Abstract Conceptualization
AE	Active Experimentation
ASTP	Army Specialized Training Program
CALL	Computer-Assisted Language Learning
CBE	Competency-Based Education
CBI	Content-Based Instruction
CBT	Computer-Based Training
CC	Communicative Competence
CE	Concrete Experience
CLA	Critical Language Awareness
CLL	Community Language Learning
CLL	Cooperative Language Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CNP	Communication Needs Processor
CR	Consciousness Raising
DM	Direct Method
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EL	English Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
EOP	English for Occupational Purpose
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
EST	English for Science and Technology
FD	Field Dependent
FI	Field Independent
FLL	Foreign Language Learning
GEFT	Group Embedded Figures Test

ICT	Information and Communications Technology
IPA	International Phonetic Association
L	Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LA	Language Acquisition
LEP	Limited English Proficient
LL	Language Learning
LSP	Language for Specific Purposes
LT	Language Teaching
MHI	Mitsubishi Heavy Industry
MI	Multiple Intelligences
NA	Natural Approach
NLP	Neurolinguistics Programming
PBL	Problem-Based Learning
PGH	Pedagogic Grammar Hypothesis
RO	Reflective Observation
SCT	Sociocultural Theory
SI	Sheltered Instruction
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SLEP	Students with Limited English Proficiency
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TL	Target Language
TLA	Teacher's Language Awareness
TLU	Target Language Use
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

PREFACE

Language teaching methodology aims to provide a critical appraisal for EFL students to manage different terms in language teaching methodologies. The purpose of this book is to strengthen critical appraisal of language teaching methodology and to promote the critical thinking of the graduated and postgraduate students about the main concerns English teaching and learning. This book briefly outlines the main concepts in language teaching methodology by providing a brief historical overview along with outlining the key issues in language teaching. It presents students a brief overview of the terms commonly used in the second language (L2) professional literature. The goal is not to be exhaustive but rather to provide a sketchy overview of the basics for the novice readers. Language teaching methodology briefly overview methods in language teaching from a historical perspective then provide different alternative methods in language teaching. The methods are divided into the traditional and conventional parts. All methods have been briefly outlined by summarizing each into main focus, principles, and critical appraisal. Attempts were made to focus on the main concern of each method. Next, the book provides a critical look at foreign language learner, computer-assisted language learning (CALL), Corpus Linguistics, different types of learning, instruction, and programs. The book can be used in both undergraduate and graduate courses. The most outstanding feature Language teaching methodology provides our intended readers including MA, PhD students, teachers, and researchers with a substantive source by which they can get a firsthand, immediate experience at different academic experience. We hope that the reading of the book caters to the continuing process of enquiry which is the ultimate goal in the new-found reformulation of ideas evolving in the history of language teaching and learning.

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Chapter 1

Methods in Language Teaching: Historical Perspective

CONTENTS

1.1. GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

1.1.1. Main Focus

- The goal of foreign language study is to read and appreciate its literature;
- To be able to translate from one language into another;
- To benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development; it is a mental exercise;
- To be more familiar with grammar of one's native language, thus, speak, and write it better;
- Reading and writing are the major focus, listening, and speaking receive much less attention;
- Words are taught through bilingual word lists;
- The sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice;
- Accuracy is emphasized;
- High standards in translation;
- Syllabus is organized around sequencing of grammar points.

1.1.2. Principles

- Students' native language is the medium of instruction;
- Accuracy is important, so errors are corrected immediately;
- Teacher is the authority in class, the only decision-maker;
- Grammar is taught deductively (i.e., first rules and then examples are taught).

1.1.3. Critical Appraisal

- No underlying theory in linguistics or learning theory;
- No literature to relate it to linguistics, psychology, or educational theory;
- Students are not prepared for communication in foreign language;
- Tedious and boring class activities;
- Language teaching (LT) innovations in the 19th century;
- Increased opportunities for communication demanded oral proficiency;

- Market for conversation books;
- Public education system failing in its responsibilities;
- New approaches were developed by individuals.

1.2. THE REFORMIST MOVEMENT (1880S)

- The Frenchman C. Marcel used child language learning as a model, emphasized the importance of meaning, proposed reading be taught before other skills;
- The Englishman T. Prendergast observed children use memorized phrases and routines in speaking, proposed a structural syllabus to teach the most basic structural patterns;
- The Frenchman F. Gouin believed LL was facilitated through using language to accomplish events consisting of a sequence of related actions (The Gouin series).

1.2.1. The Gouin Series

- The need to present teaching items in context;
- The use of gestures and actions;
- Gouin Series became part of situational LT and total physical response;
- Henry Sweet (England), Wilhelm Victor (Germany), and Paul Passy (France) provided the intellectual leadership for reform movement;
- Linguistics was revitalized and phonetics was established by this movement;
- International Phonetic Association (IPA) was founded.

1.2.2. Principles

- Spoken language is a primary step;
- Findings of phonetics be applied to teaching;
- Listening is prior;
- Words be presented in sentences and meaningful contexts;
- Grammar be taught inductively; translation be avoided.
- This led to natural methods and ultimately to direct method (DM) (Figure 1.1).
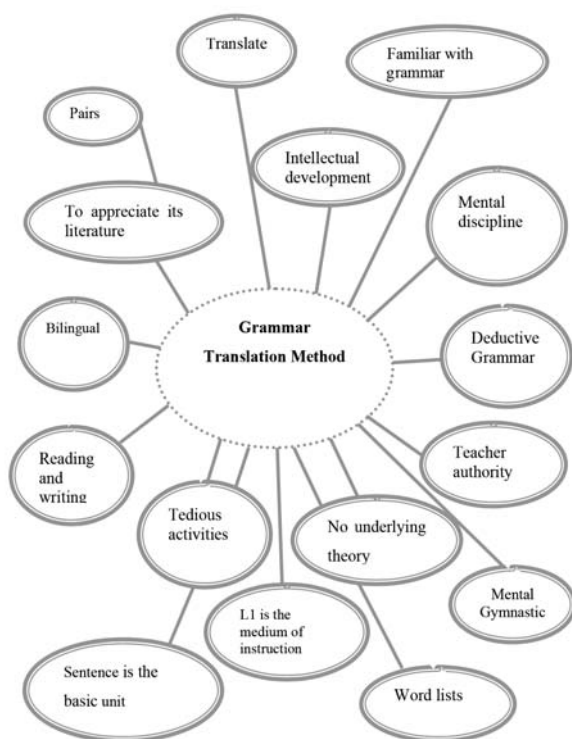
Figure 1.1. Conceptual map for grammar-translation method.

1.3. DIRECT METHOD

1.3.1. Main Focus

- Gouin built a methodology around observation of child language learning;
- Montaigne tried to make second language learning (SLL) more like first language (L1);
- L. Sauveur used intensive oral instruction in target language , Sauveur opened a language school in Boston in 1860s and used Natural Method;
- German scholar Franke (1884) wrote on the principles of direct association between forms and meanings in TL;
- Maximilian Berlitz and Sauveur used DM in the U.S.

1.3.2. Principles

- Goal of language learning is to use foreign language to communicate;
- Language can be taught without translation or use of learners' native language;
- The class instruction is only in TL;
- Meaning can be conveyed directly through demonstration and action;
- Grammar is taught inductively;
- Everyday vocabulary and sentences are taught;
- Oral communication skills built up in graded forms of question-and-answer exchanges between teacher-student;
- Concrete vocabulary taught through demonstration, objects, pictures; abstract vocabulary by association of ideas;
- Correct pronunciation and grammar are emphasized.

1.3.3. Critical Appraisal

- DM was quite successful in private language schools, but it was difficult to implement in public secondary school education.
- Overemphasized similarities between naturalistic L1 learning and classroom L2 learning.
- It lacked rigorous basis in applied linguistic theory.
- This method required native-like teachers.
- Strict adherence to DM was counterproductive.

1.3.4. Decline of DM

- In France and Germany, DM was modified to a combination of DM and grammar-based activities.
- The goal of teaching conversation skills regarded impractical in schools.
- Coleman reported a reasonable goal for foreign language study is a reading knowledge of foreign language.
- Henry Sweet recognized its limitations and offered innovations.
- In the 1920s and 1930s, applied linguists propose systematized

principles that laid the foundations of Audiolingualism in the US, and Oral approach or Situational LT in Britain (Figure 1.2).
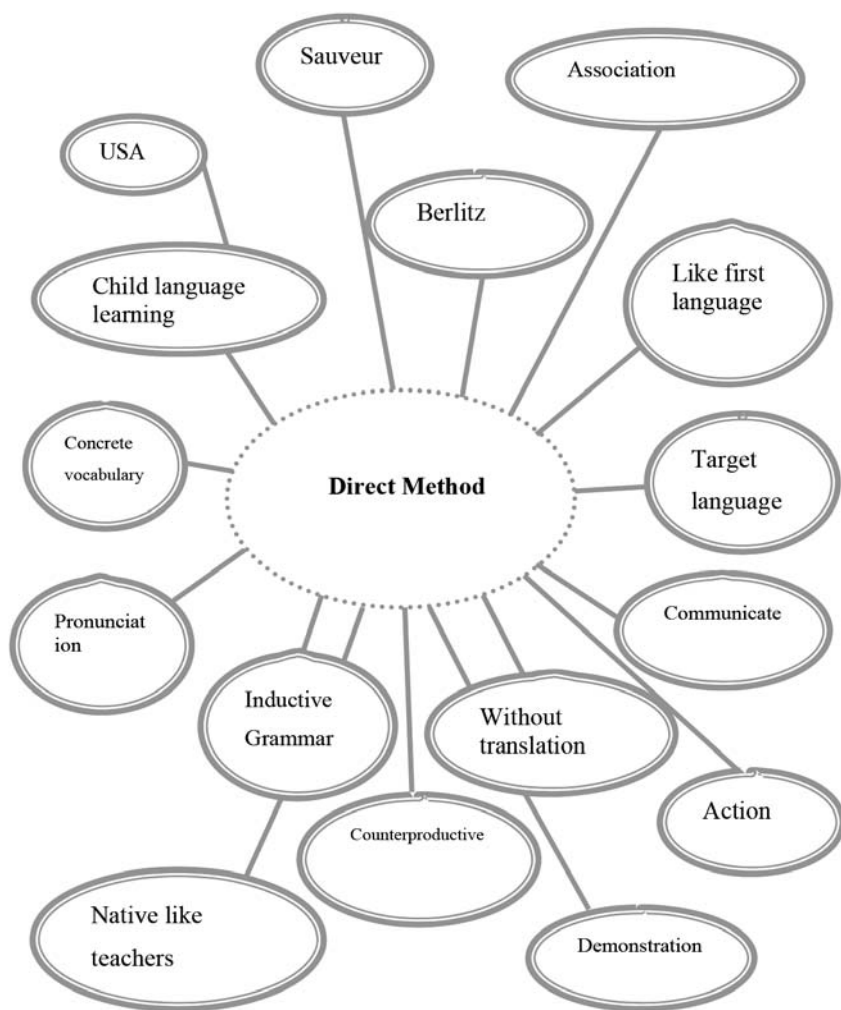
Figure 1.2. Conceptual map for direct method.

1.4. THE CONCEPT OF METHOD

To improve the quality of LT in the 19th, linguists and language specialists focused on general principles and theories of how languages are learned, how knowledge of L is represented and organized in memory, and how language is structured.

1.4.1. Approach, Method, and Technique

- Approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified.
- Method is the level at which theory is put into practice, choices are made about particular skills and content to be taught, and the order in which content will be presented.
- Technique is the level at which classroom procedures are described, activity that actually takes place in the classroom.

1.5. THE READING METHOD

- West (1926) posited that learning to read fluently is important;
- Coleman (1929) argued that the only practical form of foreign LT in high school was to concentrate on reading skill;
- Bond (1920–1940) developed a reading method to college language courses at Chicago university.

1.5.1. Main Focus

- Restricted language instruction to one practical aim (reading skill);
- Detailed instructions on reading strategies;
- Graded reading materials;
- Systematic approach to learning to read;
- Vocabulary control in texts was important.

1.6. SITUATIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHING /THE ORAL APPROACH

- Developed by British applied linguists in 1930s to 1960s;
- Harold Palmer, A.S. Hornby, familiar with DM, tried to develop a more scientific foundation for an oral approach to teaching;
- Systematic study of procedures and principles that could be used in selection and organization of content.

1.6.1. Main Focus

1. Vocabulary Control:

i.   Considered a very important aspect of foreign language learning (FLL);

ii.   Emphasis on reading skills as a goal of foreign language study;

iii.   Frequency counts was used to select the most frequently used vocabulary.

2.   Grammar Control:

i.   Palmer (1920s) viewed grammar as underlying sentence patterns of spoken language, developed procedures suited to teaching basic grammatical patterns through oral approach;

ii.   Palmer and Hornby classified English grammatical structures into sentence patterns called substitution tables;

iii.   Systematic principles of:

a.   Selection procedure by which lexical and grammatical content is chosen;

b.   Gradation principles by which organization and sequencing content are determined;

c.   Presentation techniques used for presentation and practice of items in a course.

1.7. PRESENTATION, PRACTICE, AND PRODUCTION MODEL

1.   Presentation: Introduction of a new teaching item in context;

2.   Practice: Controlled practice of the item;

3.   Production: A freer practice phase.

1.8. BRITISH STRUCTURALISM

•   Speech regarded as basis of the language;

•   Structure viewed at the heart of speaking ability;

•   Palmer and Hornby prepared a description of basic grammatical structures of English, including word order, structural words, inflections, and content words;

•   The principal classroom activity was the oral practice of controlled sentence patterns in contexts and situations.

1.8.1. Theory of Learning

- Teaching was a type of behavioristic habit-learning theory;
- Inductive approach to teaching grammar (i.e., explanation is discouraged);
- Learner should deduce meaning of structure or vocabulary item from context or situation.

1.8.2. Objectives

- Teaching four skills through structure;
- Accuracy in pronunciation and grammar is crucial;
- Automatic control of basic structures and sentence patterns is fundamental to reading and writing skills;
- Structural syllabus and a word list were presented;
- Learner has no control over content of learner, listens, and repeats what teacher says, responds to questions and commands.
- Teacher has three-fold function:
    – Presentation stage: A model, setting situations, modeling new structures;
    – Conductor of an orchestra: Using questions, commands, and other cues to elicit answers from learners; and
    – Practice stage: Watch-out for structural errors.
- Textbooks and visual aids such as wall charts, pictures, stick figures, etc.

1.9. AUDIOLINGUALISM

- During World War II, the U.S. government commissioned universities to develop FLL programs for military personnel, army specialized training program (ASTP) was established in 1942.
- Leonard Bloomfield at Yale developed a training program (called The Informant Method) for linguists and anthropologists.
- A native speaker is a source of foreign language phrases and vocabulary.
- Purpose of (ASTP) or the Army Method was to attain conversational fluency in FL.

- Quite successful because of the intensity of program rather than underlying theory.
- University of Michigan developed the first English Language (EL) institute.
- Charles Fries (director) applied principles of structural linguistics to LT.

1.9.1. Principles

- Structure is the starting point.
- Structures are identified with basic sentence patterns and grammatical structures.
- Language is taught by systematic attention to pronunciation and intensive oral drills.
- Pattern practice is the basic classroom technique.

1.10. BRITISH AND AMERICAN STRUCTURAL LINGUISTICS

The ALM developed same time as the British Oral Approach (i.e., strong alliance with American structural Linguistics, its applied linguistics applications, esp., contrastive analysis). The approach used at Michigan became known as the Oral Approach, the Aural-Oral Approach, and the Structural Approach; Combination of structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral approaches, and behavioristic psychology led to ALM (Nelson Brooke's term). American structural linguistics is a reaction to traditional approaches to grammar which linked L study to philosophy, a mentalist approach, grammar considered a branch of logic, categories of Indo-European Ls were thought to represent ideal categories.

1.10.1. Principles of Structural Linguistics

- Language, a system of structurally related elements for encoding meaning (i.e., phonemic, morphological stems, prefixes, suffixes), and syntactic (phrases, clauses, sentence types) systems;
- Language learning entails mastering the elements or building blocks of language and the rules by which those elements are combined;

- The primary medium of language is oral.

Prominent American school of psychology is behaviorism. It is anti-mentalist, empirically-based approach to human behavior. The occurrence of behaviors dependent on three crucial elements:

i.   A stimulus, which serves to elicit behavior;

ii.   A response, triggered by a stimulus; and

iii.   Reinforcement, which serves to mark the response as being appropriate (or inappropriate) and encourages the repetition (i.e., suppression) of the response in the future.

1.10.2. Theory of Learning

- Language is verbal behavior; automatic production and comprehension of utterances;
- FLL is basically a process of habit formation;
- Language skills learned better if items are first presented orally before written form, aural-oral training;
- Analogy—process of generalization and discrimination-provides better foundation of LL than analysis; thus, the explanations of rules not given until students have practiced a pattern in context;
- Meanings of words can be learned in linguistic and cultural context, not in isolation.

1.10.3. Objectives

- Short-range objectives: Training in listening comprehension, accurate pronunciation, recognition of speech symbols, reproduce these symbols in writing;
- Control of structures of sound, form, and order, acquaintance with vocabulary items that bring content to structures, and meanings of these verbal symbols;
- Long-range objectives; language as the native speaker uses it, oral proficiency, accurate pronunciation and grammar, and the ability to respond quickly and accurately in speech situation.

1.10.4. Syllabus

- Starting point, linguistic, structure-based syllabus, containing key items of phonology, morphology, and syntax;

- These may be derived partly from a contrastive analysis of differences between L1 and L2;
- A lexical syllabus of basic vocabulary., items specified in advance.
- Language skills taught in order of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

1.10.5. Learner Roles

Organism that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct response; learners play a reactive role by responding to stimuli, thus, have little control over content, pace, or style of learning.

1.10.6. Teacher Roles

- Central and active, teacher-dominated approach;
- Teacher models the TL, controls direction and the pace of learning, monitors, and corrects learners' performance.

1.10.7. The Role of Instructional Material

Textbook, not used in elementary phases, exposure to printed word not desirable; tape recorders and audiovisual equipment have central role, provide accurate models for dialogs and drills.

1.10.8. Critical Appraisal

- Practical results fell short of expectations: Students unable to transfer acquired skills to real communication outside classroom;
- Theoretical foundations were attacked:
- Noam Chomsky (1960s): Rejected structuralist approach and behaviorist theory;
- "Language is not a habit structure. Linguistic behavior involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with abstract rules;
- Chomsky's Transformational grammar posited that the fundamental properties of language derive from innate aspects of mind;
- Stimulus-response theory does not account for human learning:

Much of human learning is not imitated behavior, but created anew from underlying knowledge of abstract rules;

- Sentences do not learn by imitation and repetition, but generated from learner's underlying competence;
- Pattern practice, drilling, memorization may lead to language like behaviors, but not resulting in competence.

1.11. COGNITIVE CODE THEORY/LEARNING

- Activities involve meaningful learning and language use;
- Learners should use their innate and creative abilities to derive underlying grammatical rules of language;
- Grammar is presented both inductively and deductively;
- All four skills are considered important.

Cognitive code today refers to any conscious attempt to organize materials around a grammatical syllabus while allowing for meaningful practice, and language use (Figure 1.3).
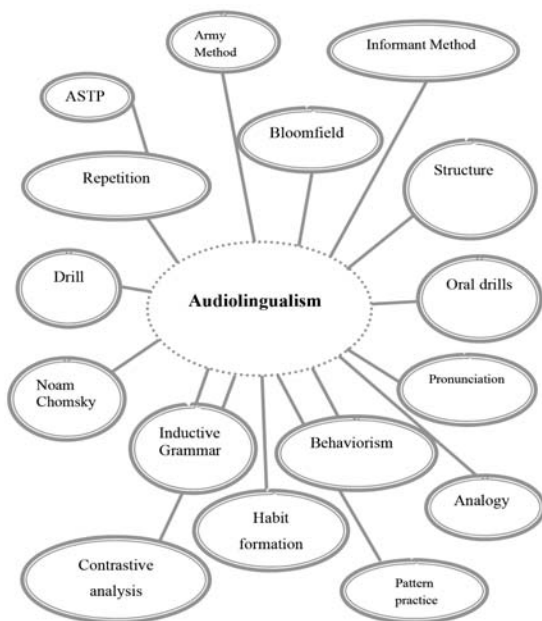
Figure 1.3. Conceptual map for audio-lingual method.

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Chapter 2

Alternative Methods

CONTENTS

2.1. OVERVIEW

Alternative methods in the 1970s encompass total physical response, silent way, counselling learning, suggestopedia, whole language, MI, neurolinguistics programming (NLP), competency-based language teaching, cooperative language learning, reflected developments in general education and other fields, developed around particular theories of learners and learning, sometimes theories of a single theorizer or educator.

2.2. TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE

2.2.1. Main Focus

Developed by James Asher:

- A method built around coordination of speech and action;
- Teaches language through physical (motor) activity;
- Adult second language learning seen as parallel process to child L1 acquisition;
- Child-directed speech, full of commands, children first respond physically, then verbally;
- Asher: Adults should recapitulate processes children acquire their native language;
- Total physical Response: Theory of language and learning;
- Grammar-based view of language, grammatical structure can be learned using imperatives;
- Stimulus-response view of learning;
- Linked to trace theory of memory in psychology; the more often or the more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be recalled;
- Combined tracing activities; verbal rehearsal + motor activity increases successful recall.

2.2.2. Total Physical Response Reflects on Three Hypotheses

- **The Bio-Program:** A specific innate bio-program for language learning, defining optimal path or order for LL, L1 is parallel to L2 language learning process, language learners first internalize a

cognitive map of target language (TL) by listening which should be accompanied by physical movement, then speech and other productive skills come later.

- **Brain Lateralization:** TPR directed to right-brain learning, while most methods directed to left-brain learning, children learn language through motor movement-a right-hemisphere activity.
- **Reduction of Stress:** Absence of stress, an important condition for language learning as 1st language learning takes place in stress-free condition, while adult L2 language learning causes stress and anxiety.

2.2.3. Objectives

Teaching oral proficiency at the beginning level, Produce learners capable of uninhibited communication.

2.2.4. Syllabus

A sentence-based syllabus, with grammatical and lexical criteria primary in selecting teaching items; initial attention to meaning rather than to form; grammar taught inductively.

2.2.5. Activities

Major class activity, imperative drills to elicit physical actions from students.

2.2.6. Role of Learners

Learners as listener and performer, expected to speak when ready.

2.2.7. Role of Teacher

Providing opportunities for learning, providing best kind of exposure to language, providing raw material for cognitive map.

2.2.8. Materials

No basic text at first, teacher voice, actions, and gestures, basis for classroom activities; materials and realia important in later stages (Figure 2.1).
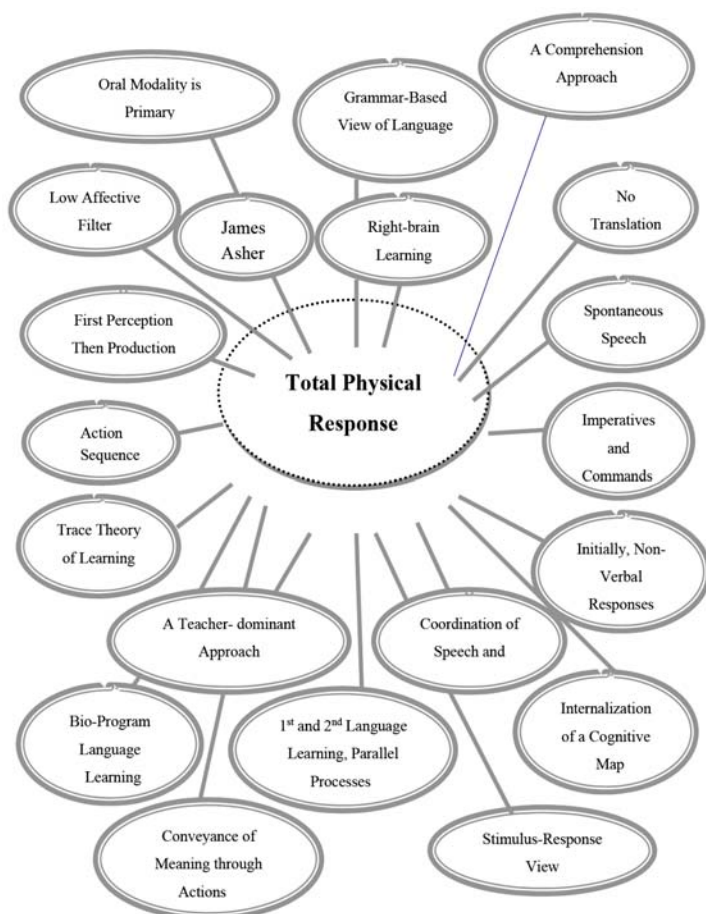
Figure 2.1. Conceptual map for total physical response.

2.3. THE SILENT WAY

Developed by Gattegno:

- **Premise:** Teacher be silent, student encouraged to produce language.

2.3.1. Learning Hypotheses

- Learning is facilitated if learner discovers or create rather than remember or repeat; based Benjamin Franklin's words (tell me and I forget, teach me and I remember, involve me and I learn);

- Learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical object; rods, color-coded pronunciation charts (Fidel charts) provide physical foci, meaningful images to help learning;
- Learning is facilitated by problem solving the material to be learned, language learning as a problem solving, creative, discovering activity, learner is principal actor.

2.3.2. Theory of Language

- **Gattegno:** Importance of grasping the spirit of language, not just its components, language is composed of phonological and supra-segmental elements;
- Structural approach to organization of language; sentence, basic unit of teaching;
- **Grammar:** Taught through inductive processes;
- **Vocabulary:** Central dimension of language learning, choice of vocabulary.

2.3.3. Theory of Learning

Gattegno use of understanding of L1 learning learner need to return to the state of mind that characterizes a baby's learning; yet process of L2 is radically different; Natural or direct approaches to SLL be replaced with an artificial approach based on principle, successful leaning involves commitment of self to L acquisition through silent awareness and active trial; Primacy of learning to teaching, teaching should be subordinated to learning; In silence, student concentrates on task to be done and potential means to do it:

- Silence, as avoidance of repetition, an aid to alertness, concentration, and mental organization;
- Learners develop inner criteria which allows learners to monitor and self-correct production.

2.3.4. Objectives

General goal of language learning, near-native fluency in TL, correct pronunciation, mastery of prosodic elements, and basic practical knowledge of grammar.

2.3.5. Syllabus

Basically, structural syllabus lessons planned around grammatical items and related vocabulary.

2.3.6. Learner Roles

Expected to develop independence, autonomy, and responsibility: Depend on own resources to discover new things in language.

2.3.7. Teacher Roles

Models an item, then elicit learner responses. Stevick (1980) posited that teacher's task is to teach, to test, and to get out of the way.

2.3.8. Materials

A set of colored rods, color-coded pronunciation and vocabulary wall charts, a pointer, and reading/writing exercises, all used to illustrate relationships between sound and meaning.

2.3.9. Critical Appraisal

- Only appropriate for adults, yet lacks explicit grammatical explanations;
- Applicable to beginning levels, rods, and charts are of limited use;
- Separates language from social context, not leading to communication (Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2. Conceptual map for silent way.

2.4. COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING (CLL)

Community language learning (CLL) Developed by Charles Curren, a specialist in counseling; Application of psychological counseling techniques to learning, Counselling Learning; Community Language Leaning, use of Counselling Learning theory in LT; Primary insight from Rogerian counseling (1951); Based on humanistic techniques; (i.e., engage whole person: including emotions and feeling, affective realm, and linguistic knowledge and behavioral skills); Linked to a bilingual education program known as **language alternation** (i.e., a message/ lesson/class first presented in native language, then again in L2).

2.4.1. Theory of Language

Learners are to apprehend sound system, assign meanings and construct basic grammar; Also, social-process or interactional view of language emphasized, "Language is people; language is persons in contact; language is persons in response."

2.4.2. Theory of Learning

Techniques of counseling learning applied to L learning; Whole person learning: Learning is holistic; true human is both cognitive and affective; this involves interaction between teacher and student which is divided into five stages:

- Feeling of security and belonging established;
- Leaner's abilities improve, toward becoming independent;
- Speaking independently and asserting identity;
- Feeling secure enough to take criticism; and
- Working on improving style and knowledge of linguistic appropriateness.

2.4.3. Syllabus

No conventional language syllabus, progression is topic-based, learners nominating topics to talk about; syllabus emerges from interaction between learners' communicative intentions and teacher's reformulations into target L utterances.

2.4.4. Learner Roles

Learners as clients, as members of a community learning through interacting with community members, learning achieved collaboratively.

2.4.5. Teacher Roles

Teacher as counselor, responding in supportive manner, relating affect to cognition.

2.4.6. Materials

Develops by teacher as the course develops, conversations transcribed, learners developing own dialogs.

2.4.7. Critical Appraisal

- Theoretical and practical shortcomings: CLL principles not easily applicable in LL;
- Unusual demands for teacher, needing highly proficient teachers in both L1 and L2;
- No conventional materials, no textbooks;
- Special training in CLL techniques needed for teacher;
- Fossilization may occur due to postponing correction to later stages;
- Focusing on fluency at the expense of accuracy, inadequate control of grammatical system (Figure 2.3).
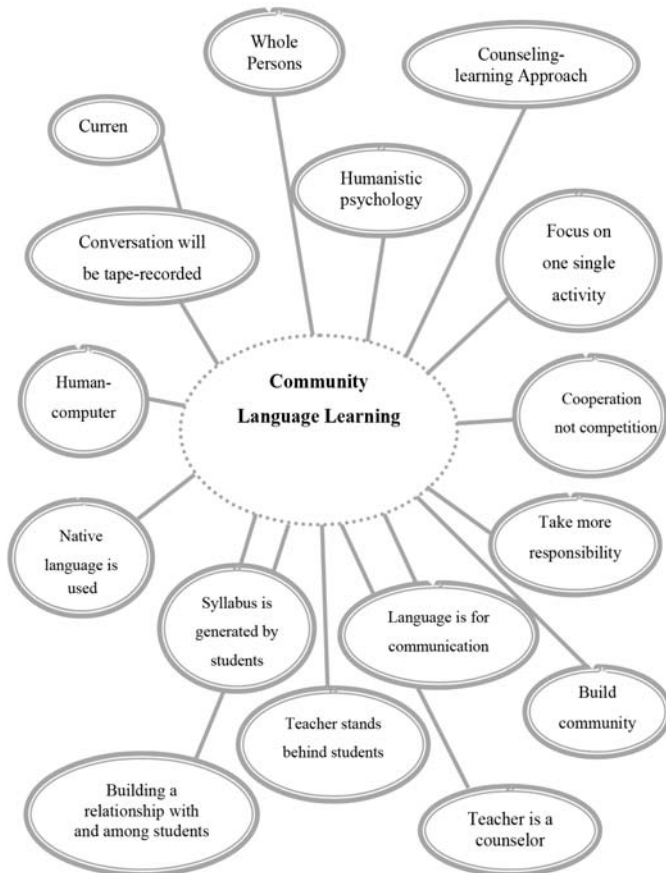
Figure 2.3. Conceptual map for community language learning.

2.5. SUGGESTOPEDIA

Suggestopedia Developed by Georgi Lozanov, a Bulgarian psychiatrist educator. Suggestopedia derived from suggestology (i.e., concerned with systematic study of non-rational/ non-conscious influences). It tries to harness these influences and redirect them to optimize learning.

2.5.1. Main Focus

- Decoration, furniture, and arrangement of classroom;
- Use of music, and authoritative behavior of teacher;
- Borrowed from yoga techniques for altering states of consciousness concentration;
- Use of rhythmic breathing; Centrality of music and musical rhythm to learning.

2.5.2. Theory of Language and Learning

- Lexis is central.
- Emphasis on memorization of vocabulary (i.e., Pairs; lexical translation rather than contextualization is stressed).
- Experiencing whole meaningful texts and act of communication are sometimes stressed.

2.5.3. Theory of Learning

- Suggesting at the heart of the theory of learning;
- Suggesting positive attitude; Desuggestopedia:
- Desuggesting negative attitude.

2.5.4. Theoretical Components

- **Authority:** People remember best, most influenced by information from authoritative source; self-confidence, personal distance, acting ability, and highly positive attitude give authority to teacher;
- **Infantilization:** Authority leads to parent-child relationship, then learner takes part in role-playing, games, songs, and Gymnastic exercises;
- **Double-Planedness:** Learners learn both from effect of direct instruction and from its environment;

- **Intonation, Rhythm, and Concert Pseudo-Passiveness:** Varying tone and rhythm help avoid boredom, give meaning to linguistic material; Musical background creates a relaxed attitude, poseudopassiveness, a state optimal for learning, since anxieties and tension are relieved, power of concentration is raised.

2.5.5. Objectives

Develop advanced conversational proficiency quickly; based on mastery of long lists of vocabulary Pairs.

2.5.6. Learner Roles

Learners' mental state is crucial; they maintain a pseudo-passive state so that materials rolls over and through them.

2.5.7. Teacher Roles

Create situations in which learners are most suggestible, present materials in a way to encourage positive reception and retention.

2.5.8. Activities

Imitation, question, and answer, and role play.

2.5.9. Materials

Direct support materials (i.e., mainly texts & tapes), and indirect support materials (i.e., mainly classroom fixture & music). Texts include long dialogs, with accompanying voc. List and grammatical commentary.

2.5.10. Critical Appraisal

- Lack of a coherent theory of language;
- Comfortable armchairs and relaxing environment beyond mean of most institutions;
- Teacher reading long dialogs aloud with rhythm and intonation with accompanying music not much practical (Figure 2.4).
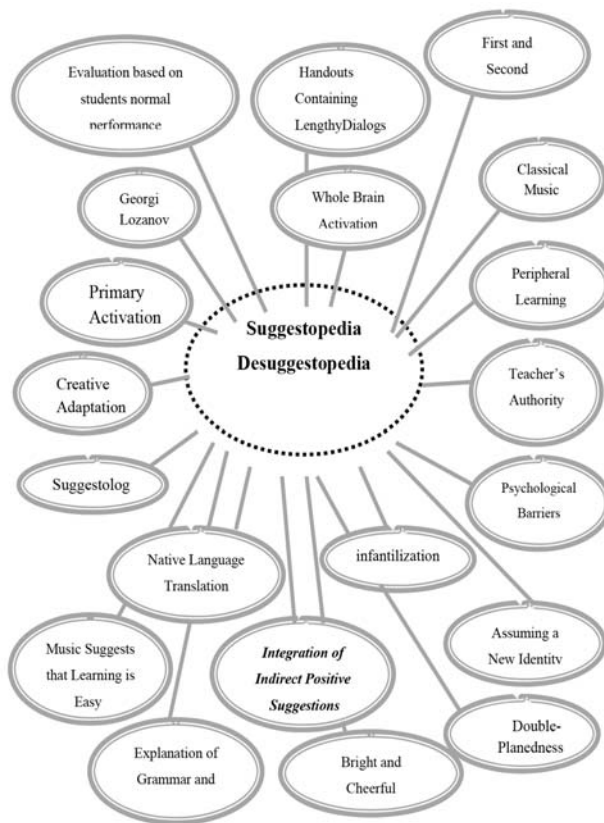
Figure 2.4. Conceptual map for suggestopedia.

2.6. WHOLE LANGUAGE LEARNING

Whole language learning is not a method of teaching, but an approach to learning:

- Concerned with teaching language of art, reading, and writing;
- Opposed to decoding approach to reading: Teaching separate components of language, grammar, vocabulary, word recognition, and phonics;
- Phonics: Reading involves identifying letters and turning them into sounds;
- Whole language (i.e., language can be taught as a whole);
- First developed to help children learn to read, then extended to middle, secondary levels and to ESL;

- Emphasizes learning to read naturally, focus on real communication.

2.6.1. Main Focus

- Shares perspective with CLT, emphasizing importance of meaning and meaning-making;
- With natural approaches (NAs), focusing on teaching L2 same way children learn L1.

2.6.2. Theory of Language

- Views language from interactional perspective: A social perspective, views language as a vehicle for communication, with interactional relationship between reader and writer;
- Functional model of language preferred;
- Emphasis on authenticity.

2.6.3. Theory of Learning

The theory of language is based on humanistic school. It is an approach that emphasizes:

- The importance of inner world of human being, thoughts, feelings, and emotions;
- Development of human values;
- Growth in self-awareness and understanding of others;
- Active student involvement in learning and the way learning takes place.

2.6.4. Theory of Language

The theory of language is based on Constructivist school:

- Knowledge is socially constructed, rather than received or discovered;
- Learners create meaning, learn by doing;
- Teacher collaborate with students to create knowledge rather than transmitting knowledge;
- Learners create meaning, learn by doing, and work collaboratively.

2.6.5. Teacher's Roles

Facilitator, an active participant in a learning community.

2.6.6. Learner's Roles

A collaborator; an evaluator, evaluating one's own and others' learning; self-directed; selectors of learning materials.

2.6.7. Materials

- Whole language learning advocates the use of real-world materials rather than commercial texts. Materials focus on experiences and activities relevant to learners' lives and needs;
- Whole language learning employs authentic materials;

2.6.8. Critical Appraisal

- Anti-direct teaching, anti-skills, and anti-materials, assuming that authentic materials are enough;
- Promotes fluency at the expense of accuracy (Figure 2.5).
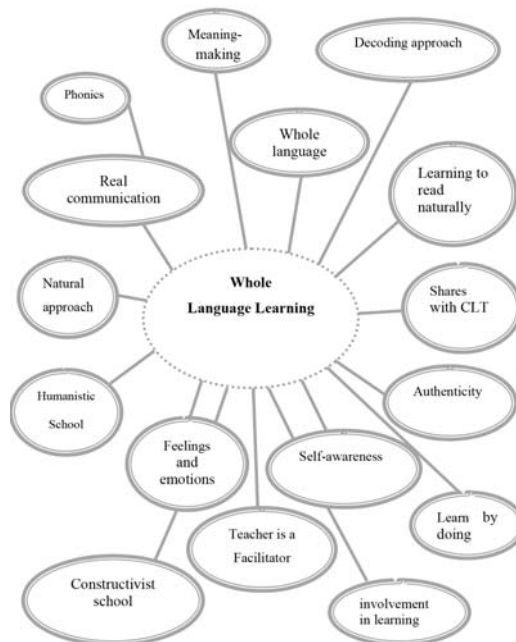
Figure 2.5. Conceptual map for whole language learning.

2.7. MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES MODEL

Multiple intelligences Model developed by Howard Gardner (1993):

- Learner-based philosophy holding that human intelligence has multiple dimensions;
- Focuses on differences among learners; pedagogy most successful when learner differences are acknowledged, analyzed for particular groups of learners, and accommodated in teaching.

2.7.1. Types of MI

- **Linguistic:** Ability to use language in special and creative ways, found in lawyers, writers, editors, and interpreters.
- **Logical/Mathematical:** Ability to think rationally, found in doctors, engineers, programmers, and scientists;
- **Spatial:** Ability to form mental models of world, found in architects, decorators, sculptors, and painters;
- **Musical:** Having a good ear for music, found in singers, and composers;
- **Bodily/Kinesthetic:** Having a well-coordinated body, found in athletes, and craftspersons;
- **Interpersonal:** Ability to work well with people, found in salespersons, politicians, and teachers;
- **Intrapersonal:** Ability to understand oneself and apply one's talents successfully; leads to happy and well-adjusted people in all areas of life;
- **Naturalistic:** Ability to understand and organize patterns of nature. Other types suggested include: Emotional Intelligence; Mechanical Intelligence; Practical Intelligence.

2.7.2. Theory of Language

Application of MI in LT is recent, no link to any theory of language:

- Looks at language of an individual;
- Not as limited to a linguistic perspective, but encourages all aspects of communication.

2.7.3. Theory of Learning

Language learning and use linked to linguistic intelligence; other intelligences enrich the tapestry of communication:

- Int. is not a unitary or general ability for problem solving;
- A cluster of mental abilities, separate but equal that share the pinnacle of the hierarchy called intelligence.

2.7.4. Objectives

Language class viewed as a setting for educational support systems to make learner a better designer of learning experiences.

2.7.5. Syllabus

A basic developmental sequence:

- **Stage 1: Awaken Intelligence:** By multisensory experiences are sensitized to things around them;
- **Stage 2: Amplify the Intelligence:** Students strengthen and improve intelligence by voluntary activities;
- **Stage 3: Teach with/for Intelligence:** Intelligence is linked with the focus of class, to some aspect of language learning;
- **Stage 4: Transfer of Intelligence:** Students reflect on their experiences and relate them to out of class issues.

2.7.6. Teacher Roles

Curriculum developers, lesson designers, activity finders, orchestrators of multisensory activities, both L teachers and contributors to the development of students' intelligences.

2.7.7. Learner's Roles

Engage in process of personality development, development of whole person, be more successful learners (Figure 2.6).
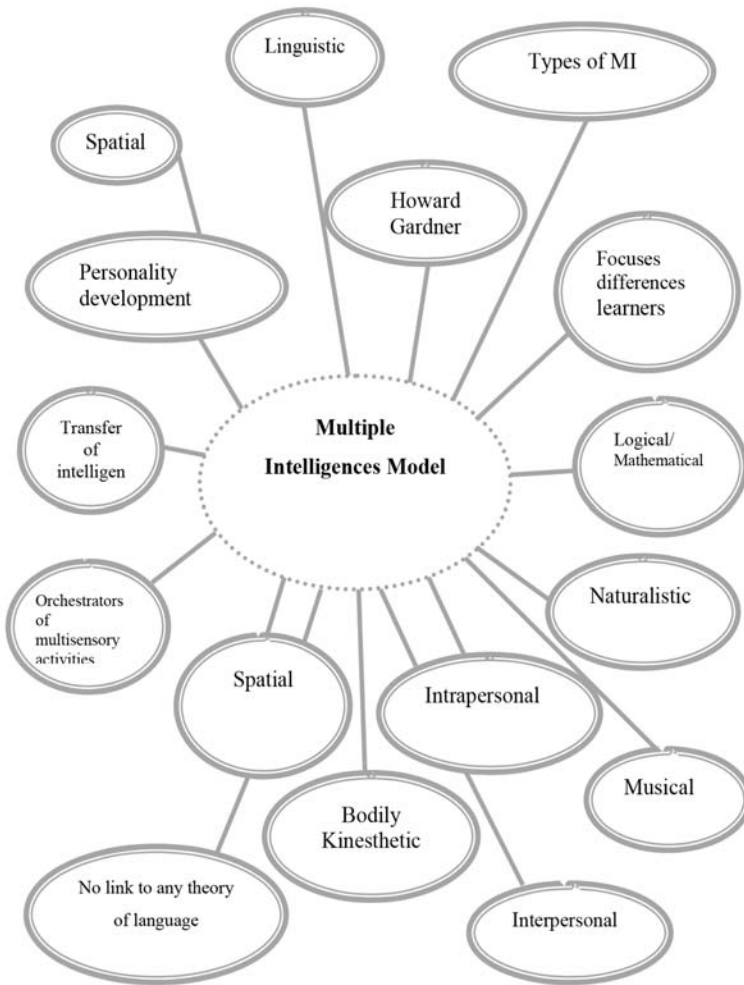
Figure 2.6. Conceptual map for multiple intelligence type.

2.8. NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING

NLP is a collection of techniques, patterns, and strategies for assisting effective communication, personal growth, change, and learning, based on a series of underlying assumptions about how the mind works and how people act and interact.

- A training philosophy a set of techniques developed by John Grindler and Richard Bandler in mid-1970s;

- Concerned with how people influence each other and how behaviors of very effective people can be duplicated;
- Concerned with techniques therapists use in building rapport with clients, and helping them achieve goals;
- Neuro-linguistics programming (NLP) assumptions referring to attitudes to life, to people, to self-discovery and awareness has been of interest within LT.

2.8.1. Theory of Language

- Neuro refers to beliefs about the brain and how it functions;
- Linguistic has nothing to do with the field of linguistics but refers to a theory of communication that tries to explain both verbal and nonverbal information processing;
- Programming refers to observable patterns of thought and NLP.

2.8.2. Theory of Learning

- Learning effective behaviors viewed as a problem of skill learning, dependent on moving from stages of controlled to automatic processing;
- Modeling also central to NLP learning: Modeling a skill means finding out about it, beliefs, and values enabling them to do it.

2.8.3. Principles

1. **Outcomes:** The goals or ends: know what you want;
2. **Rapport:** Effective factor for communication, maximizing similarities and minimizing differences between people;
3. **Sensory Acuity:** Noticing what someone is communicating;
4. **Flexibility:** Doing things differently if what you are doing is not working, having a range of skills (Figure 2.7).
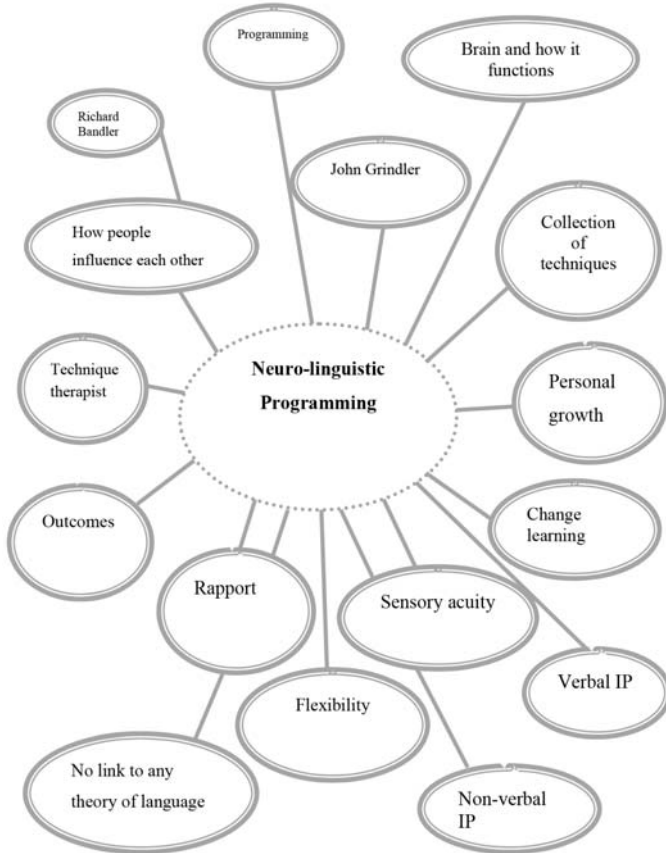
Figure 2.7. Conceptual map for neuro-linguistic programming.

2.9. THE LEXICAL APPROACH

- Reflects centrality of lexicon to language structure, L2 and language use, to multiword lexical units or chunks to be learned and used as single items;
- Based on belief that building blocks of language learning and communication are not grammar, functions, notions, or some other units of planning and teaching but lexis, words, and word combinations;
- Lexical units have referred to by different labels: Holo-phrases, prefabricated patterns, gambits, speech formulae, lexicalized stems;

- Corpus linguistics: Advances in computer-based studies of language provide huge database focusing on collocations of lexical items and multiple word units.

2.9.1. Theory of Language

In contrast to Chomsky's transformational/generative theory, LA holds that:

- Lexis plays a central role in language learning;
- Only a minority of spoken sentences are entirely novel, multiword units functioning as chunks or memorized patterns;
- Role of collocation also important: Regular occurrence of words together:
- Large-scale computer database of corpora examined patterns of phrase and clause sequences in texts and spoken samples;
- Native speakers have thousands of prepackaged phrases in their lexical inventory.

2.9.2. Theory of Learning

- **Pawley and Syder:** Native speakers have thousands of prepackaged phrases in their lexical inventory; implications for SLL are uncertain;
- **Krashen:** Massive amounts of language input is only effective approach to SLL;
- **Contrastive Approach:** For a number of languages, there is a considerable degree of overlap in the form and meaning of lexical collocations.

2.9.3. Syllabus

Based on lexical rather than grammatical principles:

- Word frequency counts determine contents of a course;
- Willis (1990): Lexical syllabus subsumes a structural syllabus, also indicates how structures should be exemplified.

2.9.4. Teacher Roles

- Teacher talk is a major source of learner input;
- Shows how lexical phrases are used for different functional purposes.

2.9.5. Learner Roles

As discoverer of related items from input, data analyst constructing one's own linguistic generalizations based on checking large corpora of language samples.

2.9.6. Materials

Four types of materials:

- **Type 1:** Complete courses packages including texts, tapes, teacher's manuals (e.g., Collins COBUILD English Course).
- **Type 2:** Collections of vocabulary. Teaching activities (e.g., Lewis's, 1989);
- **Type 3:** Printout versions of computer corpora collections packaged in text format (e.g., Tribble and Jones, 1990);
- **Type 4:** Computer concordancing programs and data attached data sets to allow students to set up and carry out their own analyzes (e.g., Oxford Micro Concord) (Figure 2.8).
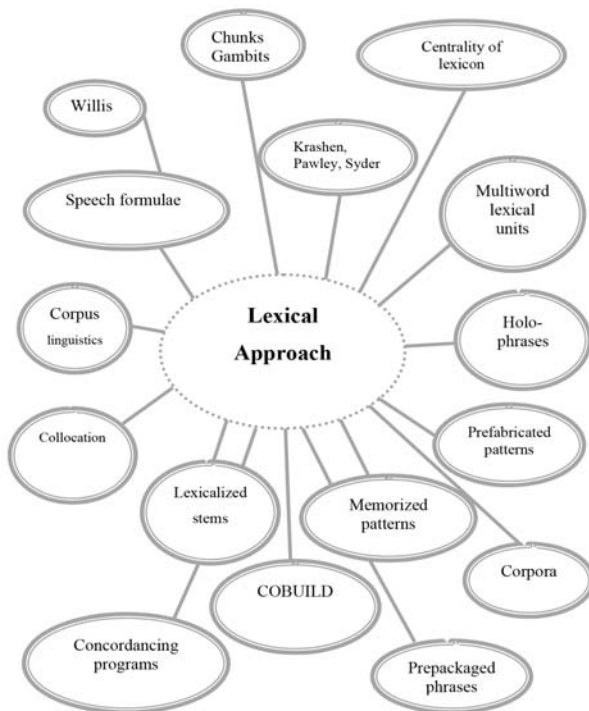
Figure 2.8. Conceptual map for lexical approach.

2.10. COMPETENCY-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

A competency is simply a statement of learning outcomes for a skill or a body of knowledge; When students demonstrate a "competency," they are demonstrating their ability to do something, showing the outcome of the learning process Competency is an integrated set of skills, knowledge, and attitudes that enables one to effectively perform the activities of a given occupation or function to standards expected in employment:

- Competencies are correlated with performance on a job and are typically measured against commonly accepted standards.
- Competency-based language teaching (CBE) is an educational movement developed in U.S. in the 1970s.
- Focuses on outcomes or outputs of learning in the development of language programs.
- Advocates defining educational goals in terms of precise measurable descriptions of knowledge, skills, and behaviors students should possess at the end of a course of study.
- Shares features with graded objectives movement in Britain: defining a series of short-term goals, each building upon the one before, so learners advance in knowledge and skills.

2.10.1. Theory of Language

Base on functional and interactional perspective of language; teach language in relation to social contexts in which it is used.

2.10.2. Theory of Learning

Learning can be functionally analyzed into appropriate parts and subparts and taught accordingly; Takes a mosaic approach to LL (i.e., whole language is constructed from smaller components).

2.10.3. Syllabus

Syllabus and course content developed around subject matter, the field of knowledge to teach;

- CBT (computer-based training) designed not around notion of subject knowledge but around notion of competency; not what students know about language but what they can do with it;

- Competencies consist of a description of essential skills, knowledge., attitudes, and behaviors required for effective performance of real-world task or activity (Figure 2.9).
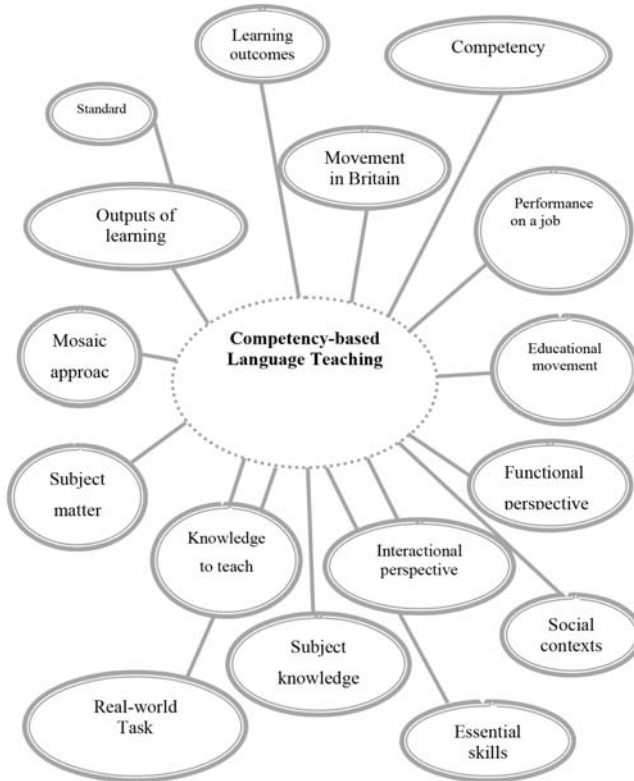
Figure 2.9. Conceptual map for competency-based language teaching.

2.11. COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

- Traditional approaches to LT gave priority to grammatical competence as the basis of language proficiency;
- Deductive the teaching of grammar;
- Techniques employed included memorization of dialogs, question-and-answer practice, substitution drills, and various forms of guided speaking and writing practice;
- Syllabuses consisted of word lists and grammar lists, graded across levels;

- In situational approach: P-P-P cycle was often employed: Presentation, Practice, Production;
- Under the influence of CLT theory: Grammar-based methodologies such as the P-P-P have given way to functional and skills-based teaching;
- Accuracy activities such as drill and grammar practice replaced by fluency activities based on interactive small-group work;
- In the 1970s: A reaction to traditional LT approaches began;
- The centrality of grammar in LT and learning was questioned, arguing that language ability involved much more than grammatical competence;
- Attention shifted to the knowledge and skills needed to use grammar and other aspects of language appropriately for different communicative purposes;
- Communicative purposes such as making requests, giving advice, making suggestions, describing wishes and needs, and so on;
- What was needed in order to use language communicatively was communicative competence (CC);
- Chomsky: Structural theories incapable of accounting for creativity and uniqueness of individual sentences;
- British applied linguists: Emphasized on functional and communicative potential of language, focusing on communicative proficiency rather than mastery of structures.

2.11.1. Theory of Language

In contrast to Chomsky's theory of competence: the abstract abilities of speaker to produce grammatically correct sentences. Hymes's (1972) CC: what speakers need to be communicatively competent in speech community, including both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to when and how to say what to whom; Halliday's (1970) theory of functions of language which complements Hymes's view of CC:

1. **Instrumental Function:** Using language to get things done.
2. **Regulatory Function:** To control behavior of others.
3. **Interactional Function:** To create interaction with others.
4. **Personal Function:** To express feeling and meanings.
5. **Heuristic Function:** To learn and discover.

6.   **Imaginative Function:** To create a world of imagination.

7.   **Representational Function:** To communicate information.

2.11.2. Theory of Learning

No clearly-stated underlying theory, but elements of underlying learning theory can be discerned:

- Communication principle: Activities that involve real communication promote learning;
- Focused on com. acts underlying the ability to use language for different purposes;

Canale and Swain (1980) four dimensions of CC:

1.   **Grammatical Competence:** Chomsky's linguistic comp, what is formally possible, domain of grammatical and lexical capacity;

2.   **Sociolinguistic Competence:** Understanding of social context in which communication takes place, role relationships, shared information of participants;

3.   **Discourse Competence:** Interpretation of individual message elements in terms of their interconnectedness and of how meaning is represented in relationship to the entire discourse or text;

4.   **Strategic Competence:** Coping strategies communicators employ to initiate, terminate, maintain, repair, and redirect communication.

2.11.3. Principles

- Language is a system for the expression of meaning;
- Goal of FL study is to communicate in TL, involving knowledge of linguistic forms, meaning, and functions;
- Primary function of language is interaction and communication;
- Structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses;
- Primary units of language are not grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning exemplified in discourse;
- Authentic language as it is used in real context should be used;
- Fluency is an important dimension of communication;

- Communication involves integration of different language skills;
- Learning is a process of creative construction.

2.11.4. Two Versions of CLT From Howatt's Perspective

1. **Strong Version:** Using English to learn it:
- Claims that language is acquired through communication;
- We learn language in the process of using it communicatively;
2. **Weak Version:** Learning English to use it:
- Stresses importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes;
- Integrates communicative activities into a wider program of language teaching.

2.11.5. Syllabus

1. **Notional Syllabus:** Including semantic-grammatical categories (frequency, motion, and location) and categories of communicative functions;
2. **Council of Europe:** Expanded the syllabus to include:
- Objectives for FL study;
- Situations to use FL (travel, business);
- Topics (personal identification, education, shopping);
- Functions (describing something, requesting information, expressing agreement and disagreement);
- Notions (time, frequency, duration).

2.11.5.1. Types of Communicative Syllabus (Yalden, 1983)

- Structures plus functions;
- Functional spiral around a structural core;
- Structural, functional, instrumental;
- Functional;
- Notional;
- Interactional;
- Task-based;
- Learner-generated.

2.11.6. CLT Activities

- Engage learners in communication;(language games, role play, picture strip story);
- Require use of meaning and interaction;
- Focus on completing tasks mediated through language;
- Involve negotiation of information and information sharing.

Features of CLT activities (Johnson and Morrow, 1981):

1. **Information Gap:** One person in an exchange knows something the other does not;
2. **Choice:** Speaker has a choice of what to say and how to say;
3. **Feedback:** True communication is purposeful; speaker evaluates his purpose based on information (feedback) received from listener.

2.11.7. Learner Roles

Emphasis on process of communication rather than mastery of L forms. Learners as negotiator; between the self, the learning process, the object of learning, and other interlocutors.

2.11.8. Teacher Roles

1. **Facilitator of the Communication Process:** Between all participants and between participants and activities and texts;
2. **Independent Participant:** Within learning-teaching group;
3. **Needs Analyst:** Assuming responsibility for determining and responding to learners' L needs;
4. **Counselor:** Maximizing the meshing of speaker intention and hearer interpretation through using paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback;
5. **Group Process Manager:** Organizing classroom as a setting for communication and communicative activities.

2.11.9. Types of Materials

- **Text-based Materials:** Textbooks to direct and support CLT; with a kind of grading and sequencing of L practice, usu. written around a largely structural syllabus;

- **Task-based Materials:** A variety of games, role plays, simulations, and task-based communication activities in the form of exercise handbooks, cue cards, activity cards, pair-communication practice materials, and student-interaction practice booklets;
- **Realia:** Authentic, from-life language-based realia.
- Including signs, magazines, ads, newspapers; or graphic and visual sources such as maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts (Figure 2.10).
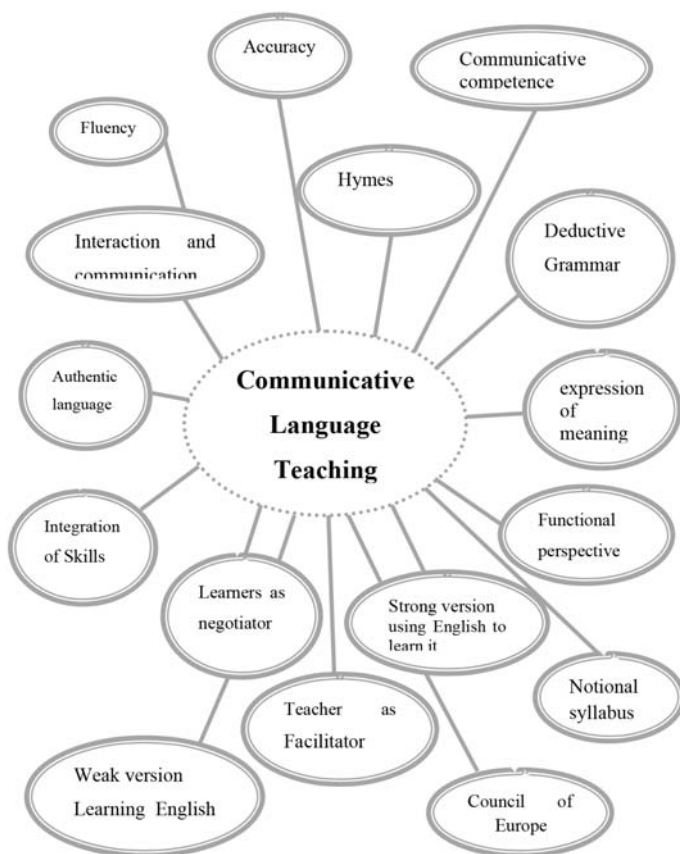
Figure 2.10. Conceptual map for communicative language teaching.

2.12. NATURAL APPROACH

Tracy Terrell (1977) developed a LT proposal incorporating the naturalistic principles researchers had identified in studies of SLA:

1. **Stephan Krashen:** Elaborated a theoretical rationale for the NA, drawing on his influential theory of monitor model:

2. **Natural Method:** Emphasized that the principles underlying it conformed to principles of naturalistic LL in young children;

NA conforms to naturalistic principles found successful SLA. Unlike DM, it places less emphasis on teacher monologs, direct repetition, and formal questions and answers;

- Emphasis is on exposure, or input, rather than practice;
- Natural Approach: Theory of language;
- Communication as the primary function of language;
- Focus on teaching communicative abilities;
- Emphasis on the primacy of meaning;
- Language is a vehicle for communicating meanings and messages.

2.12.1. Theory of Learning

1. The underlying theory comes from the framework proposed by Krashen (1985) composed of five hypotheses:

i. **The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis:** Adults have two different ways of developing competence in L2: 'Acquisition': a subconscious process identical to the process children utilize in acquiring their L1; naturalistic development of language proficiency through using listening. 'Learning': a conscious process that results in 'knowing about' the rules of language; a process in which conscious rules about L develop; learned competence functions as a monitor or editor;

ii. **The Monitor Hypothesis:** The 'monitor' is an aspect of learning; we may call upon learned knowledge to correct ourselves in communication;

a. It edits and makes alterations or corrections as they are consciously perceived;

b. 'fluency' in L2 performance is due to 'what we have acquired,' not 'what we have learned;'

Three conditions for its use:

- There must be enough time;
- The focus must be on form and not on meaning;

- The learner must know the rule.

iii. **The Natural Order Hypothesis:** The acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predicted progression;

a. Certain grammatical structures or morphemes are acquired before others in L1 acquisition and there is a similar natural order in SLA;

b. The implication is that acquisition is subconscious and free from conscious intervention.

iv. **The Affective Filter Hypothesis:** Learner's emotional state is just like an adjustable filter which freely passes or hinders input necessary to acquisition; input must be achieved in low-anxiety contexts since acquirers with a low affective filter receive more input and interact with confidence; affective or attitudinal variables include self-confidence, motivation, and anxiety state.

v. **The Input Hypothesis:** Relates to acquisition, not to learning; people acquire language best by understanding input that is a little beyond their present level of competence (comprehensible input) (that is, i + 1);

a. The 'input' should be relevant and 'not grammatically sequenced;' The 'input' should also be in sufficient quantity.

b. Natural Approach.

2.12.2. Objectives

The NA is for beginners, designed to help them become intermediates; to develop basic communication skills, both oral and written; With expectation that students be able to:

- Function adequately in the target situation;
- Understand the speaker of the TL;
- Convey their requests and ideas;
- They need not know every word in a particular semantic domain, nor is it necessary that the syntax and vocabulary be flawless-but their production does need to be understood.

2.12.3. Syllabus

Communication goals in NA may be expressed in terms of situations, functions, and topics.

2.12.4. Materials

Supposed to make classroom activates meaningful by providing extralinguistic context to help learners understand and acquire language:

- Primary purpose is to promote comprehension and communication; thus, pictures, and other visual aids are essential;
- Materials come from the world of realia rather than from textbooks.

2.12.5. Activities

Emphasis on presenting comprehensible input:

- Learners need to talk to minimize stress; techniques are often borrowed and adapted from other methods;
- Command-based activities from TPR;
- DM activities in which time, gesture, and context are used to elicit questions and answers, plus situation-based practice of structures and patterns.

2.12.6. Learner Roles

Language acquirer is seen as processor of CI, challenged by input slightly beyond her current level of competence.

Learners' stages of linguistic development:

- **Pre-Production Stage:** Students participate in the L activity (e.g., act out physical command, point to pictures) without having to respond in TL.
- **Early-Production Stage:** Ss respond to either-or questions, use single words and short phrases, fill in charts, and use fixed conversational patterns.
- **Speech Emergent Phase:** Ss involve in role-play and games, contribute personal information and opinions, and participate in group problem solving.

2.12.7. Teacher Roles

- First, primary source of CI in TL, providing input for acquisition; thus, a more center-stage role for teacher than in other communicative methods;

- Second, creates interesting, friendly classroom atmosphere with low affective filter for learning;
- Third, chooses and orchestrates a rich mix of classroom activities, involving a variety of group sizes, content, and contexts, responsible for collecting materials and designing their use (Figure 2.11).
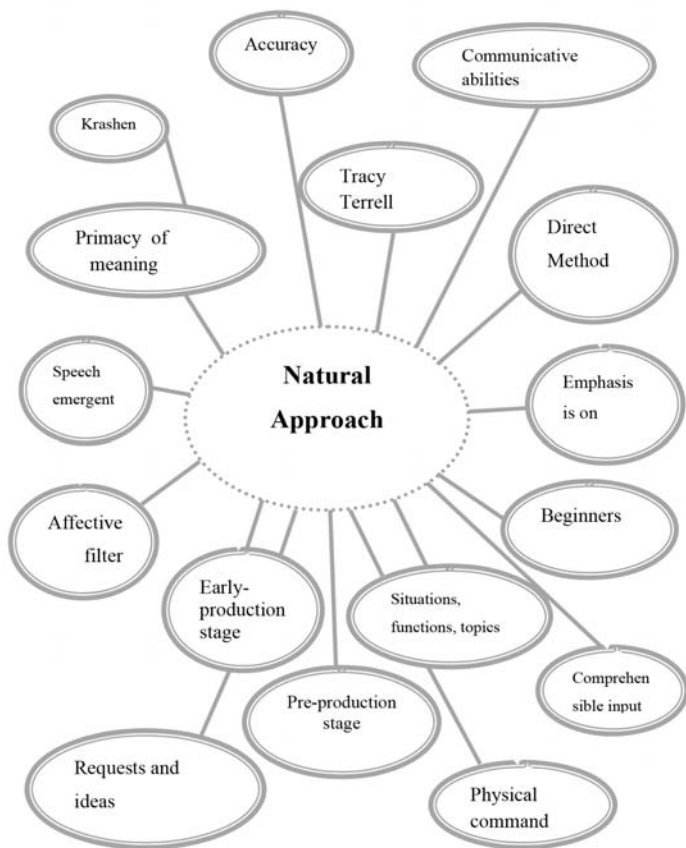
Figure 2.11. Conceptual map for natural approach.

2.13. COOPERATIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING (CLL)

Cooperative language learning (CLL) is a part of a more general approach (i.e., collaborative learning); CLL makes maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups of learners in the classroom. Learning is dependent on socially structured exchange of information

between learners in group; Early 20th-century educator, John Dewey; promoted idea of building cooperation in learning in the classroom.

2.13.1. Main Focus

- Raise achievement of all students;
- Help teacher build positive relationship among students;
- Give students experience they need for social, psychological, and cognitive development;
- Replace the traditional competitive classroom structure with team-based, high performance structure;
- Develop learners' critical thinking.

2.13.2. Theory of Language

- Founded on interactive/cooperative the nature of language;
- Used to support structural and functional as well as interactional models of language;
- CLL activities used to focus on language form as well as to practice language functions.

2.13.3. Theory of Learning

- CLL draws on work of developmental psychologists Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky who stress the central role of social interaction in learning;
- Learners develop CC in a language by conversing in socially or pedagogically structured situations.

2.13.4. Objectives

- Foster cooperation rather than competition;
- Develop critical thinking skills;
- Develop CC through social interaction activities.

2.13.5. Syllabus

- CLL does not assume any particular form of language syllabus;
- Used in teaching content classes, ESP, the four skills, grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary.

2.13.6. Learner's Roles

- Learner is a member of a group to work collaboratively on tasks;
- Has to learn teamwork skills;
- Directors of their own learning, planning, monitoring, and evaluating it.

2.13.7. Teacher Roles

- Facilitator of learning, helping individuals and groups;
- Creating a highly structured and well-organized learning environment in classroom;
- Setting goals, planning, and structuring tasks, establishing physical arrangement of classroom;
- Assigning students to group and roles, and selecting materials and time (Figure 2.12).
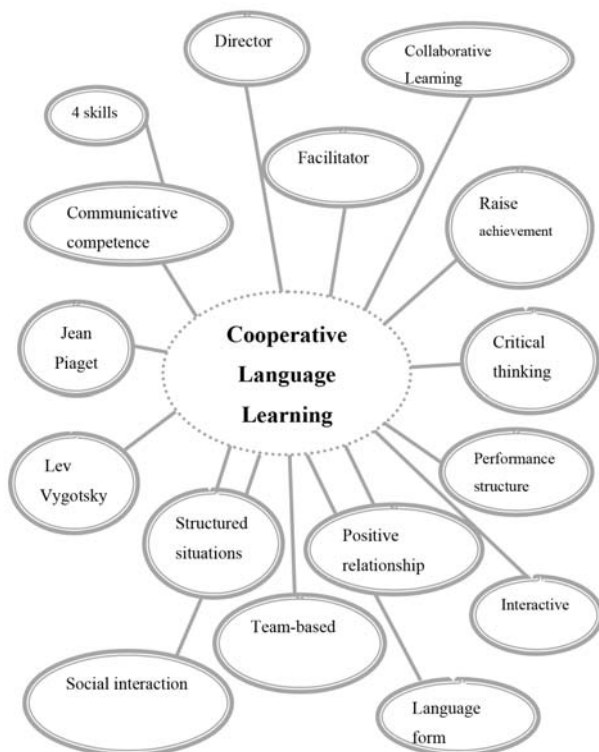
Figure 2.12. Conceptual map for cooperative language learning.

2.14. CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION

Content-based instruction (CBI) is organized around the content or information that students will acquire, rather than around a linguistic or other type of syllabus. Teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately. Content refers to the substance or subject matter we learn or communicate through language rather than the language used to convey it. CBI draws on the principle of CLT, focusing on real communication, and holding that the subject matter of LT not be grammar or functions or other language-based unit of organization, but content or subject matter outside the domain of language.

1. **Language Across the Curriculum:** Language skills are taught in the content subjects, not left for language teacher to deal with, slogan "every teacher, an English teacher."

- Subject matter text, exercises dealing with language practice, needing collaboration between teacher, and language teacher;

2. **Immersion Education:** Regular school curriculum taught through medium of FL; FL is the vehicle for content instruction, not the subject of instruction;

3. **Immigrant On-Arrival Programs:** Newly arrived immigrants need to learn how to deal with different kinds of real-world content as a basis for social survival;

4. **Design:** Integrate notional, functional, grammatical, and lexical specifications built around themes and situations.

2.14.1. Content-Based Instruction: Role of Content in Curriculum Design

1. **Programs for Students with Limited English Proficiency (SLEP):** For school children whose L competence is insufficient to participate fully in normal school instruction;

- Incl, language, and other skills needed to enter regular school curriculum;

2. **Language for Specific Purposes (LSP):** For learner who need L to carry out specific roles (e.g., student, engineer, technician, nurse), who acquire content, and real-world skills through the medium of a SL.

- **Variations:** English for science and technology (EST), English for specific purposes (ESP), English for occupational purpose (EOP), English for academic purposes (EAP).

2.14.2. Principles

- People learn an L2 more successfully when they use language as a means of acquiring information, rather than as an end in it;
- CBI better reflects learners' needs for learning an L2.

2.14.3. Theory of Language

Assumptions about the nature of language:

- **Language is Text-and Discourse-based:** CBI views L as a vehicle for learning content, stressing linguistic entries longer than single sentences, linguistic features that create coherence and cohesion;
- **Language Use Draws on Integrated Skills:** Students are involved in activities that link several skills, topic-or theme-based courses provide a good basis for integrated skills approach as topics create coherence, and continuity across skills;
- **Language is Purposeful:** Language is used for specific purposes, academic, vocational, social, or recreational; to make content comprehensible, teachers make.
- Adjustment and simplification called, foreigner talk, teacher talk.

2.14.4. Theory of Learning

- People learn an L2 most successfully when information are acquiring is perceived as interesting, useful, and leading to a desired goal;
- Some content areas are more useful as a basis for LL than others;
- Students learn best when instruction addresses students' needs;
- Teaching builds on the previous experience of the learners.

2.14.5. Objectives

LL is considered incidental to the learning of content; objectives are stated as objectives of the content course.

2.14.6. Materials and Syllabus

- Materials are subject matters of the content course (i.e., Authentic).
- Syllabus is derived from content area.

2.14.7. Learner Roles

Learners are to be independent, autonomous to understand their own learning process, and take charge of it:

- Collaborative mode of learning is emphasized;
- CBI is in the learning by doing school of pedagogy.

2.14.8. Teacher Roles

Teachers should have knowledge of subject matter:

- Responsible for selecting and adapting authentic materials, student needs analysts;
- Should create truly learner-centered classrooms.

2.14.9. Types of CBI

1. **Theme-based Language Instruction:** Learning course in which syllabus is organized around themes or topics, e.g., pollution, traffic, or women's rights;
- Syllabus is subordinated to general theme;
- Language analysis and practice evolve out of topics that form the framework for the course;
- Content and instructional sequences are chosen according to learning goals and objectives.
2. **Sheltered Content Instruction:** Content course taught in an L2 by a content area specialist to a group of ESL learners:
- Instructor needs to present the content in a way which is comprehensible to SL learners, adjust course;
- Requirements to accommodate learners' L capacities (Figure 2.13).
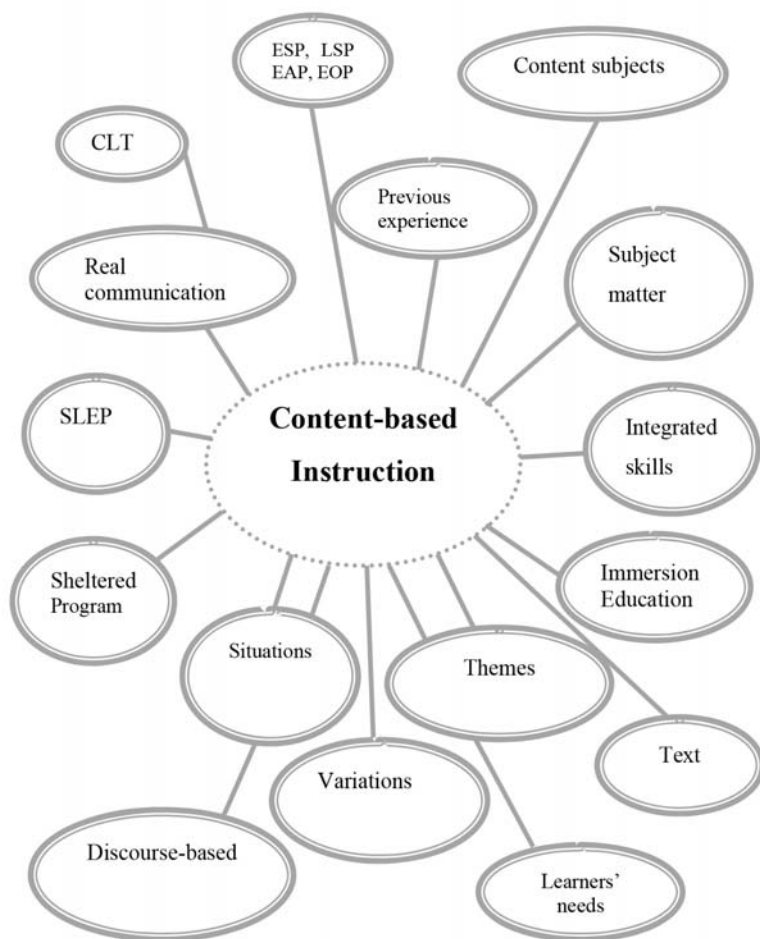
Figure 2.13. Conceptual map for content-based instruction.

2.15. TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

- An approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in LT;
- A task is an activity or goal that is carried out using language, such as finding a solution to a puzzle, reading a map, and giving directions, making a telephone call, writing a letter, or reading a set of instructions and assembling a toy.

2.15.1. Shares Principles with CLT

- Activities that involve real communication are essential for LL;
- Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning;
- Language that is meaningful to learner supports the learning process;
- Task-based LT: Assumptions;
- Focus is on process rather than on product;
- Basic elements are purposeful activities and tasks that emphasizes communication and meaning;
- Learners learn language by interacting communicatively and purposefully while engaged in activities and tasks;
- Activities and tasks can be either those that learners might need to achieve in real life or those that have pedagogical purpose specific to classroom;
- Activities and tasks of a task-based syllabus are sequenced according to difficulty;
- Difficulty of tasks depends on a range of factors including previous experience of learners, complexity of task, language required to undertake the task, and degree of support;

2.15.2. Task-based Language Teaching: Theory of language
Main Focus

- Language is primarily a means of making meaning: Assessment of task is in terms of outcome, task-based instruction is not concerned with language display;
- Multiple models of language inform TBI: Draws on structural, functional, and interactional models of language;
- Lexical units are central in language use and LL: Not only words but also lexical phrases, sentence stems, prefabricated routines, and collocations;
- Conversation is the central focus of L and the keystone of L acquisition;
- Task-based LT: Theory of learning;
- Tasks provide both the input and output processing necessary for L acquisition;

- Task activity and achievement are motivational;
- Learning difficulty can be negotiated and fine-tuned for particular pedagogical purposes;
- Specific tasks can be designed to facilitate the use and learning of particular aspects of language;
- Task-based LT: Syllabus.

A conventional syllabus specifies content of a course among following categories:

- Language structures;
- Functions;
- Topics and themes;
- Macro-skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking);
- Competencies;
- Text types;
- Vocabulary targets;

Task-based Language Teaching: Type of Tasks

Type I

1. **Real-World Tasks:** Designed to practice or rehearse tasks that are found to be important in a need's analysis, (e.g., using a phone).
2. **Pedagogical Tasks:** Have a psycholinguistic basis in SLA theory and research but may not reflect real-world tasks, (e.g., information-gap task).

Type II

1. **Jigsaw Task:** Combining different pieces of information to form a whole (e.g., three individuals or groups have three different parts of a story and have to piece it together).
2. **Information-Gap Task:** One student or group has one set of inf. and another has a complementary set to negotiate and complete an activity.
3. **Problem-Solving Tasks:** Students are given a problem and a set of inf. to solve it.

4. **Decision-Making Task:** Students are given a problem and a number of possible outcomes to choose from.

5. **Opinion Exchange Tasks:** Learners engage in discussion and exchange of ideas.

Type III:

1. **One-Way or Two-Way:** Whether the task involves a one-way or a two-way exchange of information.

2. **Convergent or Divergent:** Whether the students achieve a common goal or several different goal.

3. **Collaborative or Competitive:** Whether the students collaborate or compete to carry out a task.

4. **Reality/Not Reality-based:** Whether the task mirrors a real-world activity or is a pedagogical activity not found in the real world.

2.15.3. Learner Roles

- Group participant, taking part in group activities;
- Monitor, noticing how language is used in communication;
- Risk-taker, innovator, and creating interpreting messages for which they lack full linguistic resources and prior knowledge.

2.15.4. Teacher Roles

- Selector and sequence of tasks;
- Preparing learners for tasks in pre-task activities;
- Consciousness-raising, helping student to attend to or notice critical features of the language they use and hear;

2.15.5. Instructional Materials

- Pedagogic (instructional) materials;
- Realia;
- Newspapers;
- Television;
- Internet (Figure 2.14).
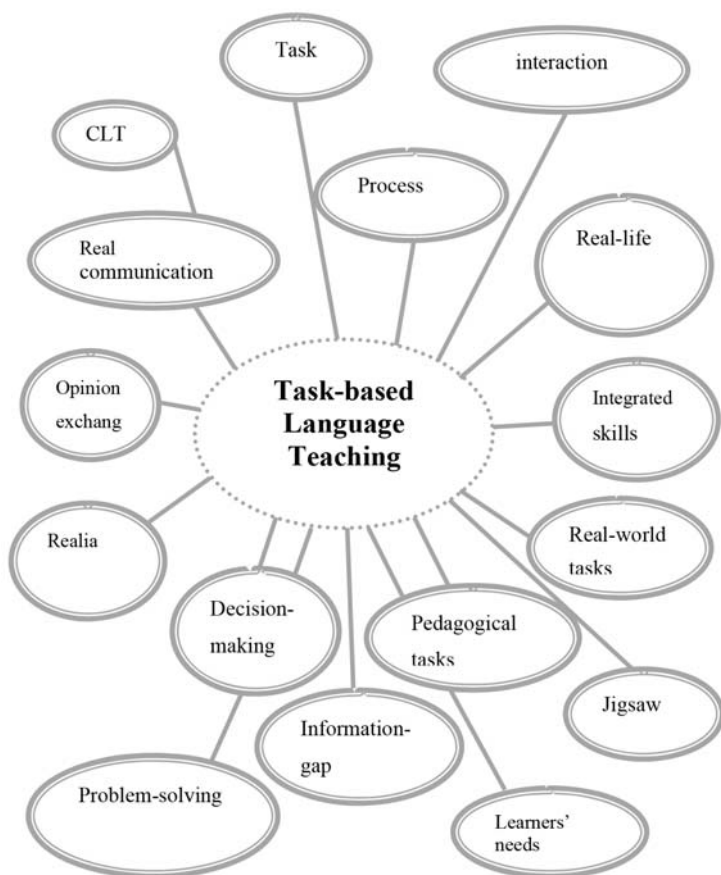
Figure 2.14. Conceptual map for task-based language teaching.

2.16. POST METHOD PEDAGOGY

Method refers to a specific instructional design or system based on a particular theory of language and LL:

- Contains specifications of content, roles of teachers and Learners, teaching procedures and techniques;
- Fixed in time, with little individual interpretation;
- Have short shelf-life;
- Linked to specific claims and prescribed practices;
- The post-methods era: Criticism of methods.

2.16.1. The Post-Method Predicament

In their edited volume, Orientalism, and the Postcolonial Predicament, Carol Brecken-bridge, and Peter van der Veer identify two characteristics of what they call the postcolonial predicament: the first is that the colonial period has given us both the evidence and the theories that select and connect them; and, second, that decolonization does not entail immediate escape from the colonial discourse. Despite all the recent talk of "third-world voices," this predicament defines both the ex-colonizer and the ex-colonized. To some extent, this is tantamount to saying that we cannot escape from history… a history characterized by a particular discursive formation that can be called "orientalism" (1993, p. 2).

Post method pedagogy as a postcolonial project faces a similar predicament: it has to deal with a colonial history characterized by a particular discursive formation called method, which, as the above discussion shows, has been shaped by a form of orientalism. The discursive formation of the colonial concept of method continues to cast a long hegemonic shadow over ELT pedagogic practices even after colonialism has formally ended. It is, however, doubtful whether it can continue to hold such a hegemonic hold without the direct or indirect support of the subaltern. As Kumaravadivelu sees it, then, the post method predicament has two dimensions: the process of marginalization, and the practice of self-marginalization.

2.16.2. The Process of Marginalization

What makes the structure of the colonial construct of method still stand strong is the process of marginalization with its steadfast adherence to some of the flawed assumptions that continue to govern SLL, teaching, and research, and its equally steadfast avoidance of any meaningful engagement with critiques of those assumptions. This process of marginalization is manufactured and maintained by what Kachru (1996) has called "paradigms of marginality." He has identified a cluster of three paradigms-paradigm myopia, paradigm lag, and paradigm misconnection. These paradigms, he argues, explain why and how flawed research practices-such as treating monolingual speakers and societies as norms for forming hypotheses about bilingual development, claiming the status of "scientific theory" for those attitudinally loaded hypotheses, and delinking the investigative processes of hypothesis formation, hypothesis testing and hypothesis confirmation from sociolinguistic contexts and historical realities of language use-continue to hold sway in applied linguistic circles. He also argues convincingly how

these paradigms of marginality are being used as "a very effective strategy of subtle power" (p. 242).

2.16.3. The Practice of Self-Marginalization

Self-marginalization is not a new phenomenon. It is perhaps as old as the history of human domination-subordination. Alvares (1997) is right when he observes: "no ideology legitimizing superiority-inferiority relations are worth its salt unless it wins at least a grudging assent in the minds of those dominated" (p. 187). In other words, members of the dominated group, knowingly or unknowingly, legitimize the characteristics of inferiority attributed to them by the dominating group. As social historians have remarked, why "circumstances related to particular historical contexts that may be reversed" have "led colonial peoples to more essential conclusions about themselves are not entirely clear. The fact that they frequently did come to such conclusions was one of the most degrading consequences of colonialism."

2.16.4. The Post-Methods Era: Criticism of Methods

1. **The Top-Down Criticism:** The role of the teacher is marginalized; his role is an understanding method and applies its principles correctly; there is little room for teacher's personal initiative and teaching style;

2. **Role of Contextual Factors:** Approaches and methods are presented as all-purpose solutions to teaching problems; this ignores the role of the cultural, political, and local institutional context in which teaching and learning occurs;

3. **The Need for Curriculum Development Processes:** Decisions about methods cannot be determined without considering other planning and implementation practices within the curriculum;

4. **Lack of Research Basis:** There are claims and assumptions about methods not based on SLA research or empirical tests;

5. **Similarity of Classroom Practices:** It is difficult for teachers to use approaches and methods in ways that precisely reflect the underlying principles of the method;

- The post-methods era: Beyond approaches and methods;

- An approach or a predetermined method, with its activities,

principles, and techniques may be the essential starting point for the inexperienced teacher;

- With growing knowledge and experience, a teacher is to develop an individual approach or personal method;
- The teacher adds, modifies, and adjusts the approach or method to the realities of to classroom;

6. **Eclecticism:** It has been accepted as a practical solution to instances when a method has not been applicable;

- No single method of LT would bring total success in teaching a L2;
- The practice of adapting and adopting different techniques from different methods;

7. **Brown (2001):** Diversity of language learners in multiple contexts demands an eclectic blend of tasks, each tailored for a particular group of learners in a particular place, studying for particular purposes in a given amount of time;

8. **Teacher's Approach:** Includes a number of basic principles of learning and teaching, a dynamic composite of energies within him that change with experience; the interaction between his approach and his classroom practice is the key to dynamic teaching.

Three parameters:

1. **The Parameter of Particularity:** Any post method pedagogy "must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular socio-cultural milieu;

- Rejects the idea that there can be one set of teaching aims and objectives realizable through one set of teaching principles and procedures;
- The post-methods era: Three parameters.

2. **The Parameter of Practicality:** Relates broadly to the relationship between theory and practice, and narrowly to the teacher's skill in monitoring his or her own teaching effectiveness;

- Focuses on teachers' reflection and action;
- A distinction between professional theories and personal theories:

Professional Theories: Those generated by experts, and generally transmitted from centers of higher learning;

Personal Theories: Those developed by teachers by interpreting and applying professional theories in practical situations while they are on the job;

- Emphasis on action research; the fundamental aim of action research is to improve practice rather than to produce knowledge.
- The post-methods era: Three parameters.

3. **The Parameter of Possibility:** The experiences participants bring to the pedagogical setting are shaped, not just by what they experience in the classroom, but also by a broader social, economic, and political environment in which they grow up:

- These experiences have the potential to alter classroom aims and activities in ways unintended and unexpected by policy planners or curriculum designers or textbook producers;
- Concerned with language ideology and learner identity;
- Future trends in LT methodologies.

Richards and Rodgers (2001): A number of factors have influenced LT trends in the past and that can be expected to continue to do so in the future:

- Government policy directives;
- Trends in the profession;
- Guru-led innovations;
- Responses to technology;
- Influences from academic disciplines;
- Research influences;
- Learner-based innovations;
- Crossover educational trends;
- Crossovers from other disciplines.

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Chapter 3

Robinson's Theories and Hypotheses on Attention

CONTENTS

3.1. OVERVIEW

This chapter aims to summarize current Cognitive Linguistic perspectives on patterns of language, patterns of language use, and patterns of child language acquisition (LA), and the influence of the different aspects of 'cognitive learning' such as perception, reception, memory, attention, categorization, and retention, and how, in usage-based child LA, attention to input controls the products of learning, the increasingly productive frames, schemata, and constructions that reflect and in turn enable the development of fluent, and complex, language use. Information-processing models of L2 acquisition also distinguish the processes responsible for comprehension and acquisition. Robinson (1995, cited in Ellis, 2003), in a review of these models, identifies two general types. He characterizes filter models as viewing information being processed serially and attention as selective. In contrast, he sees capacity models as allowing for the parallel processing of information with the possibility of allocating attention to two tasks simultaneously.

3.2. ATTENTION

Ellis and Robinson (2008, p. 3) point out, "language is used to focus the listener's attention to the world; it can foreground different elements in the theater of consciousness to potentially relate many different stories and perspectives about the same scene. What is attended is learned, and so attention controls the acquisition of language itself." According to Robinson (1995), the concept of attention has three uses. It can be used to describe the processes involved in 'selecting' the information to be processed and stored in memory. For instance, researchers have used dichotic listening tasks to examine the fact that attention has a valuable focus and can select information to be processed to the exclusion of other information (Cherry, 1953; Moray, 1959, cited in Robinson, 1995). On the other hand, attention can be used to describe our 'capacity' to process information. Studies of divided attention show that attention is capacity-limited and that decrements in performance increase as the number of task dimensions, or components to be processed increase (Taylor, Lindsay, and Forbes, 1967, cited in Robinson, 1995).

The need for L2 speakers to trade off accuracy and complexity as a result of limited processing capacity is not accepted by everyone, however, Robinson (1995, cited in Ellis, 2003) adopts a multiple resources view of attention, according to which speakers have the capacity to handle different demands on their attention in parallel. One view (Klatzky, 1980, cited in

Burden and Williams, 1997) suggests that attention should be seen as a process of filtering out an overwhelming range of incoming stimuli and selecting out only those stimuli which are important for further processing.

One condition that has received some attention is task demands, specifically whether the task imposes a single or a dual demand. Robinson (2001, cited in Ellis, 2003) notes that this has been investigated extensively in educational research by studying the effect on performance of adding a second task to the main task. He operationalized this factor in a map task in which the route to be described was either marked on the map (single task) or not marked, thus requiring the learner to identify the route to be followed as well as describe it (dual-task). On the other hand, another input factor concerns the number of factors that need to be manipulated by the speakers at the time of language production. In this respect, Robinson (2001, cited in Ellis, 2003) compared learners' performance on two map tasks that differed in terms of the amount of information provided on the map. He reports that the learners produced more fluent language when working with the simple map and lexically more complex language with the detailed map. Robinson (2001, cited in Ellis, 2003) further suggests, "Production is influenced by whether learners are asked to carry out a single task demand or whether a secondary task demand is added" (p. 122). In the above example, when the route on the map has not been marked, then the map user is involved in a dual-task demand because he has to work out the route for himself at the same time as giving direction. In this respect, Robinson and Lim (1993, cited in Ellis) cite an unpublished study that found that learners were more fluent when performing with the map with the route marked on it. However, no effect on accuracy or complexity was found in this study.

According to Robinson (1995), the relative difficulty or complexity of L2 tasks is necessary as input to pedagogical decisions regarding the grading and sequencing of tasks for the purpose of syllabus design. Some researchers have argued that task difficulty will be affected by task factors such as confidence and motivation (Nunan, 1989, cited in Robinson, 1995). Others have attempted to determine difficulty by identifying the particular structures that tasks elicit, and then locating them relative to each other at proposed stages of development (Mackey et al., 1992, cited in Robinson, 1995).

There is evidence that some grammatical phenomena cannot be learned out of sequence and without paying enough attention (Pienemann, 1989; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991, cited in Robinson and Ross, n.d.). Regarding

this issue from another perspective, Robinson (2001, cited in Ellis, 2003) suggests that tasks vary in their complexity according to the cognitive demands placed on learners and distinguishes what he calls 'resource-directing' factors, for example +/– reasoning demands, and 'resource-depleting' factors, for instance, whether or not a secondary task accompanies the primary task. That is why there is a clear need to acknowledge the cognitive dimension of a task in any definition. The ease with which learners are able to perform different tasks depends on three sets of factors. First, there are the inherent characteristics of the task itself. These relate to the nature of the input, the task conditions, the processing operations involved in completing the task and the outcome that is required. Robinson (2001, cited in Ellis, 2003) refers to these factors under the heading of 'task complexity.' He (2001, cited in Ellis, 2003) comments:

Task complexity is the result of the attentional memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on the language learner. These differences in information processing demands, resulting from design characteristics, are relatively fixed and invariant (p. 29).

Task complexity can account for intra-learner variability, i.e., the variability evident when the same learner performs different tasks. Second, Robinson (2001, cited in Ellis, 2003) identifies factors relating to learners as individuals, which can influence how easy or difficult a particular task is for different participants. These factors include, obviously, the learner's level of proficiency and also various factors such as the learner's intelligence, language aptitude, learning style, memory capacity, and motivation. Robinson (2001, cited in Ellis, 2003) sees these factors as relating to 'task difficulty,' which is dependent on 'the resources the learner brings to the task.' Task difficulty accounts for inter-learner variability. The third set of factors involves the methodological procedures used to teach a task. These procedures can increase or ease the processing burden placed on the learner. They include the use of a pre-task activity, for example, pre-teaching the vocabulary needed to perform the task of carrying out a task similar to the main task which the assistance of the teacher, and planning time, i.e., giving students the opportunity to plan before they undertake the task. These groups of factors are referred to as 'task procedures.' Like task complexity factors, task procedures also result in intra-learner variability.

The context-dependency of the input may also have an impact on complexity. Textual input that is supported by visual information in some

form is generally easier to process than information with no such support. Robinson (1995, cited in Ellis, 2003) bases his claim that context-free input is more complex on the result of L1 and L2 studies that show 'there-and-then' reference to be developmentally later.

There are many essential patterns of SLA (Doughty and Long, 2003; Ellis, 1994; Kaplan, 2002; Kroll and De Groot, 2005; Long, 1990; Perdue, 1993, cited in Ellis and Robinson, 2008). In this respect, Long (1990, cited in Ellis and Robinson, 2008) maintains, "Some aspects of an L2 require awareness and/or attention to language form—implicit learning is not sufficient for successful SLA and focus on form improves rate and ultimate L2 attainment" (p. 7). Finally, it can be used to describe the mental effort involved in processing information. Pupillary dilation, for example, can be measured as a physical index of the degree of mental effort required in attending to increasingly complex tasks (Kahneman, 1973, cited in Robinson, 1995).

3.2.1. Levels of Attention: Attention

The concept of attention has three uses. It can be used to describe the processes involved in selecting the information to be processed and stored in memory. It can be used to describe our capacity for processing information. Finally, it can be used to describe the mental effort involved in processing information. According to Schmidt (1990, cited in Robinson, 1995), there can be no learning, or encoding in memory, without attention. Attention and memory can be studied and measured at various levels, including ecological/ adaptive, cognitive/information-processing, and neurophysiological/ biochemical (Robinson, 1995).

3.2.2. Some Linguistic Factors That Set Strength of Attention

To give an idea of the basic tier of the attention system in language, one attentional factor from each of the eight domains is presented in this section. The following are the domains to be illustrated:

- **Domain A:** Factors involving properties of the morpheme.
- **Domain B:** Factors involving morphology and syntax.
- **Domain C:** Factors involving forms that set attention outside themselves.
- **Domain D:** Phonological factors.
- **Domain E:** Factors involving properties of the referent.

- **Domain F:** Factors involving the relation between reference and its representation.
- **Domain G:** Factors involving the occurrence of representation.
- **Domain H:** Factors involving properties of temporal progression.

3.2.3. Building Blocks of Attention

This attentional system in language includes a large number of basic factors, the "building blocks" of the system, with over 50 identified to date. Each factor involves a particular linguistic mechanism that increases or decreases attention on a certain type of linguistic entity. The mechanisms employed fall into some 10 categories, most with subcategories. The type of linguistic entity whose degree of salience is determined by the factors is usually the semantic referent of a constituent, but other types occur, including the phonological shape of a constituent, or the vocal delivery of the utterance. Each factor contrasts a linguistic circumstance in which attention is increased with a complimentary circumstance in which it is decreased. A speaker can use a factor for either purpose—or in some cases for both at the same time. For some factors, increased attention on a linguistic entity is regularly accompanied by additional cognitive effects, such as distinctness, clarity, and significance, while decreased attention correlates with such converse effects as meldedness, vagueness, and ordinariness. Much previous linguistic work has involved the issue of attention or salience. Areas within such work are familiar under terms like topic and focus (e.g., Lambrecht, 1994), focal attention (e.g., Tomlin, 1995), activation (e.g., Givón, 1990; Chafe, 1994), prototype theory (e.g., Lakoff, 1987), frame semantics (e.g., Fillmore, 1976, 1982), profiling (e.g., Langacker, 1987), and deictic center (e.g., Zubin and Hewitt, 1995, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008). My own research on attention has included: the relative salience of the "Figure" and the "Ground" in a represented situation (Talmy, 2000, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008); the "windowing" of attention on one or more selected portions of a represented scene, with attentional backgrounding of the "gapped" portions (Talmy, 2000a, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008); the attentional backgrounding vs. foregrounding of concepts when expressed by closed-class (grammatical) forms vs. by open-class (lexical) forms (Talmy, 2000, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008); the "level" of attention set either on the whole of a scene or on its componential makeup (Talmy, 2000, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008); the differential attention on the Agonist and the Antagonist, the two entities in a force-dynamic opposition (Talmy, 2000,

cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008); "fictive motion," in which a hearer is linguistically directed to sweep his focus of attention over the contours of a static scene (Talmy, 2000, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008); the backgrounding vs. foregrounding of a concept when it is expressed in the verb complex vs. by a nominal complement (Talmy, 2000, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008); the backgrounding vs. foregrounding of a proposition when it is expressed by a subordinate clause vs. by a main clause (Talmy, 2000, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008); the conscious as against unconscious processes in the acquisition, manifestation, and imparting of cultural patterns (Talmy, 2000, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008); and attentional differences between spoken and signed language (Talmy, 2003, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008).

When the basic attentional factors combine and interact, the further attentional effects that result include incremental gradation, convergence, and conflict (Talmy, 2000, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008):

- Factors can be incrementally added to produce a gradation in the degree of attention directed to some particular linguistic entity.
- Several factors can converge on the same linguistic entity to reinforce a particular level of salience, making it especially high or especially low.
- Two factors can conflict in their attentional effects, with the resolution usually either that one factor overrides the other, or that they are in competition, with the hearer's attention divided or wavering between the two claims on it (Talmy, 2000, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008).

3.2.4. Selective Attention

Selective attention occurs in relation to the information-processing sequence connecting the sensory register and short-term memory. According to Mandler (1992, cited in Robinson, 1995), purely connectionist accounts of parallel input processing and representation are left without a mechanism for selectively directing attention to input, suggesting the need for "consciousness as an intervening limited serial process" (p. 54), functioning as a "gate between external information and internal representation" (p. 54).

But not all of this material appears uniformly in the foreground of the hearer's attention. Rather, various portions or aspects of the expression, content, and context have differing degrees of salience (Talmy, 2000, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008).

3.3. BLOCKING AND OVERSHADOWING

The emergence of a learning bias (Mutual Exclusivity, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008) from prior learned content and associations (PI) illustrates how selective attention can be learned, how salience is a psychological property as well as a physical one. Associative learning research describes two general mechanisms that play a particular role in shaping our attention to language: overshadowing and blocking. In discussing selective attention above, I introduced the phenomenon of overshadowing whereby, when two cues are presented together and they jointly predict an outcome, the strength of conditioning to each cue depends upon their salience, with the most salient cue becoming associated with the outcome and the less salient one being overshadowed so that on its own it evinces little or no reaction (Kamin, 1969, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008). But cues also interact over time. As the Rescorla-Wagner (1972) model encapsulates, the more a cue is already associated with an outcome, the less additional association that outcome can induce. Equally, there is the phenomenon of latent inhibition whereby stimuli that are originally varied independently of reward are harder to later associate with reward than those that are not initially presented at all (Lubow, 1973; Lubow and Kaplan, 1997, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008). Forms that have not previously cued particular interpretations are harder to learn as cues when they do become pertinent later. It makes good rational sense that evidence that an event is of no predictive value should encourage the learning system to pay less attention to that event in the future. As long as the world stays the same, that is Overshadowing as it plays out over time produces a type of learned selective attention known as blocking. Chapman and Robbins (1990, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008) showed how a cue that is experienced in a compound along with a known strong predictor is blocked from being seen as predictive of the outcome. The next section describes various associative learning processes that are involved in transfer and learned attention before gathering some experimental demonstrations of these particular effects of L1-specific transfer in L2 morpheme acquisition. Blocking is a result of an automatically learned inattention. But this learned inattention can be pervasive and longstanding: once a cue has been blocked, further learning about that cue is attenuated (Kruschke and Blair, 2000, cited in Robinson and Ellis, 2008).

3.4. COGNITIVE/INFORMATION PROCESSING

As Cowan (1988, cited in Robinson, 1995) has noted, cognitive psychology has yet to settle on an accepted view of the mutual constraints imposed by

memory and attention during information processing. The contrast between explicit and implicit knowledge is closely connected to the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge, which, according to Robinson (1997, cited in Andrews, 2007), has been the subject of much recent debate in cognitive psychology about general theories of human learning. For example, Anderson (1983, cited in Andrews, 2007) claims that "separate systems are responsible for declarative (factual) knowledge and procedural knowledge of how to apply factual knowledge during skilled performance" (Robinson, 1997, p. 47, cited in Andrews, 2007). According to Anderson (1983, p. 308, cited in Andrews, 2007), "Declarative knowledge is explicit knowledge that we can report and of which we are consciously aware. Procedural knowledge is knowledge of how to do things, and it is often implicit." Robinson (1997, p. 47, cited in Andrews, 2007) maintains, "The two knowledge bases are qualitatively different and non-interfaced."

Information-processing models, such as Broadbent's (1958, cited in Robinson, 1995) bottleneck model, view attention as an executive process directing the serial passage of information between separate short-term and long-term memory stores. In contrast, connectionist accounts dispute the modular metaphor for cognitive architecture that the information-processing views are based on, as well as the assumption of seriality, arguing that executive attentional control is distributed throughout the entire processing system, in local patterns of neuronal excitation and inhibition, rather than in a central executive processor.

3.5. NEUROPHYSIOLOGICAL OR BIOCHEMICAL LEVEL

At this level, it is attempted to describe the relationship between input and intake (Sato and Jacobs, 1992, cited in Robinson, 1995). Multiple Systems Views refer to neurophysiological evidence of different patterns of brain activity and neural architecture to support their claims for different subsystems. Taken an extreme, this approach ceases to explain data, because it proposes a new subsystem of memory to account for each apparent functional differentiation in performance on memory tasks (McKoon, Ratcliff, and Dell, 1986, cited in Robinson, 1995).

It operates on the form of the message at first and cannot simultaneously be directed at form and meaning. If a mechanism of selective attention at the stage of detection is responsible for noticing, then this model does not fit well with recent claims that manipulations in instructional treatments can

encourage noticing via a focus on form, meaning, or a combination of both (Hulstijn, 1989; VanPatten, 1990, cited in Robinson, 1995). It may be helpful to consider the relevance of TLA to each of the three options in LT outlined by Long and Robinson (1998, cited in Andrews, 2007): 'focus on formS,' 'focus on form' and 'focus on meaning' options which are linked to different teaching/learning foci. The first option, 'focus on formS,' is the label applied by Long and Robinson to 'synthetic' approaches to LT (Wilkins, 1976, cited in Andrews, 2007), i.e., those which focus on the teaching of discrete points of language in accordance with what Rutherford (1987, p. 4, cited in Andrews, 2007) describes as the "accumulated entities" view of LL. These 'synthetic' approaches have predominated throughout most of the history of L2 education.

Long and Robinson call the second of their options 'focus on form.' As Ellis (2005, cited in Andrews, 2007) points out, there are a number of possible interpretations of the term 'focus on form' including the interpretation which Long and Robinson label 'focus on forms.' However, Long (1991, pp. 45, 46, cited in Andrews, 2007) specifically defines 'focus on form' as an approach which "overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication." In other words, 'focus on form' refers to approaches where the students' primary engagement is with meaning-focused activity, as in strong versions of a task-based approach. Within such approaches, 'focus on form' occurs as attention switches to language when the need/opportunity arises in the course of communication, and not as part of a predetermined plan to teach specific language features.

The final option, 'focus on meaning,' refers to the range of approaches which Long and Robinson (1998, p. 18, cited in Andrews, 2007) call "non-interventionist." These approaches advocate abandoning a focus on language formS. Instead, they seek to replicate the processes of L1 development in the belief that 'classroom LL will proceed more effectively if language learners are allowed to construct their interlanguages naturally, in the same way as they would if they were learning grammar through the process of learning to communicate (Ellis, 1994, cited in Andrews, 2007).

During the allocation of selective attention, the alerting, orienting, and detection functions of attention are distinguished (Robinson, 1995). Alertness concerns an individual's general readiness to deal with incoming stimuli or data. Orientation concerns the allocation of resources based on expectations about the particular class of incoming sensory information, and involves activation of some higher-level schema or plan of action and events. During

detection, attention focuses on a specific bit of information. Detection demands more attentional resources and enables further processing of a stimulus at higher levels, such as storage and rehearsal in short-term memory (Robinson, 1995). Detection is responsible for encoding in memory, and therefore, is the attentional level at which, Tomlin and Villa (1994, cited in Robinson, 1995) claimed learning must begin. The nature of rehearsal and elaboration would vary according to whether the task demanded data-driven or conceptually-driven processing (Graf and Ryan, 1990, cited in Robinson, 1995).

Data-driven processing involves simple maintenance rehearsal of instances of input in memory. Conceptually-driven processing involves elaborative rehearsal and the activation of schemata or higher-order relations from long-term memory. As stated in Robinson (1995), "Information processing leading to acquisition is data-driven and results in the accumulation of instances, whereas information processing that leads to learning is conceptually-driven, involving access to schemata in long-term memory" (p. 302). In this response, implicit tests are related to data-driven processing, whereas explicit tests are germane to the conceptually-driven processing of information. According to Graf and Ryan (1990, cited in Robinson, 1995), elaborative processing "associates a target with other mental contents" (p. 990).

3.6. CAPACITY THEORIES OF ATTENTION

The metaphor most suited to these theories is that of attention as a spotlight, with a variable focus, which can be narrowed and intensified, or broadened and dissipated, as task conditions demand (Robinson, 1995). Wickens' (1984, 1989, cited in Robinson, 1995) model of the structure of attentional resources suggested that noticing following detection is more likely to occur in dual-task performance that draws on distinct, not identical resource pools, because in this case more attentional resources can be allocated to input processing.

3.6.1. Memory

Memory research makes a basic distinction between short and long-term memory. According to Cowan (1993, cited in Robinson, 1995), short-term memory is the subset of long-term memory in a current state of activation. Short-term memory has the following three characteristics: (1) It involves temporary activation of neural structures; (2) It is the site of

control processes such as directing focal or peripheral attention, rehearsing current information, and coding new inputs; and (3) It is capacity-limited (Robinson, 1995).

3.6.2. The Role of Attention

The role of attention in the control of memory and action, arguably areas of greater potential application to SLA processes has been less studied until recently (Robinson, 1997). According to Robinson (1995), "Two areas of work in cognitive psychology that I have described, and that I have argued are of great potential importance to SLA research, are (a) the interaction of attentional resources and the dimensions of task demands and (b) the role of conscious noticing in controlling access to memory" (p. 318).

Providing richer semantic and discourse contexts for the sentences might have aided Incidental learners by encouraging greater engagement with the meaning, and greater depth of processing, particularly because the easy and hard rules are both for creating "focus" constructions, which only occur in certain discourse contexts. More challenging questions than the simple yes/ no questions posed to Incidental learners may also have had the same effect. Prabhu (1987, cited in Robinson, 1997) argues that L2 tasks must pose a reasonable challenge if they are to facilitate incidental learning. Hulstijn (1989, cited in Robinson, 1997) claims that problematic of meaning is needed to elicit the level of learner attention necessary for incidental learning to occur. These modifications to learning conditions, however, should be accompanied by a variety of measures of relevant individual differences in cognitive abilities, such as the measures of aptitude and working memory used by Sasaki (1993, cited in Robinson, 1997).

At the same time, the process-oriented group have neglected useful kinds of analytical text-focused study which directs learner's attention to the particular characteristics of the English writing system (both within words and sentences and, more importantly, the distinctive structure of different text types or genres) (Robinson, 1996, cited in Carter and Nunan, 2001). Moreover, attention to form-both at sentence level and across whole texts-can be harnessed to the relatively new interest in critical reading, where learners are invited to consider the ideological effects created by the exercise of particular kinds of syntactic and lexical choice (Carter and Nunan, 2001). In this respect, this question is raised that whether it is possible to delimit a procedural vocabulary of words that would be used for readers/writers over a wide range of academic disciplines involving varied textual subject matters and genres. The notion of a procedural vocabulary is currently under

debate in applied linguistics (Widdowson, 1983; Robinson, 1988, cited in McCarthy, 1991). The procedural vocabulary is basically words that enable us to do things with the content-bearing words or schematic vocabulary.

Among the three functions of attention, detection is most similar to what Schmidt (1990, cited in Robinson, 1995) termed noticing. Detection is responsible for encoding in memory, and therefore, is the attentional level at which Tomlin and Villa (1994, cited in Robinson, 1995) claimed learning must begin. However, Tomlin and Villa (1994, cited in Robinson, 1995) pointed out that detection does not necessarily imply awareness. Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1995, cited in Robinson, 1997) has argued that noticing the form of input (i.e., attentional allocation leading to detection and rehearsal in short-term memory, Robinson, 1995, 1996b) is a necessary stage in L2 learning.

Although unconscious learning, on some occasions, is possible, Schmidt argues, learning without awareness in the sense of attentional allocation is not possible and, further (based initially on introspective evidence of his own learning of Portuguese), learning without awareness at the level of "noticing" the form of input is not possible, "The 'noticing hypothesis' states that what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning" (Schmidt, 1995, p. 20, cited in Robinson, n.d.). Noticing, then, involves the allocation of focal attention and rehearsal in short-term memory and is argued to be a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for SLA (Robinson, 1995c; Tomlin and Villa, 1994). Providing L2 learners with an input flood that contains frequent instances of a particular form has in fact been proposed as an implicit technique for inducing attention to form and subsequent internalization and use of the targeted form during classroom instruction (Doughty and Williams, 1998, cited in Robinson, 1996). Resource-based theories link automaticity with a single-capacity model of attention and describe automaticity as the consequence of gradual withdrawal of attention from a task and the speed-up of control processes under attentional supervision in short-term memory. The basic assumptions of such theories, although often invoked in the SLA literature (e.g., McLaughlin, 1987; McLaughlin, Rossman, and McLeod, 1983; Skehan, 1996; Towell and Hawkins, 1994; VanPatten, 1990, cited in Robinson, 1997), have been challenged by multiple-resource theories of attention (Wickens, 1989) and by memory-based theories of automaticity (Schmidt, 1992; Strayer and Kramer, 1990, Robinson, 1997). According to Barkhuizen and Ellis (2005), attention-raising situations, compared to input-processing situations, seem to be more complicated. Based on the view adopted by Robinson (2001, cited in Barkhuizen and Ellis, 2005), one

possible reason for the complex attention-raising situation is that learners' basic choice is again between meaning and form. He (2001) distinguishes between resource-directing dimension of task complexity (for instance, the number of elements to be communicated or the absence/presence of the contextual support) and resource-depleting dimension (for instance, whether or not learners are asked to perform a single or dual-task at the same time). In accordance with his multiple-resource view of language processing, Robinson (2001, cited in Barkhuizen and Ellis, 2005) argues that complex tasks involving resource-directing dimensions result in greater attention to form with increments evident in both accuracy and complexity. Similarly, tasks with resource-depleting dimensions adversely affect leaners' capacity to attend to both of these aspects of language. The choice then is between 'fluency' and combined 'accuracy/complexity' (Barkhuizen and Ellis, 2005).

3.7. NOTICING HYPOTHESIS

Schmidt (1990, cited in Robinson, 1995) claims, "Consciousness, in the sense of awareness of the form of input at the level of 'noticing' is necessary to subsequent SLA" (p. 1). A number of other researchers have also claimed an important role for 'consciousness-raising' activities and the role for 'focus on form' in promoting L2 development (e.g., Fotos and Ellis, 1991; Long, 1988, 1991; Rutherford, 1987; Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993, cited in Robinson, 1995). These proposals run counter to claims that SLA is a largely subconscious process in which conscious learning serves merely to monitor or edit a non-consciously acquired knowledge base (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985, cited in Robinson, 1995), and that separate consciously and non-consciously accessed systems of memory are differentially responsible for L2 learning process (Paradis, 1994, cited in Robinson, 1995).

As Robinson (1997) has put it, "The role of attention and consciously accessed memory for what has been learned are therefore, key factors distinguishing Krashen's (1981, etc.), dual-system hypothesis and Schmidt's counter-proposal, the "noticing" hypothesis" (p. 5). It should be stated here that the attribution of SLA to unconscious processes has led to the development of 'The NA' (Krashen and Terrell, 1983), and has influenced the thinking underlying the Bangalore Procedural Syllabus (Prabhu, 1987, cited in Robinson, 1995). The task-based proposals of Nunan (1989); Long and Crookes (1992); and Ellis (1993, cited in Robinson, 1995) stress the importance of noticing and attention to form, though these proposals differ with respect to methodological questions regarding how noticing should be

facilitated and content questions regarding which aspects of language are important for learners to notice.

3.8. STRUCTURAL ATTENTIONAL RESOURCES

Robinson (2000, cited in Celce-Murcia, 2001) has proposed a distinction between task complexity, task conditions, and task difficulty, which can be compared with schemas for the analysis of task factors and dimensions proposed in earlier work such as that of Nunan (1989); Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993); and Skehan (1996, cited in Celce-Murcia, 2001). Robinson (2000) includes in task complexity only those factors that affect learners' cognitive resources for attention and processing of information and, therefore, affect the accuracy, fluency, and complexity of their production. These characteristics are viewed as continua, with endpoints represented by presence or absence (+/-) of features: (+/-) few elements, (+/-) here-and-now reference (vs. there-and-then), (+/-) reasoning demands, (+/-) planning, (+/-) single tasks, and (+/-) prior knowledge. In this respect, there are several studies which have demonstrated, for instance, that allowing for planning in the performance of tasks leads to improvements in either accuracy, fluency, or complexity or combination of these positive outcomes (Crookes, 1989; Ortega, 1999, cited in Celce-Murcia, 2001). Similarly, less complex tasks favor the more positive end of which continuum. As complexity increases, fluency and accuracy tend to drop.

Wickens' (1984, 1989, cited in Robinson, 1995) model of the structural attentional resources suggested that noticing detection is more likely to occur in dual-task performance than draws on distinct, not identical resource pools, because in this case more attentional resources can be allocated to input processing. These systematicity of SLA are all, in essence, issues of L2 cognition. The adult's LL task is clearly different from the child. As Slobin notes, "For the child, the construction of the grammar and the construction of semantic/pragmatic concepts go hand-in-hand. For the adult, construction of the grammar often requires a revision of semantic/pragmatic concepts, along with what may well be a more difficult task of perceptual identification of the relevant morphological elements" (1993, p. 242, cited in Ellis and Robinson, 2008). In cases where the forms lack perceptual salience and so go unnoticed by learners (Robinson, 1995, 1996; Schmidt, 1990, 2001), or where the semantic/pragmatic concepts available to be mapped onto the L2 forms are unfamiliar "Focus on Form" (attention to form in communicative context: Doughty White, 1993; Long, 1991; Long and Robinson, 1998;

Robinson, 2001–2003, in press 2007a, b, cited in Ellis and Robinson, 2008) is likely to be needed in order for the mapping process to be facilitated.

According to Talmy's (n.d., cited in Ellis and Robinson, 2008) Attentional System of Language, in a speech situation, a hearer may attend to the linguistic expression produced by a speaker, to the conceptual content represented by that expression, and to the context at hand. But not all of this material appears uniformly in the foreground of the hearer's attention. Rather, various portions or aspects of the expression, content, and context have different degrees of salience. Such differences are only partly due to any intrinsically greater interest of certain elements over others. More fundamentally, language has an extensive system that assigns different degrees of salience to the parts of an expression, reference, or context. This system includes some 50 basic factors, its "building blocks." Each factor involves a particular linguistic mechanism that increases or decreases attention on a certain type of linguistic entity.

As Long (1990, cited in Ellis and Robinson, 2008) has stated, "Some aspects of an L2 require awareness and/or attention to language form—implicit learning is not sufficient for successful SLA and focus on form improves rate and ultimate L2 attainment" (p. 7).

Recent work reviewed by Robinson (2005, cited in Cook, 2008) has tended to split aptitude into separate components, that is, whether people are better at specific aspects of learner rather than overall learning. According to Robinson (2005, cited in Cook, 2008), a particular sensitivity to language may help some certain activities. For instance, second language learning (SLL) in formal conditions may depend on superior cognitive processing ability. Obviously, this does not show any relationship between SLA in a classroom and L1 acquisition, since none of these attributes matters to the native child.

According to a functional approach to LL, language is viewed as a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Wilkins's Notional Syllabuses (1976, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) was an attempt to spell out the implications of the 'functional view' of language for syllabus design. It should be pointed out that a notional syllabus would include, not only elements of grammar and lexis, but specify the topics, notions, and concepts that learners need to communicate about. According to Robinson (1980, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001), "The English for Specific Purposes (ESP) movement likewise begins not from a

structural theory of language but from a functional account of learner needs" (p. 21).

Task-based syllabus, which is one kind of analytic syllabus (Crookes and Long, 1992, cited in Richards and Renandya, 2002) is largely derived from what is known about SLA. SLA research supports a focus on form, which uses pedagogical tasks to draw learners' attention to particular aspects of the language codes which are naturally embedded in the tasks (Long and Robinson, 1998; Robinson, 1998, cited in Richards and Renandya, 2002).

3.9. CONCLUSION

Findings from the focus on form research have shown positive short-term effects for a variety of instructional techniques that focus learner attention on form from the provision of pedagogic rules in experimental (Alanen, 1995; DeKeyser, 1995; Robinson, 1996b; Robinson and Ha, 1993) and classroom (Eckman, Bell, and Nelson, 1988; Master, 1994; Spada and Lightbown, 1993, cited in Robinson, 1997) settings to less explicit forms of input enhancement, such as underlining or italicization of targeted instructional forms in reading materials (Doughty, 1991; Leeman et al., 1995; Shook, 1994, cited in Robinson, 1997) that serve to initiate learner noticing and possibly, therefore, following Schmidt's hypothesis, learning. Although the issue of the relation between attention and learning has been the subject of a considerable number of studies in the field of cognitive psychology and SLA, no studies to date have examined the development of automaticity in learning under conscious, focus on form conditions versus conditions with no conscious focus on form.

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Chapter 4

Authenticity as Conceptualized by Breen and Widdowson

CONTENTS

4.1. OVERVIEW

This chapter discusses the concept of *authenticity* based on the way this term has been conceptualized by Michael Breen and Widdowson. The study of literature related to authenticity indicates that there is no consensus on a precise definition and application among the theorists. This study tries to provide a general overview and a deeper understanding of this concept, how it is defined and how its application is viewed by these two scholars. Generally, authentic data has been defined as "samples of spoken and written language that have not been specially written for the purposes of teaching language" (Nunan, 2001, p. 26). This conceptualization of the term authenticity has been challenged by both Breen and Widdowson.

4.2. WHAT IS AUTHENTICITY?

Breen (1985) asserts that authenticity is a relative matter. He argues, "what is authentic is relative to our purposes in the classroom and to the points of view of the different participants in that classroom" (p. 61). Breen believes that the language teacher is concerned with four types of authenticity in the daily life of the classroom:

- Authenticity of the texts which are used as input data;
- Authenticity of the learners own interpretations of the texts;
- Authenticity of tasks conducive to LL;
- Authenticity of the actual social situations of the language classroom.

In LT, the main focus of concern has been on Authenticity of text, but Breen insists that this type of authenticity be seen as only one of a number of demands for authenticity which confront the teacher. The learners' own contributions, the activity of LL, and the actual classroom situations constitute other elements within this process. According to Breen, "the language lesson is an event wherein all four elements-content, learner, learning, and classroom-each provide their own relative criteria concerning what might be authentic" (p. 61). He insists that the language teacher is confronted with four main questions in the classroom: (1) What is an authentic text? (2) For whom is it authentic? (3) For what authentic purpose? (4) In which particular social situation? He believes that the question as to the authenticity of a text is almost inseparable from the question: For whom might such a text be authentic? The implication of this discussion in ELT can be the need for teachers' awareness of the fact that a text may be

authentic for some learners and inauthentic for some others. Breen suggests that the relative authenticity of a text be seen from the learner's point of view. He then distinguishes between 'authentic communication task' and 'authentic learning task.' By providing some examples, he points out that an apparently inauthentic language-using behavior might be authentic LL behavior. One pedagogic proposal can be that the language teacher chooses those kinds of tasks for the classroom which are authentic to how people best undertake learning, and simultaneously engage the learner in authentic communication. The 4th aspect of the idea of authenticity deals with creating an authentic classroom situation. According to Breen, "the authenticity of the classroom is that it is a rather special social event and environment wherein people share a primary communicative purpose: learning" (p. 68).

Now a review of the three pedagogic proposals that Breen offered in his paper. First," authentic texts for LL are any sources of data which serve as a means to help the learner to develop an authentic interpretation" (p. 68). Second, "the most authentic LL tasks are those which require the learner to undertake communication and meta-communication. The assumption is that genuine communication during learning and meta-communication about learning and about the language are likely to help the learner to learn" (p. 68). The third proposal is that the role of an authentic classroom is to provide those conditions necessary for learning to happen. According to Breen, "in any classroom, criteria, and judgments of authenticity are indeed *relative* to different texts, to different learners and different purposes …. perhaps all other questions of authenticity in LT may be resolved if the potential of the classroom is fully exploited" (p. 68).

Widdowson (2003) accepts the fact, revealed by corpus analysis, that the language of the textbooks is not in accordance with that used by native speakers, but believes that the language used for language instruction cannot and should not be in accordance with actual language use. He maintains that texts and materials can be genuine and authenticity as a social construct is created through the interactions of users, situations, and the texts. Widdowson (1998) accepts the idea that language teacher should focus on pragmatic meaning, but asserts that this focus on pragmatic meaning does not require the importation of authentic language in the classroom. He believes that language teacher should localize the language through creating contextual conditions that make the language a reality for the learners, so that the learners can authenticate it. He also notes that the idea of introducing authentic language use into the classroom is an appealing one, but the appeal is also an illusion. Widdowson believes that language classroom has its own

context and it is totally different from the contexts in which language is used in real situations. In fact, the replication of the sociocultural conditions, specific to actual language use, in the classroom is impossible (Widdowson, 1998). Widdowson castigates those who think the classroom is inherently unreal and does not count as a valid context. He asserts that "we need to recognize that the classroom is a social construct and as such, like any other, has its contexts and purposes, its own legitimate reality" (P. 113). Widdowson states that the idea behind the belief which contends language courses should be a kind of 'rehearsal,' to prepare learners for real-life performance, is not right, as "for so many, perhaps most, learners it is not their purpose to bid for membership of native-speaking communities… but to provide them with a means for international communication" (p. 113). Another objection that Widdowson has, regarding the issue of authenticity, is setting the goal of instruction a native-like competence would create a sense of inadequacy in learners as they fail to measure up to native-speaker norms. Setting unrealistic goals will bring about hopelessness. In respect to objectives, Widdowson suggests that "What students need to have acquired at the end of their course is a knowledge of the language which provides them with a capability for further learning" P. 115). According to Widdowson, English as a foreign language (EFL) by definition is different from the English *of* native speakers. For him, these are two different realities. He contends that "What makes the language real for its native users is its familiarity, but what is real for learners is the fact that it is unfamiliar, foreign to them" (P. 114). Widdowson believes that language in the class should be presented in a way as to activate the learning process. It must be a kind of language that learners can authenticate it, they can learn from it, it can serve the purpose of learning. Widdowson asserts that "samples of language from real use of language do not meet these conditions" (P. 116).

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Chapter 5

Corpus Linguistics

CONTENTS

5.1. OVERVIEW

In recent years a particularly important development in the investigation of language use has been corpus linguistics. In this approach, vast databanks containing millions of words of actual language in use can be searched within seconds to yield (produce) extensive information about word frequencies and combinations which is not revealed by intuition.

5.2. ORIGINS

According to Stubbs (2000), the intensive study of texts, for educational, religious, and literary purposes, has a very long history. For hundreds of years, concordances of major texts, such as the Bible and Shakespeare's works, have been used for detailed interpretation of word use and meaning. Since the 1890's, textual study has increasingly used quantitative methods, initially to study word frequency and later to study a wide range of language features. Such work became unfashionable in the 1960's but has rapidly grown in influence again since the 1980s, when computer assisted methods became widely available to study large text collections (corpora).

5.3. CORPUS LINGUISTICS

According to Mclntosh and Turnbull (2005), the corpus is a collection of written or spoken texts. Richards and Schmidt (2002) define it as a collection of naturally occurring samples of language which have been collected. Richards and Schmidt (2002) define it as an approach to investigating language structure and use through the analysis of large databases of real language examples stored on computer. Reppen and Simpson (2002) believe that one of the major contributions of corpus linguistics is in the area of exploring patterns of language use. They continue that it provides an extremely powerful tool for the analysis of natural language and can provide tremendous insights as to how language varies in different situations, such as spoken versus written, or formal interactions versus casual conversation.

Cook (2003) believes that corpus linguistics provides us with information about the neglected 4th parameter of Hymes' CC, attestedness (i.e., what is actually done). According to Flowerdew (2009) because corpus linguistics is based on the theory that language varies according to context-across space and time-the potential for finding out new facts about language is infinite. If this theoretical insight is applied to pedagogy, then the case for the use of corpora in teaching becomes very powerful. As no dictionary or grammar

is able to fully describe the language, the educationist, whether materials designer or classroom practitioner- or indeed learners themselves-may play an important role in identifying.

5.4. IMPLICATIONS

1. **Word Frequency:** At the most basic level, the corpus can provide word lists organized either according to frequency or alphabetically, and frequency information is immensely useful in helping to prioritize what to teach. Widdowson (1990) argues against what has been said regarding word frequency and puts forth the concept of *valency.* By this he means the potential of an item to generate further learning. Thus, we might wish to teach a particular structure or word meaning not on the grounds of frequency of occurrence but because its acquisition provides a basis for the learner to understand and learn other structures or meanings by extension. He believes that the item which is most used is not necessarily the item which is most useful for learning.

2. **Collocation:** It is concerned with how words typically occur (or do not occur) together. How does one correct a learner who says: "I will open the air-conditioner." One way of course is to explain that in Standard English, one says "switch on" rather than "open" when referring to an air-conditioner or other electrical appliance. However, this lesson is likely to be more powerful if, instead, the learner can look at concordances of the word open+ noun phrase and see that while open collocates with other concrete nouns such as gate, door, and windows, there are no instances of open+ air-conditioner.

3. **Colligation:** It refers to how lexical words are associated with particular grammatical words or categories. E.g., the word head has the following colligations: of, over, on, back, and off. Again, the colligations affect the meaning of the word, e.g., head of department, hit someone over the head, throw one's head back.

4. **Register and Genre:** Research in corpus linguistics has done much to show how patterns may vary across various registers or genres.

According to Biber and Conrad (2001), 12 most frequent lexical verbs (say, get, go, know, think, see, make, come, take, want, give, and mean) in a corpus of 20 million words drawn from four registers (conversation, fiction,

newspaper language, and academic prose) are very unequally distributed across four registers. These verbs represent 45% of all verbs in conversation versus only 11% for academic prose (p. 332). They argue that the verbs referred to above should be given priority in Pedagogy.

5.5. CONCLUSION

A lot has been written regarding the virtues of corpora in language pedagogy, less has been written about some of the problems, for example, some of the difficulties novice corpus users encounter. An issue worthy of consideration is the question of the need to keep corpora up to date. Language is changing very quickly, but data for some of the major corpora currently in use were collected a considerable time ago. One can wonder to what extent, for example, the teenage language sub-component of the BNC (the COLT corpus) can still be said to represent the way English is spoken by British teenagers today, given that the data were collected in the mid-1990s. Other issues worthy of consideration are the relative lack of literature on teacher education and evaluation of the pedagogic application (consciousness-raising (CR) tasks).

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Chapter 6

Critical Look at Foreign Language Learner

CONTENTS

6.1. OVERVIEW

The question of varying degree of success is one of the mind-boggling issues of SLA. Individuals with normal faculties successfully acquire their L1 but meet with different degrees of success when attempting to master an L2 due to a number of variables. Teaching learners how to learn, it is believed, will better equip the learners in their SLA pursuit. Knowledge of learning styles can be used to increase the self-awareness of students and tutors about their strengths and weaknesses as learners. In other words, not only can language teachers benefit from knowing more about their students' characteristics, but the learners can also benefit from knowing themselves. In fact, individuals can be taught to monitor their selection and use of various learning styles and strategies. Learners can become more effective as learners if they are made aware of the important qualities which they and other learners possess.

The question of varying degree of success is one of the mind-boggling issues of SLA: Why is it that all individuals with normal faculties successfully acquire their L1 but meet with different degrees of success when they attempt to master an L2 (Larsen-Freeman, 1991)? According to Richards (2001), there are four factors involved in achieving and maintaining quality teaching in a language program: "Institutional factors, teacher factors, teaching factors, and learner factors" (p. 198). Quality teaching is achieved not only as a consequence of how well teachers teach and create contexts and work environments that can facilitate good teaching, but through knowing how successfully learners themselves have been considered in the planning and delivery process (Richards, 2001, p. 223). Hence, teachers of second or foreign languages, to be most effective, must understand who their students really are. This means teachers must comprehend differences among their students in many individual characteristics (Oxford, 1992)**.** In other words, optimal instruction of a second or foreign language requires teachers to understand important learning-related differences in their students (Oxford, 1992).

To address the question posed at the very outset under the rubric of learner factors, we may consider the following variables: *1. Age, 2. Language aptitude, 3. Intelligence, 4. Learning styles, 5. Affective variables, and 6. Learning Strategies.* This presentation does its best to address the first four of these individual differences, namely age, aptitude, intelligence, and two learning styles among others, and provides instructional implications.

6.2. AGE

Age is often mentioned as an influence on LL success (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992, cited in Oxford, 1992). The claim that there is an age-related decline in the success with which individuals master L2 is not controversial. In fact, it is tempting to believe that children are better L2 learners than adults because their brains are specially organized to learn language, whereas those of adults are not (Bialystok and Hakuta, 1999). Oxford (1982, cited in Oxford, 1992) cites the two main arguments in favor of learning foreign or L2 at *younger* ages: (1) the cognitive-nativist argument that LL is an innate ability that dissipates with age, and (2) the neurological argument that one's neural plasticity decreases with age, thus affecting LL ability. However, what is controversial is whether these patterns meet the conditions for concluding that a critical period constrains learning. This is the explanation of the critical period hypothesis.

A critical period entails two features: (1) high level of preparedness for learning within a specified developmental period, and (2) lack of preparedness outside of this period (Columbo, 1982, cited in Bialystok and Hakuta, 1999). The consequence of these conditions is that the relation between learning and age is different inside and outside of the critical period. The evidence for it comes from several sources. Informal observation irrefutably shows children to be more successful than adults in mastering a L2 (Bialystok and Hakuta, 1999). Empirical studies, on the other hand, confirm this pattern by demonstrating performance differences between children and adult learners on various tasks and measures (Bialystok and Hakuta, 1999). Krashen, Long, and Scarcella (1979) reviewed the literature on age differences in SLA and came to the conclusion that older learners have an advantage in terms of rate of acquisition of syntax and morphology, but that ultimate fluency and native-like pronunciation in a new language are clearly better among those who start learning it as children.

Yet both informal observation and empirical testing also yield exceptions to this rule which in turn made some researchers take a moderate position by positing a weakened version of the critical period hypothesis instead of its strong classic version (Columbo, 1982, cited in Bialystock and Hakuta, 1999; Brown, 2007, p. 58).

The results suggest that age differences in LL performance are expectable. Teachers might consider making students aware of these age differences for the purpose of planning realistic learning goals. However, age differences

should not be an excuse for teachers to artificially limit the challenges presented to students (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992, cited in Oxford, 1992).

6.3. LANGUAGE APTITUDE

Do some people have a flair for learning L2 while others are quite poor at it? To answer this question, we have to consider three basic concepts: ability, aptitude, and intelligence (Dornyei, 2005, p. 32). As Dornyei (2005) believes, ability is often used to mean "learning ability," that is, "the individual's potential for acquiring new knowledge or skill" (p. 35). Hence "language aptitude" means exactly the same as "language ability" which denotes "LL ability." Thus, the concept of language aptitude is related to the broader concept of human abilities, covering a variety of cognitively-based learner differences (Dornyei, 2005, p. 31).

According to Carroll (1981, cited in Dornyei, 2005, pp. 39, 40), language aptitude comprises four constituents:

- **Phonetic Coding Ability:** The ability to identify distinct sounds, to form associations between these sounds and symbols representing them, and to retain these associations. This ability, therefore, involves the coding, assimilation, and remembering of phonetic material.

- **Grammatical Sensitivity:** The ability to recognize the grammatical functions of words in sentence structures. This ability implies an awareness of grammatical relationships rather than explicit representation.

- **Rote Learning Ability:** The ability to learn associations between sounds and meaning rapidly and efficiently, and to retain these associations. It refers to the capacity to remember large amounts of foreign language materials.

- **Inductive Language Learning Ability:** The ability to infer or induce the rules governing a set of language materials to identify patterns of correspondences and relationships involving either meaning or grammatical form (pp. 39, 40).

In the 1980s Skehan (1986, 1989, cited in Dornyei, 2005, p. 40) conducted further research and came up with his own view toward aptitude as consisting of only three components rather than four: auditory ability the same as Carroll's phonetic coding ability, *memory ability* corresponding to Carroll's rote learning ability and finally *linguistic ability* drawing together Carroll's grammatical sensitivity and inductive LL ability.

6.4. LANGUAGE APTITUDE AND INTELLIGENCE

The term intelligence has also often been used to denote the "ability to learn." As such, is intelligence another synonym for "ability" mentioned earlier? Intelligence has a broader meaning than ability, "referring to general sort of aptitude that is not limited to a specific performance area but is transferrable to many sorts of performance" (Dornyei, 2005, p. 32). Intelligence has traditionally been defined and measured in terms of linguistic and logical-mathematical abilities (Brown, 2007, p. 108; Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 115). However, Gardner (1983, cited in Christison, 1996) advanced a controversial theory of intelligence that blew apart our traditional thoughts about IQ. According to this theory, we are all able to know the world through language, logical-mathematical analysis, spatial representation, musical thinking, the use of the body to solve problems or to make things, an understanding of other individuals, and an understanding of ourselves (Christison, 1997, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 120). Where individuals differ is in the strength of these intelligences and in the ways in which such intelligences are invoked and combined to carry out different tasks, solve diverse problems, and progress in various domains (Gottfredson, 1998, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Initially, Gardner (1983, cited in Brown, 2007, p. 108) described seven different intelligences suggesting that intelligence is not a unitary construct as it was once regarded. Later he added one more intelligence, namely naturalist intelligence, culminating in his culture-free eightfold MI model (Gardner, 1999, cited in Brown, 2007, p. 108; Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 115). The original seven-type model along with the types of activities for each group of learners is as follows (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 121):

- **Linguistic/Verbal:** Using words effectively. These learners have highly developed auditory skills and often think in words. They like reading, playing word games, making up poetry or stories. They can be taught by encouraging them to say and see words, read books together.

- **Logical/Mathematical:** Reasoning or calculating. They think conceptually, abstractly, and are able to see and explore patterns and relationships. They like to experiment and solve puzzles. They can be taught through logic games, investigations, and mysteries. They need to learn and form concepts before they can deal with details.

- **Spatial/Visual:** They think in terms of physical space, as do architects and sailors, and are very aware of their environments. They like to draw, do jigsaw puzzles, read maps, and daydream. They can be taught through drawings, verbal, and physical imagery.

- **Musical/Rhythmic:** They show sensitivity to rhythm and sound. They love music, but they are also sensitive to sounds in their environments. They may study better with music in the background. They can be taught by turning lessons into lyrics, speaking rhythmically, and tapping out time.

- **Bodily/Kinesthetic:** They use their body effectively, like a dancer or a surgeon, and have a keen sense of body awareness. They like movement, making things and touching. They communicate well through body language and can be taught through physical activity, acting out, and role-playing.

- **Interpersonal:** Understanding or interacting with others. These students learn through interaction. They have many friends, and show empathy for others. They can be taught through group activities, seminars, and dialogs.

- **Intrapersonal:** Understanding one's own interests and goals. These learners tend to shy away from others. They are in tune with their inner feelings; they have wisdom, intuition, and motivation, as well as a strong will, confidence, and opinions. They can be taught through independent study and introspection.

Now there remains one question: Do intelligence and language aptitude refer to the same entity? If not, is there any relationship between the two? Studies conducted by Gardner (1985, cited in Dornyei, 2005, p. 46) and Skehan (1986, cited in Dornyei, 2005, p. 46) depict a partial separation and partial relatedness of intelligence and language aptitude. We can assume that both intelligence and language aptitude are composite constructs that involve a range of cognitive factors some of which, but not all, clearly overlap; in other words, the complex of general intelligence and the complex of language aptitude share definite commonalities but do not coincide completely (Dornyei, 2005, p. 47).

Howard Gardner's (1983, cited in Christison, 1996) theory of MI has great potential for helping revolutionize our concept of human capabilities. Gardner's basic premise is that intelligence is not a single construct: Individuals have at least 8 distinct intelligences that can be developed over

a lifetime. These differences challenge the established educational system that assumes that everyone can learn the same materials in the same way. Gardner's MI theory is very important to EFL/ESL teachers; because as teachers we work with such diverse learners, and MI theory helps educators create an individualized learning environment and address the diverse needs of their learners (Christison, 1996).

6.5. COGNITIVE STYLES AND LEARNING STYLES

Closely aligned with learner variables mentioned so far is work on cognitive and learning styles. According to the standard definition, learning styles refer to "an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills" (Reid, 1995, cited in Dornyei, 2005, p. 121); thus, they are "broad preferences for going about the business of learning" (Ehrman, 1996, cited in Dornyei, 2005, p. 121). In other words, LL styles are the general approaches students use to learn a new language (Oxford, Lavine, and Ehrman, 1991, cited in Oxford, 1992). However, a cognitive style is the preferred way in which individuals process information or approach a task (Willing, 1988, cited in Larsen-Freeman, 1991); hence, they are usually defined as "an individual's preferred and habitual modes of perceiving, remembering, organizing, processing, and representing information (Dornyei, 2005, p. 124). People's styles are determined by the way they internalize their surroundings, and this internalization process is not totally cognitive, and individuals' physical, cognitive, and affective domains merge in learning styles; as a result, learning styles mediate between emotion and cognition (Brown, 2007, p. 120; Oxford, 1989). The literature on learning styles uses the terms learning style, cognitive style, personality type, sensory preference, and others rather loosely and often interchangeably (Ehrman et al., 2003; Coffield et al., 2004, p. 9). However, the way we learn things in general hinges upon a rather amorphous link between our personality and cognition; this link is referred to as cognitive styles, and when cognitive styles are specifically related to an educational context, they are generally referred to as learning styles (Brown, 2007, p. 119). In fact, cognitive styles are devoid of any educational and situational/environmental interferences (Dornyei, 2005, pp. 124, 125).

6.6. LEARNING STYLES IN L2 STUDIES

At least 20 dimensions of learning style have been identified (Shipman and Shipman, 1985, cited in Oxford, 1989). A few cognitive styles have been

investigated for their SLA implications: field independence/dependence, reflectivity/impulsivity, aural/visual, and analytic/gestalt (Larsen-Freeman, 1991). The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers and McCaulley, 1985, cited in Coffield et al., 2004, p. 132) contributes four more dimensions to learning style: extraversion vs. introversion, sensing vs. intuition, thinking vs. feeling, and judging vs. perceiving. Oxford (1992) also mentions the analytic-global aspect, sensory preferences, intuitive/random vs. sensory/ sequential learning, and the orientation toward closure or openness as the four major dimensions or aspects of LL styles. Finally, Ehrman and Leaver (2003) proposed their own cognitive styles construct consisting of a superordinate construct, synopsis-ectasis, and 10 subscales.

These styles, along with other variables, few of them mentioned earlier in this presentation together with affective variables, largely determine the individual's choice of LL strategies (Oxford, 1992). In other words, LL style is one of the key determiners of the techniques that students use to learn another language (Oxford, 1992).

6.6.1. Field Dependence/Independence

L2 style research gained its momentum initially from the conceptualization of field dependence/independence research (Dornyei, 2005, p. 136). Psychological research on FD/I was originally associated with visual perception (Dornyei, 2005, p. 136). It was noticed that people could be categorized in terms of the degree to which they were dependent on the structure of the prevailing visual field. Some people are highly dependent on this field, and the parts embedded within the field are not easily perceived, which in practical terms means that they perceive the total field more clearly as a unified whole and cannot see inconspicuous things right in front of their nose (Brown, 2007, p. 121; Dornyei, 2005, p. 136). Field-independent people, on the other hand, are free- or independent of the influence of the whole field when they look at the parts in a field of distracting items and therefore, can notice details that their field-dependent counterparts simply cannot 'see' (Brown, 2007, p. 121; Dornyei, 2005, p. 136).

The literature on field independence/dependence has shown that FI increases as a child matures to adulthood, that FI is a relatively stable trait in adulthood (Witkin and Goodenough, 1981, cited in Brown, 2007, p. 121). Furthermore, cross-culturally, the extent of the development of a FI style as children mature is a factor of the type of society and home in which the child is brought up. Authoritarian or agrarian societies, having strict rearing

practices, tend to produce more FD, whereas a democratic, competitive society, having freer rearing norms, tends to produce more FI individuals (Brown, 2007, p. 121).

Now the question arises: How does all this relate to second language learning (SLL)? Two conflicting hypotheses have emerged. The first hypothesis concludes that FI is closely related to classroom learning that involves analysis, attention to details, and mastering of exercises, drills, and other focused activities (Brown, 2007, p. 122). Research findings, indeed, support this hypothesis. Studies conducted by Johnson, Prior, and Artuso (2000); Sternberg and Grigorenko (2001, cited in Dornyei, 2005, p. 137) found relatively strong evidence in groups of adult L2 learners of a relationship between FI and formal measures of language performance which require analytical abilities. Chapelle and Roberts (1986, cited in Oxford, 1989) found that field independent (FI) learners showed significant advantages over field-dependent (FD) learners in analytical tasks. Still, in another study, Abraham (1985) found that L2 learners who were FI performed better in deductive lessons, while those with FD style were more successful with inductive lesson designs. Further, Elliot (1995a, b) found a moderate correlation and pronunciation accuracy. Finally, Chapelle and Green (1992, cited in Brown, 2007, p. 122) provided further evidence of the superiority of a FI style for L2 success.

The second hypothesis suggests that a FD style will yield successful learning of the communicative aspects of a L2 (Brown, 2007, p. 122). FDs are more responsive as they interact with the environment, and thus tend to have a stronger interpersonal orientation and greater alertness to social cues than FIs (Dornyei and Skehan, 2003). Hence, due to FD's association with empathy, social outreach and perception of other people, Johnson, Prior, and Artuso (2000) concluded that filed dependents, as opposed to FIs, may perform better on L2 tasks that emphasize communicative more than formal aspects of language proficiency.

While no one denies the plausibility of this second hypothesis, little empirical evidence has been gathered to support it. The main reason for the dearth of such evidence is due to the absence of a true test of FD (Brown, 2007, p. 122).

The FD/FI learning style has not been immune from critical attacks. A high score on the standard test of FI, the group embedded figures test (GEFT), which requires subjects to discern small geometric shapes embedded in larger geometric designs, indicates FI, but a low score does

NOT necessarily imply relatively high FD (Brown, 2007, p. 122) since the test does not include any subtest on which the FD individuals are likely to outperform the FI ones. As Riding (2000, cited in Dornyei, 2005, p. 139) argued, the overall test score is more like an ability score which is likely to be affected by their general ability or intelligence scores.

This problem, namely the test's strong association with ability, has probably played the most important role in discrediting the concept of FD/FI among researchers leading to the allegation that this learning style was simply a disguised measure of intelligence (Dornyei and Skehan, 2003). Sternberg and Grigorenko (2001, cited in Dornyei, 2005, p. 138) reporting on several studies that provided evidence that FI was consistently correlated with verbal and performance aspects of intelligence and was essentially indistinguishable from spatial ability concluded that the preponderance of evidence suggests that field independence is tantamount to fluid intelligence.

6.7. SENSORY PREFERENCES

Another stylistic dimension concerns the perceptual modes or learning channels through which learners are most comfortable and take in information: "visual, auditory, and hands-on (kinesthetic and tactile)" (Oxford, 1992):

- **Visual Learners:** These absorb information most effectively if it is provided through the visual channel. Thus, they tend to prefer reading tasks and often use colorful highlighting schemes to make certain information visually more salient (Dornyei, 2005, p. 140). For them, lectures, conversations, and oral directions without any visual backup such as a handout can be very confusing and anxiety-producing (Oxford, 1992).

- **Auditory Learners:** These use most effectively auditory input such as lectures, conversations, and oral directions and are excited by classroom interactions in role-plays and similar Activities (Oxford, 1992).

- **The kinesthetic Style:** This style refers to learning most effectively through complete body experience (e.g., whole-body movement), whereas *tactile* learners like a hands-on, touching learning approach (Dornyei, 2005, p. 140). The key issue for the former group is movement, while for the latter the manipulation of objects. Kinesthetic learners often find that walking around

while trying to memorize something helps. Tactile learners enjoy making posters and other types of visuals, and building models (Dornyei, 2005, p. 140).

6.8. CONCLUSION: APPLICATION OF COGNITIVE STYLES AND LEARNER AUTONOMY

One of the current buzzwords in English L2 teaching circles is 'learner-based' instruction (Salvisberg, 2005). According to Sadler-Smith (2001, cited in Coffield et al., 2004), the potential of such awareness lies in "enabling individuals to see and to question their long-held habitual behaviors" (p. 204); in fact, individuals can be taught to monitor their selection and use of various learning styles and strategies. Learners can become more effective as learners if they are made aware of the important qualities which they and other learners possess. Such knowledge is likely to improve their self-confidence, to give them more control over their learning, to encourage them to take charge of their own learning, to chart their own pathways to success, to prevent them attributing learning difficulties to their own inadequacies, and finally pave the way toward learner autonomy (Ehrman and Leaver, 2003).

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Chapter 7

Critical Look at Foreign Language Literacy

CONTENTS

7.1. OVERVIEW

This chapter begins with a general look at the prevailing views of literacy and continues to investigate the same issue with a more detailed explanation about different perspectives toward it. Then, the chapter will probe into the area of LL in relation to ESL literacy learners, as well as the relationship between L1 and L2 literacy. Subsequently, some instructional strategies and methodologies for practicing ESL literacy development will be discussed in order to come up with a better understanding of how literacy goals and objectives can be implemented in language classrooms. The chapter ends with some final remarks about the issue of language literacy and the relevant future directions for ELT, in general, and FL literacy practice in Iran, in particular.

7.2. PREVAILING VIEWS OF LITERACY

According to the Center for Literacy (2008), to date, literacy is a concept with many definitions and categories, and there is no consensus on its definition. Yet, as McKay (1993) states, the prevalent ways of viewing literacy can be categorized into two groups, namely, literacy as an individual skill and literacy as a social practice. For the advocates of the former group, literacy is viewed as a skill that is acquired by an individual, generally within an educational context, utilizing oral language as a basis and ultimately, affecting cognitive development. Viewed from this perspective, discussions of literacy often involve a delineation of skill level and an examination of the relationship between oral and written language as well as between literacy and cognitive development (McKay, 1993, p. 8).

Thus, it can be assumed that in this definition the focus is on the individual rather than on the larger social context in which the individual functions. This definition can be related to what Norton (2007) refers in mentioning that "the dominant conception of literacy among governments, policy-makers, and many members of the general public is that literacy references the ability, on the part of individuals, to read and write (p. 6)."

Back to McKay (1993), the second prevailing view of literacy is that of literacy as a social practice. According to her, for those who view literacy as a social practice, what is meant by literacy depends on the historical, economical, political, and sociocultural context in which the learner operates. Thus, from this perspective, what literacy is cannot be distinct from how literacy is applied by individuals within their community and how

it is valued. But what is meant by these historical, economical, political, and sociocultural contexts?

- **A Historical Perspective:** According to McKay (1993), those who approach literacy from a historical perspective point out that both the value a society puts on literacy and also the definition of literacy differs and change over time. This fact can account for one of the reasons why it is not easy to find one single definition for literacy.

- **An Economic Perspective:** According to Williams (2004), there has long been a belief that investment in education would have an effect on developing countries, similar to that claimed for developed countries. Yet, "the failure of the Experimental World Literacy program, organized by UNESCO from 1967 to 1972, provided evidence that literacy alone cannot be a causal factor in development" (p. 595). He goes on to state that "reflecting upon the failure, UNESCO observed that if development is to occur, then literacy, economic, and social reforms must be integrated" (p. 596). Thus, literacy may be a necessary condition for economic development, but is not a sufficient condition. Nevertheless, as McKay (1993) maintains, when literacy is highly valued by a society, there may be economic advantages to becoming literate for the individual and for society. Individuals who try to gain L2 literacy, as well as those who are involved in teaching literacy, can also view literacy as an economic asset.

- **Political Perspective:** This view of literacy refers to "how literacy both positions people in society and can provide a means for transforming the social order" (McKay, 1993, p. 22). According to McKay, literacy positions people in the sense that common social labels can marginalize individuals. Also, those who support a political perspective of literacy such as Freire (1970, cited in McKay, 1993) maintain that literacy can empower people to change in the sense that for him "learners are sociohistorical, creative, and transformative beings, and literacy is the process through which these learners can come to critically reflect on reality and take actions to change oppressive conditions" (p. 18). The ultimate goal of literacy is, therefore, empowerment, and social transformation, and this approach to literacy depends upon critically examining the existing social order. This Freireian view has resulted in what is termed a critical approach to literacy.

According to Norton (2007), educators who are interested in critical literacy are interested in investigating written text, or any other kind of representation of meaning as a site of struggle, negotiation, and change. Mentioning Luke (1997), Norton states that:

While earlier psychological perspectives perceived literacy as the acquisition of particular behaviors, cognitive strategies, and linguistic processing skills, more recent insights from ethnography, cultural studies, and feminist theory have led to increasing recognition that literacy is not only a skill to be learned, but a practice that is socially constructed and locally negotiated (p. 6).

According to Clark and Ivanic (1997, p. 217, cited in Pennycook, 2004), critical literacy is linked to language awareness in that its aim is to empower learners by providing them with a critical analytical framework "to help them reflect on their own language experiences and practices and on the language practices of others in the institutions of which they are a part and in the wider society within which they live" (p. 786). One way to develop this awareness is through questioning or what Freire refers to in the "problem-posing" education (Shor, 1992).

- **Sociocultural Perspective:** Those who approach literacy from a sociocultural perspective focus on "literacy as a social and cultural phenomenon, something that exists between people and something that connects individuals to a range of experiences and to different points in time" (Schieffelin and Cochran Smith, 1984, cited in McKay, 1993, p. 1991). One of the main proponents of such a view is Street (1991, cited in Letherington, 2007) who was among the first to challenge the notion of a singular literacy and proposes what he calls an *ideological model of literacy* which recognizes a multiplicity of literacies in which the meaning and uses of literacy are related to specific cultural contexts. He contrasted this model with the *autonomous model*, which represents much of the historical study of literacy, approaches literacy as cognitive advancement: a skill or set of skills developed by the individual, detached from social context. This view of literacy accords with the first prevailing view of literacy proposed by McKay that was already discussed. Street (1991) claims that the ideological model, which is oriented to the future of literacy,

is a critical approach to literacy rooted in social agency that sees the individual as embedded in a social and cultural context within which the practices of literacy have meaning (Lotherington, 2007). Lam (2000) also refers to this fact by stating that "as a socially situated practice, literacy appears in multiple forms that have political and ideological significance; hence it is more appropriate to refer to *literacies* in multiple manifestations that bear no universal consequences" (p. 458). In short, what literacy means for a particular individual or community depends both on the demands made of them by the cultural context and on the social needs within that context (Center for Literacy, 2008). Based on what has been argued so far, it can be assumed that the concept of literacy and the different forms it can take, by any definition, are quite context-sensitive and culture-specific, and each given circumstance calls for its own framework both in terms of definition and practice.

7.3. ENGLISH LANGUAGE LITERACY LEARNER

There is no commonly accepted answer to the question of who is an EL literacy learner (Center for Literacy, 2008). "ESL literacy" is a concept that is even more difficult to define than "literacy" (p. 3). As it was already mentioned, what is meant by literacy depends on the historical, economical, political, and sociocultural context in which the learner operates. Likewise, the definition of EL literacy learner depends on the context to which the ESL learner belongs. In the literature, individuals are commonly categorized as ESL literacy learners based on level of education and native language alphabet, nonetheless, this term is defined differently by various organizations or researchers (Center for Literacy, 2008). For example, Florenz and Terrill (2003) define a literacy-level learner as a person with six or fewer years of education in their native country who needs focused instruction on learning to read and write English. They also place people into six categories, depending on their native tongue:

- Pre-literate (the learner's native language has no writing system, for instance a Bantu from Somalia, knows her native Af-Maay only orally, because a written form of the language is just now being developed);
- Non-literate (The native language has a written form but the learner cannot read the native language, for instance, a single

mother from rural Vietnam who grew up without access to education);

- Semi-literate (the learner's reading abilities are minimal, for example, a person who attended a rural school in El Salvador for 3 years, but could not continue for the family's economic purposes);

- Non-alphabet literate (the learner can read a non-alphabetic language, for example, a retired minor bureaucrat from China who is highly literate in the Mandarin script, but he is unfamiliar with any alphabet, including Roman);

- Non-Roman alphabet language literate (the learner can read a language that has a non-Roman alphabet writing system, for instance, an Arab literate in Arabic); and

- Roman alphabet language literate (for instance, a senior from Russia who also knows French).

In another attempt to define the EL literacy learner, The Centre for Canadian Language Benchmarks (2000) include in their definition people with up to 8 years of schooling who have not acquired "study skills" and may have "preconceived notions of reading and writing that may hinder progress in the class" and anyone who comes from a country with a non-Roman alphabet whether or not they are literate in their L1 (p. ii). By contrast, the U.S. organizations such as The National Institute for Literacy (2000) exclude those who are literate in a non-Roman alphabet, based on the premise that such learners know that written language represents speech, and as it will be discussed in the following section, this is a necessary piece of prior knowledge for EL acquisition, and these learners are able to transfer their skills and adapt more quickly.

Thus, as it was already pointed out, like literacy, the definition of ESL literacy learner is quite context-sensitive and based on the organization that defines it, its designation may change.

7.4. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN L1 LITERACY AND L2 LITERACY

As one of the effects of L1 literacy on L2 literacy McKay (1993, p. 6) refers to Bell and Burnaby (1984) who point out that adults who are already literate in their native language, particularly if it is an alphabetic language, have the following advantages:

They are trained in the visual discrimination of significant features in letter discrimination. They understand the concept of a particular sound being represented by a particular symbol. They have expectations of a certain content being presented in certain formats. Most important of all, they expect print to yield meaning (p. 14). But just like there is a great body of research suggesting that there is a positive transfer of literacy skills learned in the L1 to the L2, there is evidence that this sort of transfer is not always beneficial. This aspect is well discussed by Bell (1995) in her paper "The relationship between L1 and L2 literacy: Some complicating factors" and her autobiographical study of Chinese literacy acquisition. While learning to be literate in Chinese, Bell found that Chinese literacy meant something different from English literacy. Her Chinese literacy teacher emphasized on the importance of calligraphy, the need to proceed very slowly (perfecting one character before moving to the next). Bell also observed a difference in learning styles: learning Chinese, she was expected to observe and digest, rather than analyze and comment. Thus, as in the case of Bell, when references are made to the issue of culture, the negative effect of L1 literacy on L2 is more highlighted. As she puts it, her "L1 literacy skills often seemed to be a stumbling block rather than an advantage" (p. 692). This issue is also reflected in the studies that investigated the differences in organizing discourse under the concept of Contrastive Rhetoric (Kaplan, 1966). Moreover, to Bell, this experience suggested that literacy is not 'neutral,' but affected by class, gender, culture, ideology, and ethnicity. Auerbach (1999, cited in McKay, 1993, p. 8) also draws attention to this fact that no view of literacy is neutral. He notes:

There can be no disinterested, objective, and value-free definition of literacy: The way literacy is viewed and taught is always and inevitably ideological. All theories of literacy and all literacy pedagogies are framed in systems of values and beliefs which imply particularly reviews of the social order and use literacy to position people socially (p. 71). Then it can be assumed that it is not easy to conclude firmly whether L1 literacy helps or hinders the ESL Literacy learner. Perhaps one possible answer can be that it depends on what the L1 is. Barton and Pitt (2003) note both the advantage and the difficulties. They refer to a study (Auerbach, 1996) which was done in the United States, where learners were first taught literacy in their native tongue (either Haitian Creole or Spanish), and after six months to a year, these learners were judged by the teachers to be ready to move on to transitional bilingual ESL classes. Although no details of the pedagogic practice are given, the report recommended that students gained initial

literacy in their native language. Barton and Pitt (2003) refer to helpful outcomes when teaching L1 literacy, but they also quote Bell's paper where, based on the author's experience of learning Chinese, she challenges the belief that learners who are literate in their native language generally make better progress than those without native language literacy. As Hornberger (1989, cited in Bell, 1995) points out in her discussion of the research literature on biliteracy "the relationship between first and second literacies is highly complex, so that not all aspects of the L1 will necessarily aid the development of L2" (p. 688). Thus, as Bell argues literacy in one language or culture cannot necessarily be assumed to be helpful in developing literacy in another. In fact, the cultural differences add a layer of complexity to the learning experience.

7.5. INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES AND METHODOLOGY FOR ESL LITERACY DEVELOPMENT

As it is pointed out by the Center for Literacy (2008, p. 5), "the discussions of effective pedagogical practices that do occur emphasize the complex and multifaceted nature of ESL learning processes. They suggest that a multifaceted teaching approach is therefore, required to accommodate different learner backgrounds, interests, learning styles and literacy levels." In the literature, references are usually made to *What Works Study* (Condelli and Wrigley, 2003, p. 27) which concluded that three instructional strategies were instrumental in improving literacy and language development:

7.5.1. Connection to the Outside World, Using Materials From Everyday Life

One of the key findings of the study carried out by Condeli and Wrigley (2003, p. 27) was that connecting literacy teaching to everyday life made a significant difference in reading basic skills development. To implement this strategy, teachers applied materials from daily life that held information that students wanted to know about or with which they had some experience. For instance, a teacher might bring in grocery flyers from different stores and ask students to compare prices or use phone and electricity bills, letters from schools or immigration authorities, and other items that appear in students' mailboxes to highlight literacy for adult contexts. According to these researchers:

Activities of this sort might foster literacy development by linking new information to what learners already know and by engaging the learner in topics of interest. By starting with familiar materials that are of interest to learners and by creating situations for cognitive involvement, teachers can create interest, maintain high levels of motivation, engage students' minds and through this process build literacy skills that have importance in the lives of adults (p. 27). In this regard, Florez and Terrill (2003) also have suggestions for literacy practices in the literacy class, particularly in dealing with adults. In this regard, they refer to Malcolm Knowles' (1973) principles of adult learning that are applicable to planning instruction for adult EL learners' literacy, maintaining that adults are self-directed, practical, and problem solving. They have reservoirs of experience to help them learn new things, and they want to know why something needs to be learned and how it will be applicable to their lives.

By the same token, Florez and Terrill (2003) suggest the integration of the four language classrooms. According to them, skills in literacy-level classes vary because of program type (general, family, workplace, or corrections); intensity; and learner needs and goals. Accordingly, in real life and regardless of the context, language tasks involve integrating the four skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. For example, a trip to the health clinic includes reading and filling out health forms, explaining symptoms, and understanding the doctor's response. Likewise, The Centre for Canadian Language Benchmarks (2000) refers to the fact that many ESL Literacy learners prefer "experiential" learning, and so the connection to real-life in both content and skills developed in the classroom is important. Thus, they suggest the teachers to think about the real-life applications of any skills they plan to cover to the extent it is feasible (p. xii). Florez and Terril (2003) also highlight the need for incorporating the learners' needs and wants. In this regard, they refer to the point that since learners have many purposes for developing English literacy, needs assessment assures learners a voice in their instruction and keeps content relevant to their lives and goals. It also gives the teacher an opportunity to learn what skills learners bring to class and which ones they feel they need to strengthen (Brod, 1999; Shank and Terrill, 1997, cited in Florez and Terrill, 2003).

7.5.2. Use of Native Language for Clarification

Condeli and Wrigley (2003) in their study conclude that if instructions are given to students in their native tongue, they are able to focus on the task,

and not be stressed over whether or not they have understood the directions correctly and thus exhibit faster growth in both reading comprehension and oral communication skills. The idea of using L1 is also confirmed in Cook's (2007) discussions of the idea of multicompetence. Cook argues that since multicompetence means that the L1 is always present in the users' minds, it would be artificial and sometimes inefficient to avoid its use.

7.5.3. Varied Practice and Interaction

This third strategy refers to using multiple modes of teaching. As Condeli and Wrigley (2003) discuss:

Language and literacy development encompass complex linguistic and cognitive processes that are not yet fully understood by current science. Since learning a L2 also has psychological dimensions, such as motivation to learn, and sociocultural dimensions, it is not surprising that the relationship between teaching processes in the classroom and learning outcomes is not often linear. No single teaching strategy invariably leads to success in LL. Multiple modes of learning and teaching tend to be more successful in advancing language skills, particularly oral communication skills, as demonstrated through our analyzes (p. 30).

7.5.4. Not Making Assumptions about What a Learner Knows or Does Not Know

One other effective literacy classroom practice comes from the Centre for Canadian Language Benchmarks' (2000) suggestions for ESL literacy methodology and it is: based on what this center calls for ESL Literacy instruction is based on building a body of knowledge and skills that includes but is not limited to reading and writing. Learners may be unfamiliar with concepts the instructor considers common knowledge, or may not have a sub-skill required to complete a larger task. For example, a learner cannot acquire the language skills related to telling time if he has not yet learned to read a clock. It is important that we check the learner's understanding of what we teach and not make quick assumptions about why someone is not learning.

7.6. CONCLUSION

In general, one significant point to keep in mind while working with ESL/ EFL literacy learners can be summarized in Brod's (1999, p. 5) quotation

that "literacy-level learners may be beginning learners, but they are not beginning thinkers" (cited in Florez and Terrill, 2003). Like all learners, they bring varied strengths and needs to the adult ESL classroom. Teachers need to provide instruction that addresses these strengths and needs, engages learners in demanding and relevant topics, and provides them with tools they can use to meet their responsibilities and goals (Florez and Terrill, 2003).

As van Lier (2004) puts it:

Learners approach a L2 with a given history and ongoing construction of their social self and identity. In the new language, various aspects of the self must be renegotiated and reconstructed, and this often entails clashes and struggles. This is true in both second and FLL, though the processes and problems can differ in different contexts. Teachers can encourage students to develop their own 'voice' in the new language…by embedding language in meaningful activity. Focusing on the here and now brings the benefit that indicational uses of language are established first, allowing the learners to develop ecological and interpersonal perceptions in the language, and on the basis of these, they can construct translingual and transcultural selves (p. 130).

Taking into account the diverse and changing definitions and viewpoints about literacy Lotherington (2007, p. 901) believes that "the evolving reconceptualization of literacy as multiliteracies reconstructs the educational goals and outcomes of ELT to be more linguistically and culturally sensitive and inclusive, socially, and linguistically repositioning the EL." He goes on to assert that:

ELT teachers cannot morally ignore the ecological debate about the relative status of English and its encroachment on other language domains. The teacher must ensure that her learners are learning English, at the same time complementing and maintaining the many literacies learners will need to engage in their complex, multicultural, and multilingual lives (p. 901).

Such changes in perspectives demand-responsive ways of learning and teaching, one of which is that of nurturing multilingualism, multiculturalism, and in turn, one way to achieve this multimodal can be through the use of new literacies such as digital computer literacies (Lotherington, 2007). Considering what has been covered in this chapter about the notions and issues about the concept of literacy and reflecting upon the current situation in our own country, Iran, certain questions can be raised:

- To what extent have the historical, economical, political, and sociocultural issues been taken into account when defining and

setting the objectives and goals of foreign language literacy in our educational programs?

- To what degree has the educational system been successful in touching the FL literacy issue critically?

- How far has the educational system been successful in identifying the real needs and requirements of the language learners in Iran and how well has it tried to incorporate their background knowledge and previous experience into the learning process?

- What role has needs analysis and needs assessment played in providing the learning materials?

- How many times have we, as language learners, felt we have been rendered "voiceless" (Giroux, 1999) or "silenced" (Fine, 1987, both cited in Cummins, 1999) in the language classrooms? On the other hand, how well have we, as teachers, tried to listen to our learners' voices or take into account their identities?

- To what extent have we been successful to proceed with the changing definition of literacy to multiliteracies and multimodalism and incorporating the new literacies including the use of the Internet as "a potential solution for establishing a viable postmodern multilingualism" (Lotherington, 2007, p. 901) into our educational system?

- Strain (1971) investigated the EL instruction in Iran and came up with these shortcomings: teachers are inadequately prepared, classrooms are overcrowded, materials are not properly used, and basic writing skills are not taught. How far have we made real progress toward overcoming these problems over the last 40 years?

To the author's best knowledge, little, if any, attempt has been made to answer these questions in the available literature, but a probe into our own educational experience and what we observe in general English or even ESP classes at the university level reveals to me that these issues have rarely been addressed in our FL instructional programs. Even if there have been attempts, they have been so unproductive that it makes it hard to trace their effect in the learners' knowledge of English as the outcome. Therefore, given the ever-increasing need for FL literacy and the potentials and capabilities of EFL learners in Iran, reconsideration, and reconstruction of EFL literacy issues seem to be essential for reaching our EL learning goals in a more effective, reasonable, and even economical way.

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Chapter 8

The Problems That Kumaravadivelu Enumerated Regarding Eclecticism

CONTENTS

8.1. OVERVIEW

In the field of L2 education, most teachers enter into the realm of professional knowledge, with very few exceptions, through a "methods" package. That is, they learn that the supposedly objective knowledge of language learning and teaching has been closely linked to a particular method which, in turn, is closely linked to a particular school of thought in psychology, linguistics, and other related disciplines. When they begin to teach, however, they quickly recognize the limitations of such a knowledge base, and try to break away from such a constraining concept of method. In the process, they attempt to develop their own eclectic method. In order to do that, they have to increasingly rely on their prior and evolving personal knowledge of learning and teaching.

Stern (1983) was also convinced that an eclectic approach would not be of any help either, because "eclecticism is still based on the notion of a conceptual distinctiveness of the different methods. However, it is the distinctiveness of the methods as complete entities that can be called into question" (1983, p. 482) there is no agreement as to what the different methods precisely stand for nor how they could be satisfactorily combined.

Chastain (1988) asked whether there are valid reasons for choosing an eclectic approach rather than an approach based on a particular theory or set of theories. This is an important question that all language teachers should consider, but arriving at a satisfactory answer is problematic. By definition, there may be many different eclectic approaches because what one teacher chooses as the best parts of one approach may be rejected by another. This individualization of approach is desirable in one sense because teaching is a personal activity, and each teacher has a particular style. In another sense, however, the end result may be an unproductive mish-mash of fun-and-games that satisfies the students and makes teachers happy but leads nowhere. After all, both productive and unproductive activities are possible in any classroom, and teachers should not excuse ineffectiveness as eclecticism.

Language teachers seem justified in choosing an eclectic approach that fits their personalities, their teaching style, and their students because current knowledge indicates that no single approach is the most productive for all students in all situations. However, they should not assume that the need for flexibility and individuality justifies the inclusion in class of any activity, just because they have use it before and "it works" or "the students like it." All teachers should screen each activity to determine its effectiveness in

promoting course goals. As Henry Widdowson (1990) observes: "It is quite common to hear teachers say that they do not subscribe to any particular approach or method in their teaching but are 'eclectic.' They thereby avoid commitment to any current fad that comes up on the whirligig of fashion. "Constructing a principled eclectic method is not easy. As Widdowson (1990) observed, "if by eclecticism is meant the random and expedient use of whatever technique comes most readily to hand, then it has no merit whatever" (p. 50). If eclecticism is to be a matter of principle, it cannot apply independently at the level of operational technique: it must apply at the level of appraisal which techniques will make variably operational. Eclectic techniques in this case will realize an underlying consistency.

The net result is that practicing teachers end up with some form of eclectic method that is, as Long writes in the Routledge Encyclopedia of language teaching and learning (2000): usually little more than an amalgam of their inventors' prejudices. The same relative ignorance about SLA affects everyone, and makes the eclecticist's claim to be able to select the alleged "best parts" of several theories absurd. Worse, given that different theories by definition reflect different understandings, the resulting methodological mish-mash is guaranteed to be wrong, whereas an approach to LT based, in part, on one theory can at least be coherent, and, subject to the previously discussed caveats, has a chance of being right (p. 4). Richards and Schmidt (2002) assert that eclecticism is a term used for the practice of using features of several methods in LT, for example, by using both audio-lingual and CLT techniques. In order to have a sound eclectic method, a core set of principles is needed to guide the teacher's selection of techniques, strategies, and teaching procedures.

8.2. KUMARAVADIVELU (2006)

Teachers find it difficult to develop a "valuable, internally-derived sense of coherence" about LT, in part, because the transmission model of teacher education they may have undergone does little more than passing on to them a ready-made package of methods and methods-related body of knowledge. They find such a methods-based teacher education woefully inadequate to meet the challenges of the practice of everyday teaching. Therefore, in an earnest attempt "to tend to the tomatoes," they try to develop a sense of what works in the classroom and what does not, based on their intuitive ability and experiential knowledge. In a clear rejection of established methods, teachers try to derive a "method" of their own and call it an eclectic method.

Stern (1992) pointed out some of them: the weakness of the eclectic position is that:

- It offers no criteria according to which we can determine which is the best theory;
- It does not provide any principles by which to include or exclude features which form part of existing theories or practices;
- The choice is left to the individual's intuitive judgment and is, therefore, too broad, and too vague to be satisfactory as a theory in its own right (p. 11).

As can be expected, methods-based, teacher-education programs do not make any sustained and systematic effort to develop in prospective teachers the knowledge and skill necessary to be responsibly eclectic.

8.3. KUMARAVADIVELU (2003)

Justifiable dissatisfaction with established methods inevitably and increasingly led practicing teachers to rely on their intuitive ability and experiential knowledge. While there have been frequent calls for teachers to develop informed or enlightened eclecticism based on their own understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of established methods, teacher education programs seldom make any sustained and systematic effort to develop in prospective teachers the knowledge and skill necessary to be responsibly eclectic. Nor do any of the widely prescribed textbooks for methods courses, to my knowledge; have a chapter title *Eclectic Method.* The net result is that practicing teachers have neither the comfort of a context sensitive professional theory that they can rely on nor the confidence of a fully developed personal theory that they can build on. Consequently, they find themselves straddling two methodological worlds: one that is imposed on them, and another that is improvised by them.

8.4. POST METHOD CONDITION

The post method condition signifies three interrelated attributes. First and foremost, it signifies a search for an alternative to method rather than an alternative method. If the conventional concept of method entitles theorizers to construct professional theories of pedagogy, the post method condition empowers practitioners to construct personal theories of practice. If the concept of method authorizes theorizers to centralize pedagogic decision-making, the post method condition enables practitioners to generate

location-specific, classroom-oriented innovative strategies. Secondly, the post method condition signifies teacher autonomy. The post method condition, however, recognizes the teachers' potential to know not only how to teach but also how to act autonomously within the academic and administrative constraints imposed by institutions, curricula, and textbooks. It also promotes the ability of teachers to know how to develop a critical approach in order to self-observe, self-analyze, and self-evaluate their own teaching practice with a view to effecting desired changes.

The third attribute of the post method condition is principled pragmatism. Unlike eclecticism which is constrained by the conventional concept of method, in the sense that one is supposed to put together practices from different established methods, principled pragmatism is based on the pragmatics of pedagogy where "the relationship between theory and practice, ideas, and their actualization, can only be realized within the domain of application, that is, through the immediate activity of teaching" (Widdowson, 1990, p. 30). Principled pragmatism thus focuses on how classroom learning can be shaped and reshaped by teachers as a result of self-observation, self-analysis, and self-evaluation.

One way in which teachers can follow principled pragmatism is by developing what Prabhu (1990) calls *"a sense of plausibility."* Teachers' sense of plausibility is their "subjective understanding of the teaching they do" (Prabhu, 1990, p. 172). This subjective understanding may arise from their own experience as learners and teachers, and through professional education and peer consultation.

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Chapter 9

Experiential Learning

CONTENTS

9.1. OVERVIEW

Experiential learning is built primarily upon the theories and attempts of Kurt Lewin, John Dewey, and Jean Piaget. It subscribes to the following propositions: In experiential learning, the learner's immediate personal experiences are taken as the point of departure for deciding how to organize the learning process. According to Kohonen (1992), experiential learning has diverse origins, being derived from John Dewey's progressive philosophy of education, Lewin's social psychology, Piaget's model of developmental psychology, Kelley's cognitive theory of education, and the work of Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers in the field of humanistic psychology. What draws these diverse philosophical and academic positions together is the construct of humanism.

Kohonen argues for experiential learning on the grounds that it facilitates personal growth, that it helps learners adapt to social change, that it takes into account differences in learning ability, and that it is responsive both to learner needs and practical pedagogical considerations. As already indicated, experiential learning builds a bridge from the known to the new by taking the learner's perceptions and experiences as the point of departure for the learning process.

9.2. FORMULATED MODEL OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

The most comprehensively formulated model of experiential learning is that of Kolb (1984). Kolb suggests that, through experiential learning, the learner moves from the known to the new through a process of making sense of some immediate experience, and then going beyond the immediate experience through a process of transformation. The most articulate examination of humanism and experiential learning in relation to language education is provided by Kohonen (1992) who provides contrasts between traditional and experiential models of education in 10 key dimensions (Table 9.1).

Table 9.1. Traditional and Experiential Models of Education

SL. No.	Dimension	Traditional Model	Experiential Model
1.	View of learning	Transmission of knowledge	Transformation of knowledge
2.	Power relation	Emphasis on teacher's authority	Teacher as "learner among learners"
3.	Teacher's role	Providing mainly frontal instruction; professionalism as individual autonomy	Facilitating learning (largely in small groups); collaborative professionalism
4.	Learner's role	Relatively passive recipient of information; mainly individual work	Active participation, largely in collaborative small groups
5.	View of knowledge	Presented as "certain;" application problem-solving	Construction of personal knowledge; identification of problems
6.	View of curriculum	Static; hierarchical grading of subject matter, predefined content, and product	Dynamic; looser organization of subject matter, including open parts and integration
7.	Learning experiences	Knowledge of facts, concepts, and skills; focus on content and product	Emphasis on process; learning skills, self-inquiry, social, and communication skills
8.	Control of process	Mainly teacher-structured learning	Emphasis on learner; self-directed learning
9.	Motivation	Mainly extrinsic	Mainly intrinsic
10.	Evaluation	Product-oriented: achievement testing; criterion-referencing (and norm-referencing)	Process-oriented: reflection on process, self-assessment; criterion-referencing

Experiential learning subscribes to the following propositions:

➢ **Learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes:** Kolb (1984) states that Knowing is a process, not a product." However, in this respect, old theories have different beliefs. Behaviorism regarding the process of learning is based on stimulus-response; the strength of a habit is measured by its resistance to extinction; the more I have "learned" a habit,

the longer I will keep doing it even if it is not rewarded). But experiential theory says:

Focus on outcomes as opposed to the process of creative adaptation has had a negative effect on the educational system (Dewey, 1938).

Ideas are formed and re-formed through experience; no two thoughts are ever the same because experience always intervenes. *From the experiential point of view, the failure to modify ideas and habits as a result of experience is maladaptive!* (Dewey, 1938).

➢ **Learning is a continuous process grounded in experience:** Piaget (1917) says "Any experience that does not violate expectation is not worthy of the name experience." In this respect, Dewey (1938) believes that: "It is in the interplay between expectation and experience that learning occurs."

The fact that learning is a continuous process grounded in experience implies that all learning is relearning. Dewey (1938) says that "The learner's mind is not a *tabula rasa* upon which the teacher scratches the curriculum outline" and "Everyone has more or less of an idea about the topic at hand. We are all psychologists, historians, scientists, etc. It is just that some of our theories are more and incorrect than others." And "the job of both teacher and learner is to not only create and implant new ideas but also to deconstruct or modify old ideas."

➢ **The process of learning requires the resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of adaptation to the world:** Dewey (1938) states that "Learning results from the resolution of conflicts that arise from the tension between these ways of knowing."

According to Lewin (1957), learners if they are to be effective need four different kinds of experiential learning:

- **Concrete Experience (CE):** The ability to involve yourself fully, openly, and without bias in new experience.
- **Reflective Observation (RO):** The ability to reflect on and observe your experience from many perspectives.
- **Abstract Conceptualization (AC):** The ability to create concepts that integrate your observations into logically sound theories.

- **Active Experimentation (AE):** The ability to use these theories to make decisions and solve problems.

According to Kolb (1984), in the process of learning one moves in a variety of degrees from specific involvement to detached analysis. The way in which the conflicts between the modes of learning get resolved determines the level of learning that results.

➢ **Learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world:** Remnet (1989) says "Learning involves the integrated functioning of the whole organism--thinking, feeling, perceiving, and behaving." Dewey (1938) believes that "Learning is *the* major process of human adaptation. The scientific method is the highest philosophical and technological refinement of the basic process of learning." He further states that "When learning is seen from a systems point of view, as a holistic adaptive process, it can be used to create bridges across life situations such as school and work and it can easily be seen as a continuous, lifelong process."

➢ **Learning involves transactions between the person and the environment:** The importance of these transactions between person and environment can be symbolized in the dual meanings of the word *experience*:

According to Kolb (1984), there are two kinds of experiences: *subjective experience* and *objective experience*. The subjective experience is the personal meaning referring to your internal state, as in "the experience of joy and happiness," and the objective experience is the environmental meaning of experience. For example, as we say, "You have 20 years of experience on this job."

These two forms of experience interrelate in very complex ways.

➢ **Learning is the process of creating knowledge:** General knowledge is the result of the transaction between:

- Social knowledge (the objective sum of previous human cultural experience) and

- Personal knowledge (the sum of individual subjective life experiences).

This process of social and personal knowledge is called "learning."

9.3. CONCLUSION

- Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience.

- Adaptation and learning are more important than content or outcomes.

- Knowledge is a transformational process. It is continually created and recreated. It is not an independent entity to be acquired or transmitted.

- Learning transforms both objective and subjective experience.

- To understand learning we must understand the nature of knowledge and vice versa.

> **EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING MODEL**

The experiential learning model below describes the five steps that allow youth to fully benefit from a learning experience or activity (Figure 9.1).

Experiential learning takes place when a person involved in an activity lools back and evaluates it, determines waht was useful or important to remember, and uses this information to perfrom another activity.

—John Dewey
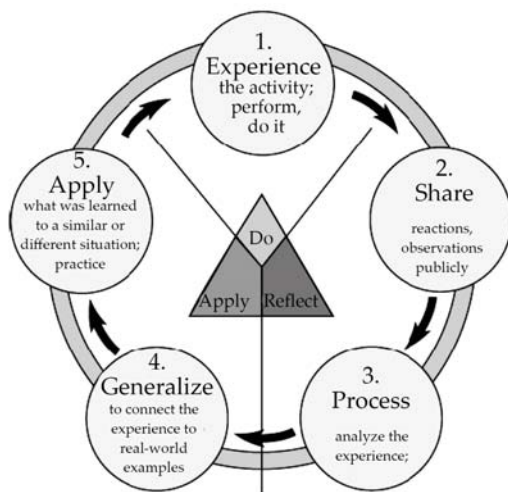
Figure 9.1. *The experiential learning models.*

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Chapter 10

Programs and Models for the Integration of Content and Language Learning: Immersion/Submersion Program; Sheltered Instruction, and Adjunct Model

CONTENTS

10.1. OVERVIEW

The term "immersion education" came to prominence in Canada during the 1960s to describe innovative programs in which the French language was used as a medium of instruction for elementary school students whose home language was English (Johnson and Johnson, 1999). However, as Johnson and Swain (1997) point out, there is nothing new in the phenomenon of "immersing" students in a L2 instructional environment. In fact, throughout the history of formal education, the use of an L2 as a medium of instruction has been the rule rather than the exception. The Canadian French immersion programs, however, were the first to be subjected to intensive long-term research evaluation, although some large-scale research had been undertaken in other contexts prior to the Canadian experience (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

10.2. WHAT IS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IMMERSION PROGRAM?

Immersion is defined as a method of foreign language instruction in which the regular school curriculum is taught through the medium of the language. The foreign language is the vehicle for content instruction; it is not the subject of instruction. Total immersion is one program format among several that range on a continuum in terms of time spent in the foreign language. In total immersion, all schooling in the initial years is conducted in the foreign language, including reading and language arts. Partial immersion differs from total in that 50% of the school day is conducted in English right from the start. In partial immersion, reading and language arts are always taught in English. Beyond that, the choice of subjects taught in each language is a local decision (Brown, 2001; Coulmas, 1997; Fishman, 1999; Johnson and Johnson, 1999; Johnson and Swain, 1997).

First established in 1965 in a suburb of Montreal, Canada, immersion programs are now found across Canada and the United States, providing education in a variety of foreign languages (Snow, 2001). Immersion programs are meant to immerse students in a language different from their native language. "The ultimate goal is to build strong academic literacy skills in that language and to give students access to subject matter taught entirely through the L2" (McGroarty, 2001, p. 348). There are, for instance, schools in Canada for English-speaking children, where French is the medium of instruction. Now, if these children are taught in French for the whole day, it is called a *total immersion* program. However, if they are taught in French

for only part of the day, it is called a *partial immersion* program (Richards et al., 1992; De Vilar and Faltis, 1994; Johnson and Johnson, 1999; Wikipedia, 2000; McLaughlin, 1987).

According to Ovando and Collier (1985), immersion education is described as a program where pupils are taught in their L2 right from their first year of schooling. The pupils mother tongue is introduced in the students second or third year. The instruction in the pupil's mother tongue might increase in the following years, or it might be limited to one or two hours each day. Ovando and Collier (1985, p. 43) add that there are other variations to this program, namely: partial immersion or late immersion, which vary the time of introduction of L1 or L2 and the amount of L1 instruction.

10.3. CORE FEATURES OF IMMERSION PROGRAMS

Johnson and Swain (1997) summarize 8 core features of immersion programs as follows:

- The L2 is a medium of instruction;
- The immersion curriculum parallels the local L1 curriculum;
- Overt support exists for the L1;
- The program aims for additive bilingualism;
- Exposure to the L2 is largely confined to the classroom;
- Students enter with similar (and limited) levels of L2 proficiency;
- The teachers are bilingual;
- The classroom culture is that of the local L1 community.

10.3.1. Benefits and Concerns of the Immersion Education Program

The Immersion programs are extensively used in Canada and benefit pupils of the majority and dominant language. The immersion bilingual programs foster student's language arts achievement compared to the TBE models (Brisk, 1998, cited in Linquanti, 1999). Immersion bilingual education programs are different from submersion programs. In submersion programs, students are not allowed to use their first languages (L1) to support the build up to L2 in the classroom. This situation may eventually lead students of the minority languages to have low academic achievement and high dropout rates due to their perception of their own low status relative to the majority language pupils (Ovando and Collier, 1985; McLaughlin, 1987).

10.4. WHAT ARE THE GOALS OF AN IMMERSION PROGRAM?

The long-range goals of an immersion program include: 1) developing a high level of proficiency in the foreign language; 2) developing positive attitudes toward those who speak the foreign language and toward their culture(s); 3) developing EL skills commensurate with expectations for student's age and abilities; 4) gaining skills and knowledge in the content areas of the curriculum in keeping with stated objectives in these areas (Wikipedia, 2000; Yang, 2000; Johnson and Johnson, 1999).

10.5. WHAT ARE THE KEYS TO SUCCESSFUL IMMERSION PROGRAMS?

Successful immersion programs are characterized by: (1) administrative support; (2) community and parental support; (3) qualified teachers; (4) appropriate materials in the foreign language; (5) time for teachers to prepare instructional materials in the language; (6) and ongoing staff development (Johnson and Swain, 1997).

10.6. WHY IS IMMERSION AN EFFECTIVE SECOND LANGUAGE MODEL?

A great deal of research has centered on foreign language acquisition (LA) in various school settings. Over the past 30 years, due in large part to the success of immersion programs, there has been a shift away from teaching language in isolation and toward integrating language and content (Johnson and Swain, 1997; Lightbown and Spada, 2006). This shift is based on four principles:

- Language is acquired most effectively when it is learned in a meaningful social context. For young learners, the school curriculum provides a natural basis for FLL, offering them the opportunity to communicate about what they know and what they want to know, as well as about their feelings and attitudes.

- Important and interesting content provides a motivating context for learning the communicative functions of the new language. Young children are not interested in learning a language that serves no meaningful function.

- L1 acquisition, cognition, and social awareness go hand in hand in young children. By integrating language and content, FLL, too, becomes an integral part of a child's social and cognitive development.

- Formal and functional characteristics of language change from one context to another. An integrated language and content model in an elementary school setting provides a wide variety of contexts in which to use the foreign language (Johnson and Swain, 1997; Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

10.7. TWO-WAY IMMERSION EDUCATION

Two-way immersion is an educational model that integrates native English speakers and native speakers of another language for all or most of the day, with the goals of promoting high academic achievement, first-, and second-language development, and cross-cultural under-standing for all students. In two-way immersion programs, LL takes place primarily through content instruction. Academic subjects are taught to all students through both English and the non-EL. As students and teachers work together to perform academic tasks, the students' language abilities are developed, along with their knowledge of content area subject matter (De Vilar and Faltis, 1994).

10.8. TYPES OF IMMERSION PROGRAM

A number of different immersion programs have evolved since those first ones in Canada. Immersion programs may be categorized according to *age* and *extent* of immersion (Wikipedia, 2000; Johnson and Swain, 1997; Richards et al., 1992; Johnson and Johnson, 1999).

1. Age:

i. **Early Immersion:** Students begin the L2 from age 5 or 6.

ii. **Middle Immersion:** Students begin the L2 from age 9 or 10.

iii. **Late Immersion:** Students begin the L2 between ages 11 and 14.

2. **Extent:**

i. In *total immersion*, almost 100% of class time is spent in the foreign language. Subject matter taught in foreign language and LL per se is incorporated as necessary throughout the curriculum. The goals are to become functionally *proficient* in the foreign language, to master subject content taught in the foreign languages, and to acquire an understanding of and appreciation

for other cultures. This type of program is usually sequential, cumulative, continuous, proficiency-oriented, and part of an integrated grade school sequence. Even in total immersion, the language of the curriculum may revert to the L1 of the learners after several years.

ii.   In *partial immersion*, about half of the class time is spent learning subject matter in the foreign language. The goals are to become functionally proficient in the L2 (though to a lesser extent than through total immersion), to master subject content taught in the foreign languages, and to acquire an understanding of and appreciation for other cultures.

iii.   In *two-way immersion*, also called "*dual-*" or "*bilingual immersion*," the student population consists of speakers of two or more languages. Ideally speaking, half of the class is made up of native speakers of the major language in the area (e.g., English in the U.S.) and the other half is of the TL (e.g., Spanish). Class time is split in half and taught in the major and TLs. This way students encourage and teach each other, and eventually all become bilingual. The goals are similar to the above program. Different ratios of the TL to the native language may occur.

iv.   In *content-based foreign languages in elementary schools* (FLES), about 15–50% of class time is spent in the foreign language and time is spent learning it as well as learning subject matter in the foreign language. The goals of the program are to acquire proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing the foreign language, to use subject content as a vehicle for acquiring foreign language skills, and to acquire an understanding of and appreciation for other cultures.

v.   In *FLES* programs, 5–15% of class time is spent in the foreign language and time is spent learning the language itself. It takes a minimum of 75 minutes per week, at least every other day. The goals of the program are to acquire proficiency in listening and speaking (degree of proficiency varies with the program), to acquire an understanding of and appreciation for other cultures, and to acquire some proficiency in reading and writing (emphasis varies with the program).

In *Flex* (i.e., foreign language experience) programs, frequent, and regular sessions over a short period or short and/or infrequent sessions over

an extended period are provided in the L2. Class is almost always in the L1. Only 1% to 5% of class time is spent sampling each of one or more languages and/or learning about language. The goals of the program are to develop an interest in foreign languages for future language study, to learn basic words and phrases in one or more foreign languages, to develop careful listening skills, to develop cultural awareness, and to develop linguistic awareness. This type of program is usually non-continuous (Wikipedia, 2000; Johnson and Swain, 1997; Richards et al., 1992; Johnson and Johnson, 1999).

10.9. IMMERSION IN CANADA

Although immersion in a L2 has been a feature of education for centuries, it has in recent years become best known through developments in Canada. 'The first immersion programs were designed to provide Canada's majority-group English-speaking learners with opportunities to learn Canada's other official language.' (Genesee, 1985). Since the 1960s Canadian learners mainly from English-speaking homes have had the opportunity to receive most or much of their education through the medium of French from teachers who are native speakers of the language. Immersion program are implemented across the whole of Canada, presently involving some 350,000 learners of whom some 155,000 are in Ontario, and have been extensively researched. In Canada immersion differs from 'Core French', which is 'French-as-a-subject' taught across the anglophone provinces of Canada in primary and secondary schools in ways that resemble a foreign language at school in Scotland.

As a result of this extensive and systematic planning, development, experimentation, evaluation, and research, it is nowadays possible in Canada to make informed predictions as to what levels of subject attainment, language proficiency and social attitudes will be delivered by Core French and by the different models of immersion education by the time learners reach the end of their primary and secondary education. Information of this sort is useful to parents and educational planners wishing to know in advance what outcomes a particular type of immersion program is likely to yield (Snow, 2001; Johnson and Johnson, 1999; Widdowson, 1990; Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

10.9.1. Social Background to Immersion in Canada

In Canada, immersion programs serve not only to educate learners but to fulfill two additional purposes: first, to show the French-speaking population

that the English-speaking population is committed to the notion of Canada as a bilingual and multicultural nation, and second to establish a Canadian identity that is different from that of its massive neighbor to the south. As was recently stated in a public talk by a leading Canadian authority on French immersion, the big cities of Canada are strung out in a line across the entire country. None of them are very far from the border with the USA, hence the importance of immersion programs in establishing a bilingual Canadian identity that differentiates it from that of its neighbor. It is suggested that 'immersion is seen ultimately as a means of strengthening national unity' (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

10.10. OVERVIEW OF IMMERSION PROGRAM OUTCOMES

The results of more than 30 years of research on French immersion programs have been summarized in several volumes (Johnson and Swain, 1997). Briefly, there are three major variants of the French immersion program: early immersion starting in kindergarten or occasionally grade 1; middle immersion starting in grades 4 or 5; and late immersion starting in grade 7. All are characterized by at least 50% instruction through the TL (French) in the early stages. For example, early immersion usually involves 100% French in kindergarten and grade 1 with one period of EL arts introduced in grades 2, 3, or sometimes as late as grade 4. By grades 5 and 6, the instructional time is divided equally between the two languages and usually the amount of time through French declines to about 40% in grades 7, 8, and 9 with further reduction at the high school level as a result of a greater variety of course offerings in English than in French.

Consistent findings have been obtained from French immersion program evaluations across Canada. In early immersion programs, students gain fluency and literacy in French at no apparent cost to their English academic skills. Within a year of the introduction of formal EL arts students catch up in most aspects of English standardized test performance. Usually, students require additional time to catch up in English spelling, but by grade 5, there are normally no differences in English test performance between immersion students and comparison groups whose instruction has been totally through English. One potential limitation of these findings is that standardized tests do not assess all aspects of English academic skills; in particular, writing development is usually not assessed in such tests. However, the few studies that have examined English writing development specifically show no

evidence of problems among immersion students in this regard. There is also no evidence of any long-term lag in mastery of subject matter taught through French in early, middle, or late immersion programs.

With respect to French skills, students' receptive skills in French are better developed (in relation to native speaker norms) than are their expressive skills. By the end of elementary school (grade 6), students are close to the level of native speakers in understanding and reading of French, but there are significant gaps between them and native speakers in spoken and written French. The gap is particularly evident in grammatical aspects of the language (Harley, Allen, Cummins, and Swain, 1991; Lighbown and Spada, 2006).

10.10.1. French Immersion Programs

French immersion programs in Canada involve immersing a majority language student in a minority language class. While any L2 can be involved, we will refer to these as French immersion programs. In 1977, there were 237 schools offering immersion education in Canada. In 1998, there were 2,141. The number of students had risen from 37,835 to 318,000. Clearly, French immersion programs have maintained their popularity in Canada. French immersion differs from traditional French instruction (also known as Core French) and from submersion programs. It is different from a Core French course in that French is the medium of communication, not the subject of the course. It is teaching in French, not teaching of French. In a Core French course, French is just another subject (say, 40 minutes a day). In French-immersion, all of the instruction is in French, even when the content is geography or music. French immersion is different from submersion programs in that no student in the class is a native speaker of the medium of instruction. Native speakers of French do not enroll in French immersion classes, so all the students are starting from approximately the same place. Contrast this with a native Cree speaker who is thrown into an English-only class with a large number of native speakers of English.

Probably the two biggest questions that get asked about immersion programs are: (1) What effect does such a program have on the students' English? and (2) How good is their French? The answer to the first question is remarkably similar to the answer provided by the heritage language programs. Children can become bilingual, and instruction in one language does not necessarily mean a diminished capacity for the other language. Often, though, children in French immersion programs exhibit a delay in

productive skills (talking and writing) in English in the early years. However, by grade six, on average they are outperforming their monolingual English peers. Boldly stated, children in French immersion learn English. So how good is their French? Concerns are often expressed that the children who come out of French immersion programs end up speaking a kind of mixed language (which has been called Frenglish, or Franglais). It is true that immersion students tend to make mistakes in things like French gender, the tu/vous distinction (where vous is used as an honorific second-person singular pronoun), and polite conditionals such as Je voudrais un crayon 'I would like a pencil' versus the somewhat less polite simple present form Je veux un crayon 'I want a pencil.' Overall, however, their receptive skills (reading and listening) end up virtually native-like and their productive skills, while not nativelike, are at an advanced level (Lighbown and Spada, 2006).

10.10.2. Submersion Program

Submersion is one of the many types of immersion programs that exist for non-English speaking students. Submersion classes are conducted entirely in a language foreign to the student. This approach calls for the placement of LEP (limited English proficient) children in classrooms where only English is used. No special attempt is made to help overcome the language problem, and the children's L1, is not used for instruction. For this reason, this approach is often described as the "sink or swim" method (Brown, 2001; Coulmas, 1997; Fishman, 1999; Johnson and Johnson, 1999; Johnson and Swain, 1997). According to Richards et al. (1992), in these programs, "the language of instruction is not the L1 of some of the children, but *is* the L1 of others" (Ibid: 362). This happens where immigrant children enter school and are taught in the language of the host country. As Brown (2001, p. 121) observes, students in these programs are "submerged" in regular content-area classes with no special foreign language instruction, assuming that they will "absorb" English as they focus on the subject matter. However, research has shown that in many instances students succeed neither in the L2 nor in the content areas.

10.11. SHELTERED INSTRUCTION

The purpose of sheltered instruction (SI) is to deliver grade level subject matter content (Language Arts, Math, Science, Social Studies, Health, PE, and Art) in a manner that is accessible to all learners. In SI classes,

delivered by a core teacher, students receive comprehensible core content instruction throughout the day. The content is from grade-level curricula taught using instructional strategies that scaffold the content learning by building background knowledge and through the use of visuals, gestures, manipulative, paraphrasing, etc. Lessons have clear grade level, content, and language objectives (Brown, 2001; Johnson and Johnson, 1999; Johnson and Swain, 1997; Richards et al., 1992).

According to Snow (2001), sheltered programs exist in a variety of secondary and post-secondary settings. In these programs there is a deliberate attempt to separate L2 students from native speakers of the TL for the purpose of content instruction. The first sheltered program was established in a postsecondary setting at the University of Ottawa in 1982 in Canada. Based on this program, instead of taking a traditional L2 course, students could opt to take a content course such as Introduction to Psychology conducted in a L2. All instruction was given in a L2 by content faculty members who adjusted their instruction to an audience of L2 students. At the beginning of each content lecture, there were some language instructors who, during some short sessions, provided students with useful expressions such as polite ways of interrupting the professor to seek clarification. Apart from these short meetings, there were no separate L2 courses (Snow, 2001).

At the end of this sheltered psychology program, the language proficiency of the students was measured. Comparisons of these students with the students who had attended traditional ESL classes revealed that there was no significant difference in language proficiency gains of the two groups, despite the fact that sheltered students had not been *taught* the L2. "In addition to their gains in L2 proficiency, the sheltered students demonstrated mastery of the content course material at the same levels as did comparison students enrolled in regular native speaker sections of psychology" (Snow, 2001, p. 308). Moreover, it was reported that these shelter students had greater self-confidence in using their L2 skills as a result of active participation in sheltered classes. Moreover, Sheltered English is an instructional approach used to make academic instruction in English understandable to LEP students. Students in these classes are "sheltered" in that they do not compete academically with native English speakers since the class includes only LEP students. In the regular classroom, English fluency is assumed. In contrast, in the sheltered English classroom, teachers use physical activities, visual aids, and the environment to teach important new words for concept development in mathematics, science, history, home economics, and other subjects (National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education, 1987).

Sheltered English programs may be either bilingual or monolingual, but English instruction is the key element in both. Sheltered English instruction includes a variety of techniques to help regular classroom teachers make content-area material comprehensible for ESL students who already have some English proficiency. The programs may include a primary language instruction component. Sheltered English programs have proven successful in the development of academic competence in LEP students because such programs concentrate on the simultaneous development of content-area and ESL proficiency (National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education, 1987).

10.11.1. The Adjunct Model

There are several types of content-based instructional models. However, researchers such as Snow and Brinton (1988) have identified one model, in particular, as an "ideal" choice for an EAP setting, where ESL students are matriculated into the mainstream academic community: the adjunct model. This model "introduces students to L2 academic discourse and develops transferable academic skills." Additionally, equal attention is given to mastery of both language and content. That is, ESL students should at least attain a strong enough grasp on the material in order to pass both classes. Achieving such mastery involves linking or pairing language courses with content courses. The students are enrolled concurrently in a content class (e.g., sociology, psychology) and an ESL class. The content class provides the students with the content, and the language class provides the students with the language skills support needed for the students to be successful in the content class (Andrade and Makaafi, 2001). The language skills are developed through the content of the content course.

There are several features specific to the adjunct model which makes it a beneficial environment for matriculated ESL students. According to Snow (2001), adjunct models are appropriate for secondary schools, colleges, and universities, where the language proficiency of the students is intermediate to advance. The higher language proficiency levels are necessary because of the high degree of "linguistic and conceptual complexity" that is present in the subject matter. The proficiency level of matriculated ESL students must be high enough to be able to manage, with assistance, the readings and lectures that are presented within the content course (Snow and Brinton, 1988).

Another feature of this model involves integrating both non-native English speakers together with native English speakers for content instruction.

This can easily be managed as matriculated ESL students are already taking content classes. Further, students participating in this instructional format develop transferable academic skills as they are introduced to "general academic discourse" (Snow, 2001). Other additional features of the adjunct model that make it suitable for an EAP setting are the availability of content classes in a college or university setting and the opportunity of earning academic credit for both the content course and the ESL course (Snow and Brinton, 1988). There are several features that define the adjunct model, setting it apart from other content-based instructional models. The following discussion will provide a description of these features as well an outline of what role they play in the adjunct model.

10.11.2. Instructor Roles

One of the defining features of the adjunct model is that there are usually two instructors involved: one in each course. This is because the setup typically involves both a content and ESL course. The role of each instructor is an important feature of this model (Snow and Brinton, 1988). The two instructors assume two different roles, one as content instructor and one as language instructor. The role of the content instructor is to provide instruction in the content area (Andrade and Makaafi, 2001). In the same manner, the role of the adjunct ESL instructor is to provide the language instruction for EL development (Snow and Brinton, 1988). Although the ESL instructor and content instructor are responsible for teaching their respective disciplines, Kasper (1994) recommends that the two teachers frequently attend each other's classes. This benefits the content area teacher, as attendance in ESL classes exposes the content teacher to a variety of instructional techniques. It also raises awareness to the specific problems of ESL students as well as effective solutions on handling these problems.

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Chapter 11

Reconstructionism

CONTENTS

11.1. OVERVIEW

In recent years, a variety of Progressive perspective has emerged under the name of "Reconstructionism," and this new catharsis is designed to reform the reformism of Progressive education by capitalizing on its achievements while subjecting it at the same time to a severe criticism for its failures. The *reconstructionist* would appear to direct the chief facet of his criticism to the fact that progressivism has been forced to compromise with some part of its original promise. Reconstructionism proposes to characterize progressivism as an educational philosophy of cultural transition and in this guise to represent itself as the philosophy of the future. Reconstructionism is, however, not a new philosophy, but a variety of progressivist self-criticism in which an imaginative and utopian future state of affairs is taken as the criterion for evaluating both progressivism and its chief rivals, Essentialism and *Perennialism* (Mosier, 1952).

11.2. PROGRESSIVISM

The essentialist criticism of progressivism is directed mainly at the lack of a logically organized subject matter in the progressivist curriculum, and in particular at the neglect of essentials, like reading, writing, and arithmetic, which the early enthusiasm of the progressivist for problematic situations caused him to neglect or at least to omit the systematic form. Hence the essentialist critique of progressive education is directed mainly at the subjectivity of the progressivist curriculum (Mosier, 1952). Progressivism in education is said to be sound so far as it goes, but it does not go far enough. Progressivism, like liberalism as a whole, is naturalistic and evolutionary but lacks positive convictions and a clear perception of goals. Reconstruction in education may be understood as a first attempt to overcome the deficiency of progressivism, and may be defined as progressivism with a purpose (Bidney, 1958).

Brameld (1965, cited in Burns, 1965) characterizes progressivism-the "liberal" view as a philosophy of transition between an individualistic capitalism and an emerging socialist order. Although he is sympathetic toward its emphasis upon scientific method, active intelligence, tolerance, and freedom from dogmatism, he finds it too individualistic, vacillating, pluralistic; too "psychological" rather than "sociological" in its approach; prone to exalt means at the expense of ends; unable to provide an adequate program for the reconstruction of culture (Rader, 1951).

11.3. RECONSTRUCTIONISM

Brameld (1965, cited in Burns, 1965) defines reconstructionism is a philosophy concerned with bringing about social change through the educational system. The philosophy of reconstructionism was brought to the forefront by two scholars-George S. Counts and Theodore Brameld. Both scholars had their ideas on how reconstructionism affects society and the educational system. Counts sought to awaken educators to their strategic position in social and cultural reconstruction. Count's central message was that although education had been used historically as a means of introducing people to their cultural traditions, social, and cultural conditions were so altered by modern science, technology, and industrialization that education now must be used as a positive force for establishing new cultural patterns and for eliminating social evils. Counts argued that educators should give up their comfortable role of being supporters of the status quo and take on the more difficult tasks of social reformers. Counts argued that every generation must reconstruct its own educational philosophy. If this did not happen, the extant educational philosophies would become outmoded in the wake of social change. Social values and institutions did not remain static, thus educational philosophies too must be reconstructed to maintain their relevance. Counts also believed that education, because of the central role it played in the transmission of the culture, was uniquely suited to help promote the necessary reconstruction of the larger society (Bazile, 2004).

Theodore Brameld (1965, cited in Burns, 1965) was the most influential person in building reconstructionism into a more fully developed philosophy of education. Brameld viewed reconstructionism as a crisis philosophy, not only in terms of education but in terms of culture, as well. He saw humanity at the crossroads: One road led to destruction, and the other to salvation only if people make the effort. Above all, he saw reconstructionism as a philosophy of values, ends, and purposes. Brameld maintained that our society faced serious economic and cultural crises and that the schools could use a reconstructionist curriculum to help bring about the social change necessary to create a better social order. Brameld urged that the school curriculum be changed to give more attention to the interests of those students who will not go on to college and the profession (Bazile, 2004).

In delineating reconstructionism, Brameld depicts reality as historical and cultural process, truth as consensual validation, and value as social self-realization. The heart of reconstructionism is orientation toward future goal-seeking "utopianism" -not a flight from reality, but "a far-reaching

idealization of human potentialities." He envisages a worldwide, humanity-wide community of common man without distinction of race, nation, or religion. Education is for the democratic and moral society served by technology; the compassionate, dignified, and freeman; and for a diversified but convergent culture. Among the means for reaching these goals are a curriculum gestalt stressing behavioral sciences and humanized methods with sufficient social discipline and social interactiveness. Reconstructionism conceives the school as social vanguard, and teachers as leaders on the cultural frontier. Reconstructionism may suffer from epistemological incompleteness, ontological ambiguity, and indefinite axiological criteria. It may also be unintentionally prone to underemphasize the independent individual, "means," and the present, while compassionately seeking the future purposeful life unity of mankind. However, reconstructionism indeed merits careful study. Reconstructionism, the dynamic, eclectic, constructive, fresh, and convergent theory confronting time and the world and ex: tending beyond the here-and-now, is a philosophy of education belonging to the great aspects of protest, promise, and progress. Brameld tries earnestly "to point toward the hope and the goal? if a transcending, converging mankind." His ideas, efforts, and sincerity are most inspirational (Bidney, 1958).

The heart of Brameld's philosophy is Utopianism-not a flight from reality, but "a far-reaching idealization of human, especially social possibilities." He envisages "an earth-wide, humanity-wide order," essentially social and democratic. In delineating the philosophical basis of such a reconstructed culture, he depicts reality as historical process, truth as social consensus, value as social self-realization, and democracy as a community of persuasion. Especially admirable is the combination of vision and imaginative audacity with a realistic grasp of human wants and specific normative blueprints. Reconstructionism conceives the school as social vanguard whose guiding principle is the renascence of modern culture. Brameld distinguishes between such "defensible partiality" and indoctrination: goals are not to be imposed but are to emerge out of research into basic human wants and needs, democratic group discussion, and widest community participation (Rader, 1951).

The main proponents of reconstructionism (George Counts, Theodore Brameld, and Harold Rugg) emphasized the societal role of schools. For them, progressivism was too one-sided in its interest in the individual; with democracy as their reference point, they saw the mission of schools as one of asking with children critical questions about the on-going development of society (Englund, 2000).

The philosophy of reconstructionism contains two major premises: 1) Society is in need of constant reconstruction or change, and 2) such social change involves a reconstruction of education and the use of education in reconstructing society. This school or philosophy of thought has impacted the educational system in a major way. Reconstructionists believe that education should be a method of changing the world. When issues arise, they are brought to education so that it can be addressed and ultimately changed. Reconstructionism emphasizes the need for change. The idea of promoting change is based on the notion that individuals and society can be made better. Reconstructionism is more concerned with the broad social and cultural fabric in which humans exist (Dreyer, 2008). Reconstructionists believe that we can and should use the public schools to help reconstruct society in such a way as to resolve our social and cultural crises. They believe that education in schools must be directed toward humane goals that result in better social consequences for all (Ramos, 2007).

Reconstructionists are critical of most methods currently used in all levels of schooling. This is because the old methods reinforce traditional values and attitudes underlying the status quo. Reconstructionists favor students getting out as much as possible into society, where they can learn and apply learning (Ramos, 2007). One issue that reconstructionists believe have been addressed in education is the "melting pot" in public schools. They favor a world curriculum where students are aware of what is going on in the world. Schools are giving much attention to the variety of cultures in society. Reconstructions would encourage the learning of language and the cultures of other people. They also would encourage reading the literature of other cultures, as well as newspapers and magazines that deal with issues on a worldwide basis. They believe that if an issue arises, then it should be addressed through education. For example, if people needed health care, then that issue should be addressed in the educational system (Bazile, 2004).

11.4. SOCIAL RECONSTRUCTIONISM

Social reconstructionism is a philosophy that emphasizes the addressing of social questions and a quest to create a better society and worldwide democracy. Reconstructionist educators focus on a curriculum that highlights social reform as the aim of education. Theodore Brameld (1904–1987) was the founder of social reconstructionism, in reaction against the realities of World War II. He recognized the potential for either human annihilation through technology and human cruelty or the capacity to create a beneficent

society using technology and human compassion. George Counts (1889–1974) recognized that education was the means of preparing people for creating this new social order (Burns, 1965; Akman, 2008).

For social reconstructionists, curriculum focuses on student experience and taking social action on real problems, such as violence, hunger, international terrorism, inflation, and inequality. Strategies for dealing with controversial issues (particularly in social studies and literature), inquiry, dialog, and multiple perspectives are the focus. Community-based learning and bringing the world into the classroom are also strategies (Akman, 2008). Social Reconstructionism Social reconstructionists, such as Harold Rugg, George Counts, and Theodore Brameld, were interested in the relationship between the school curriculum and the political, social, and economic development of society. They wanted students to learn to identify problems, methods, needs, and goals and to implement aggressive strategies for effecting change. Literacy campaigns that have contributed to successful political revolutions are examples of how education can bring about social change. Teachers play a critical role in a social reconstructionist curriculum. They must believe in the concept of reconstructionism and be able to help their students relate academic and personal goals to world, national, and local purposes. Students then use their interests to help find solutions to the social problems studied in class. The teacher emphasizes group learning experiences and cooperation with the community and its resources and requires projects that demand interdependence and social consensus (Reed and Davis, 1999). The concept of social reconstructionism, on the other hand, allows urban students to combine the attributes of being involved in meaningful transformative service learning with the attributes of self-efficacy and personal responsibility (Frye and Davis, 1999).

11.5. IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

There are three salient features of a social reconstructionist program for students. First, the teacher was knowledgeable about and an advocate for service learning and social reconstructionism. Second, the teacher understood and cared about the problems and issues that confronted her urban students. Third, the teacher had the skills and abilities needed to guide her students through analyzing a problem, developing an action plan, implementing the plan, and evaluating the results (Frye and Davis, 1999). Teachers must display the three salient features: they must become knowledgeable about the tenets of social reconstructionism, about the problems confronting students, and

about methods and procedures used to guide students to solve social problem (Frye and Davis, 1999). On the other hand, "the great cultural diversity of urban schools-so often cited as an excuse for failure-could be turned into a tremendous asset, producing future generations of multilingual, culturally savvy citizens who are able to function competently in a global economy" (Lewis, 1996, as cited in Frye and Davis, 1999). Clark (1987) enumerates the characteristics of "reconstructivism" as given in subsections.

11.5.1. Education

Education is seen as a means of redressing the injustices of birth and of early upbringing. It is based on egalitarian force, i.e., comprehensive schooling, mixed-ability classes, and a common core curriculum for all.

11.5.2. Teacher

They were seen as managers rather than instructors. A student's aptitude should not be viewed as the factor determining the level to which he can learn but is more accurately defined as determining the amount of time he requires to learn a particular behavior to a given level in ideal conditions. In a reconstructive curriculum, teachers have the following roles:"

- Shaper of a new society;
- Transformational leader;
- Reform agent;
- Tolerant of ambiguities;
- Comfortable with changes;
- Strategic planner;
- Evaluator.

11.5.3. Learner

Human beings must be seen as persons, as purposive agents, to be valued as equals. There should be equality of opportunity. Learners are skilled performers. The learner had to learn to budget their time to cover all the tasks in the various subjects they were studying. Learners learnt by themselves.

11.5.4. Emphasis

The emphasis is on the promotion of an ability to communicate, and thus achieve a better understanding and unity among groups and nations.

11.5.5. Curriculum Design

It is objectives-driven and founded on the behavioral outcomes that are to be worked towards. In curriculum design, reconstructionist values have given rise to what is termed 'ends-means' approach, and in the classroom to 'mastery learning' techniques. A strictly linear view of curriculum development. Objectives were identified both with the kind of behavior to be developed in the student and the content or area of life in which this behavior is to operate. The methodology places great emphasis on deliberate practice of part-skills and eventual rehearsal of global end-objectives.

11.5.6. Assessment

Assessment is through a criterion-referenced tests designed to determine to what extent pre-specified learning outcomes had been achieved at the end of a course + a formative assessment conducted regularly during the course.

11.5.7. Criticisms

- Reconstructivism underemphasizes the "means" and "the present," while compassionately seeking the future purposeful life unity of mankind, utopianism (Burns, 1965).
- The central problem in social reconstructivism is axiological: How are we to ascertain our ends and means? What is the nature of ends and means relationship? (Burns, 1965).
- It can be argued that mastery learning which sets out to bring about an equalization of achievement implies inequality of opportunity, since the high flyers are to be held back until the lower achievers catch up with them (Clark, 1987).
- Regular tests may create anxiety, particularly among those who usually need remedial work afterwards (Clark, 1987).
- The emphasis on outcomes of learning rather than on the process has also been criticized.

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Chapter 12

Project-Based Instruction: Merits, Demerits

CONTENTS

12.1. OVERVIEW

A review of the early studies of project-based instruction reveals that it was first used by David Sneden, as cited in Beckett (2002) to teach science in United States vocational agriculture classes. It was later developed as an educational approach to K-12 education by Kilpatrick (1918), who believed that using literacy in meaningful contexts would provide a means for *building background knowledge* and for *achieving personal growth*. Unlike those who later advocated models of *collaborative learning*, Kilpatrick was more interested in *cognitive development* that resulted from project work rather than the group aspects of learning. He intended that topic come from students' interests, maintaining that group projects, proposed, planned, executed, and evaluated by students, would help learners develop an understanding of their lives while preparing to work within a democracy. Although Kilpatrick imagined that projects should be driven by learner questions, in practice, many teachers assign topics Wrigley (1998), a practice that runs counter to the spirit of student-generated projects that he had in mind.

Beckett (2002) mentions that project-based instruction was introduced into L2 education in response to perceived inadequacies in Krashen's (1981) input hypothesis. Swain's study, Beckett (2002) adds, showed that years of comprehensible input did not enable her participants to achieve native-like competence in French, and this led her to propose that L2 learners need to produce comprehensible output through meaningful interaction with native speakers. In order to produce comprehensible output, Swain concluded that students needed a variety of communicative opportunities where they could engage in meaningful negotiation and interaction with native speakers in French cultural settings. This change in perspective was evidenced in the popularity of Brumfit's (1984) project-based CLT methodology. Hence project-based instruction has been applied to provide L2 learners with opportunities to interact and communicate with each other and with native speakers of the TL in /.

Beckett and Slater (2005) note that project-based instruction was introduced into English as a second language (ESL) education as one way to reflect the *principles of student-centered teaching* (Hedge, 1993). Organizing projects is seen as an effective way to teach *language and content* simultaneously (Stoller, 1997), in that the use of projects 'establishes a direct link between LL and its application' (Legutke and Thomas, 1991, p. 214), as well as to create opportunities which allow ESL learners to develop their abilities in the TL by *interacting and communicating with each other*

and with native English speakers (e.g., Fried-Booth, 2002). Beckett (1999) found that teachers reported having various goals for implementing projects in their ESL classrooms, such as challenging students 'creativity; fostering independence; enhancing cooperative learning skills; building decision-making, critical thinking, and learning skills; and facilitating the language socialization of ESL students into local academic and social cultures.

A review of the literature on project-based instruction indicates that in subject areas, the goals of project-based instruction are *subject matter learning* and the *acquisition of skills* such as problem-solving, critical thinking, and cooperative learning (Guo, 2007). In ESL education, however, project work has *focused more narrowly on language or on the practice of listening to and speaking English* (Fried-Booth, 1986). Few scholars explicitly connect the development of skills and content knowledge with the importance of language/discourse (Beckett and Slater, 2005).

Project-based learning aims to engage students in *the investigation of real-life problems* and develop students' creativity, problem-solving, and lifelong learning (Barron, 1998; Breault and Breault, 2005; Blumenfeld et al., 1991). It addresses the *learning of language, skills, and content simultaneously*. A project, is defined as "a long-term (several weeks) activity that involves a variety of individual or cooperative tasks such as developing a research plan and questions, and implementing the plan through empirical or document research that includes collecting, analyzing, and reporting data orally and/or in writing" (Beckett, 2002, p. 54).

12.2. BASIC TENANTS

Project work involves *multi-skill activities* which focus on a theme of interest rather than specific language tasks (Haines, 1989). In project work, students work together to achieve a common purpose, a concrete outcome (e.g., a brochure, a written report, a bulletin board display, a video, an article for a school newspaper, etc.). Project-based learning functions as a *bridge between using English in class and using English in real life situations outside of class* (Fried-Booth, 1997). It does this by placing learners in situations that require authentic use of language in order to communicate (e.g., being part of a team or interviewing others). When learners work in pairs or in teams, they find they need skills to plan, organize, negotiate, make their points, and arrive at a consensus about issues such as what tasks to perform, who will be responsible for each task, and how information will be researched and presented.

These skills have been identified by learners as important for living successful lives (Stein, 1995) and by employers as necessary in a high-performance workplace (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991). Because of the collaborative nature of project work, the development of these skills occurs even among learners at low levels of language proficiency. Within the group work integral to projects, individuals' strengths, and preferred ways of learning (e.g., by reading, writing, listening, or speaking) strengthen the work of the team as a whole (Lawrence, 1997).

The professors also reported that their students might resist such a mode of learning for a number of reasons. Project-based learning *challenged the traditional view of learning* and their students might not value it; students might consider it *as not a serious teaching*. Many students study English for examinations, and they believe it is more efficient to get the right answer from the teacher or the textbook than doing a project. Professors also mentioned other reasons such as their need for further professional development, the limited resources, and the big class size.

Eyring (1989) offered a very different report from a study comparing a project class and two non-project classes. According to Eyring, the students from the project class planned their own projects, conducted library research, talked to native English speakers, synthesized their data, and presented their findings, but they appeared to be *dissatisfied with the project approach to learning ESL because they did not seem to think that these tasks were worthwhile pursuits in ESL classes.* In her study of secondary school ESL students, Beckett (1999) found that fewer than one fifth of the 73 participants enjoyed project work or were in favor of project-based instruction. One quarter of the students had mixed feelings, and the remaining 57% perceived it negatively, stating that the activity distracted them from learning what they felt they needed to know to advance their education, particularly English grammar, and vocabulary. In their report of a 16-week 'Capstone Project,' which focused on integrating the research, writing, and presentation skills needed for academic success with ESL language development, Moulton and Holmes (2000, p. 28) observed that although the students who completed the course reported that they had benefited from project-based instruction, the completion rate for the course was low. According to the authors, the high drop-out rate existed because some students found the course too difficult, whereas others 'withdrew because they believed ESL classes should be limited to the study of language and they resented being asked to accomplish non-linguistic tasks.' The reasons for student dissatisfaction with project-based instruction in ESL classes are complex, reflecting potentially

different philosophical, cultural, and linguistic beliefs held by students and teachers (Beckett, 1999). One reason that may account for some ESL students' dissatisfaction is a belief that an ESL class is for learning language components, such as vocabulary, grammar, speaking, and writing, rather than for building skills in such areas as research and cooperative work.

The significance of the above discussion is that there is a *need to realize that ESL teachers and students may have different beliefs about the purpose of ESL classes, and have different goals for student learning in general, and for project-based instruction in particular.* Teachers must be aware that such differences in goals and beliefs may cause conflicts, and thus need to be managed before project work can be successful. Otherwise, despite the excellent tasks and methods teachers implement to achieve valuable educational goals, the ideas may fail because the learners do not see the value in the tasks. Thomas (2000) cites a number of experimental studies and accordingly discuss the problems and challenges involved in the process.

12.2.1. Challenges Encountered by Students

Referring to a study conducted by Krajcik, Blumenfeld, Marx, Bass, Fredricks, and Soloway (1998), he concludes that Results were described with respect to aspects of the inquiry process that students handled adequately and those with which students had difficulty. Students showed proficiency at generating plans and carrying out procedures. However, students had difficulty (a) generating meaningful scientific questions, (b) managing complexity and time, (c) transforming data, and (d) developing a logical argument to support claims. More specifically, students tended to pursue questions without examining the merits of the question, they tended to pursue questions that were based on personal preference rather than questions that were warranted by the scientific content of the project, they had difficulty understanding the concept of controlled environments, they created research designs that were inadequate given their research questions, they developed incomplete plans for data collection, they often failed to carry out their plans systematically, they tended to present data and state conclusions without describing the link between the two, and they often did not use all of their data in drawing conclusions. The findings point to the need for developing multiple supports for students as they conduct their inquiry. According to the authors, "We need to consider a range of scaffolds from teachers, peers, and technology that can aid students in examining the scientific worth of their questions, the merits of their designs and data collection plans, the adequacy and systematicity of their conduct of

the investigation, and the accuracy of their data analysis and conclusions." (p. 348). Similarly, Edelson, Gordon, and Pea (1999) report challenges associated with secondary students' ability to conduct systematic inquiry activities in high school science. One challenge is sustaining motivation for inquiry. Students often failed to participate or participated in a disengaged manner. Second, students were sometimes not able to access the technology necessary to conduct the investigation; i.e., they were not able to do the work. Third, students often lacked the background knowledge necessary to make sense of the inquiry. Fourth, students were often unable to manage extended inquiry activities.

Another study by Achilles and Hoover (1996) reported poor implementation results for three middle schools and one high school classroom taking part in problem-based learning (PBL). Students failed to work together well, especially in small groups. The authors attribute these problems to students' lack of social skills. It is difficult, however, to evaluate the meaning of this study. A minimum of data is presented and, more important perhaps, the design of the project consisted of a highly scripted, problem-solving activity which may have accounted for students' desultory participation.

12.2.2. Challenges Encountered by Teachers

Thomas also cites a study done by Ladewski, Krajcik, and Harvey (1991) who reports that the results from this case study demonstrate how new instructional approaches can conflict with deep-seated beliefs on the part of a teacher, leading to conflicts which can take a good deal of time to resolve. Among the dilemmas that seemed to interfere with a straightforward implementation of PBL in this study are the following: (a) Should time be most effectively used to allow students to pursue their own investigations or to cover the state-prescribed curriculum? (b) Should activities be designed to allow students to seek their own answers or be teacher-controlled so that (all) students obtain the same "correct" results? (c) Should students be given the responsibility for guiding their own learning or should the (more knowledgeable) teacher take responsibility for directing activities and disseminating information in the classroom?

In a companion paper to the papers cited above (Marx et al., 1991) and in a more recent summary of their research (Marx et al., 1997), the University of Michigan research team describes the common problems faced by teachers as they attempt to enact problem-based science. Marx et al. (1991) summarized

their findings under three headings: challenges, enactment, and change. Challenges grew out of difficulties teachers had in accepting the ideas that (a) effective collaboration among students requires more than involvement, it requires exchanging ideas and negotiating meaning; (b) effective use of technology requires that technology be used as a cognitive tool, not merely as an instructional aid; and (c) effective Project-Based Science requires not that all the concepts and facts of the curriculum are covered, but that students construct their own understanding by pursuing a driving question. Marx et al. (1997) summarize teachers' enactment problems as follows:

- **Time:** Projects often take longer than anticipated. In addition, difficulties that teachers experience in incorporating Project-Based Science into district guidelines are exacerbated by the time necessary to implement in-depth approaches such as Project-Based Learning.

- **Classroom Management:** In order for students to work productively, teachers must balance the need to allow students to work on their own with the need to maintain order.

- **Control:** Teachers often feel the need to control the flow of information while at the same time believing that students' understanding requires that they build their own understanding.

- **Support of Student Learning:** Teachers have difficulty scaffolding students' activities, sometimes giving them too much independence or too little modeling and feedback.

- **Technology Use:** Teachers have difficulty incorporating technology into the classroom, especially as a cognitive tool.

- **Assessment:** Teachers have difficulty designing assessments that require students to demonstrate their understanding.

Finally, the researchers concluded that change in teachers' learning and behavior tends to take certain forms (Marx et al., 1991, 1997). Teachers prefer to explore those aspects of Project-Based Science related to their professional needs and current capabilities (e.g., technology). Teachers' efforts to change their teaching strategies tend to focus on one or two aspects of the new approach (only) and one or two new strategies designed to cope with new challenges. Teachers tend to modify their practices in idiosyncratic ways, mapping new behaviors onto old behaviors and moving back and forth between old and new practices, sometimes successfully, sometimes not so successfully. In addition, modifying their practices causes teachers to become novices again, which often results in awkward classroom

management behaviors and shortcomings associated with orchestrating the multiple features of problem-based science. The authors conclude, however, that problems with enactment can be effectively facilitated by a supportive school environment that allows teachers to reflect on their practices and to attempt changes in these practices through enactment linked with collaboration and feedback.

12.2.3. Challenges Associated with Institution

Edelson et al. (1999) describe a number of practical constraints associated with the organization of institutions that interfere with successful inquiry. These factors include fixed and inadequate resources, inflexible schedules, and incompatible technology. To this list, Blumenfield, Krajcik, Marx, and Soloway (1994) add class size and composition, and district curricular policy as restrictions that interfered with the enactment of Project-Based Learning. According to Hertzog (1994), the physical organization of the school, limitations on time available for learning, and the perceived need on the part of teachers to structure time in order to cover all academic subjects tend to interfere with the effectiveness of Project-Based Learning for integrating subject matter areas and providing for in-depth learning.

12.3. CONCLUSION

Despite its many benefits, project-based learning in adult literacy should not be an end in itself, given the multiple goals and multiple learning needs of adults. It is perhaps best integrated into a comprehensive curriculum that allows for individual skill development as part of these group initiatives. Probably, as attested by Wrigly (1998), we should await further research that can capture the many dimensions of learning that project-based learning addresses and shed light on the vague issues related to the application of project-based language instruction.

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Chapter 13

Future Trends in Language Teaching Methodologies

CONTENTS

13.1. OVERVIEW

A brief look at our past, and the context in which LT arose, establishes the necessity for us to look at our context today and ask ourselves how similar forces of political, economic, cultural, and social changes may be finding reflection in our classroom practices, something which we may not otherwise be aware of. The question is an important one, because it will be important for us to see what was and is happening in language education is paving the way for what will be happening. The initiative for changing programs and pedagogy may come from within the profession-from teachers, administrators, theoreticians, and researchers. Given the results of the changes in globalization, employment, and technology, the key concept that should motivate TESOL professionals' understanding of English teaching in the 21st century is that L2 speakers of English will use the language less as an object of foreign study and more as an additional language of their own to have an impact on and change the world. LT introduced itself as a profession in the 20th century. Central to it was the emergence of the concept of "methods" of LT. The method concept in LT-the notion of a systematic set of teaching practices based on a particular theory of language and LL (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 20)-is a powerful one, and the search for better methods was a preoccupation of both teachers and applied linguists throughout the 20th century (Rodgers, 2001). During its rather short life span, the profession has witnessed tremendous changes, including shifts in underlying theories of language and LL, and pertinent consequential changes in stated objectives, syllabus specifications, types of activities, roles of teachers, learners, materials, and so forth. How do we feel the LT profession will move ahead in the near, or even in a more distant future? Discussing the future of anything is always challenging, and that of the LT is a particular one. We may be conservatively tempted to assume that things will carry on much as they have in the past and that the future will be recognizable from clues in the present (Rodgers, 2001). Alternatively, we may be tempted to predict a science-fiction future in which the future is nothing like the present (Rodgers, 2001). This chapter is an attempt to better characterize the possible forces behind the *potential future of ELT* and the possible path it might take.

13.2. PROPHESYING NEXT

Richards and Rodgers (2001) have identified some of the factors that have had influenced LT trends in the past and that can be expected to continue to do so in the future. These factors are:

- **Government Policy Directives:** Increased demands for accountability on the part of both funding agencies and governments have paved the way for educational changes in the past and will be doing so in the future (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 253).

- **Trends in the Profession:** Professional certification for teachers and endorsement of special trends or approaches by professional organizations can have an important impact on the teaching profession (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 253).

- **Guru-Led Innovations:** As teaching has been described as artistry rather science and is shaped by the influence of powerful individual practitioners such as Gattegno, Lozanov, and the like of them in the past, so new gurus will shape teaching practices in the future (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 253).

- **Responses to Technology:** The potential of the Internet, the computer interfaces, and other technological innovations such as the booming cell phone industry is likely to shape the future of the teaching profession and influence both its content and the form of the instructional deliver (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 253).

- **Influence from Academic Disciplines:** As new theories and insights emerge in disciplines such as linguistics, psychology, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and other interdisciplinary branches of science, they are likely to have their related impacts on future theories of teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 253).

- **Research Influences:** L2 teaching and learning is increasingly a field for intensive research and theorizing and has provided the researchers with the impetus for further research (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 253).

- **Learner-based Innovations:** Learner-based focuses such as individualized instruction, the learner-centered curriculum, learner training, learner strategies, and MI recur in LT and the trend is anticipated to be continued (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 254).

- **Crossover Educational Trends:** Crossover movements from general education into L2 teaching such as cooperative learning, the whole language approach, neurolinguistic programming, and

MI continue since the field of LT does not exercise monopoly over theories of teaching and learning (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 254).

- **Crossovers from Other Disciplines:** Crossover movements from other disciplines such as cognitive psychology, psychotherapy, communication science, to name a few, have left their imprint on language pedagogy and seems to continue to do so in the future (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 254).

13.3. NEXT PHASES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGY

The future is almost never certain, and this is true in foreseeing methodological directions in L2 teaching as well. Rodgers (2001) outlined 10 scenarios which he thinks are likely to shape the teaching of L2 in the next decades of the new millennium:

1.   **Teacher/Learner Collaborates:** Matchmaking techniques will be developed which will link learners and teachers with similar styles and approaches to LL. Considering various Teacher and Learner roles, one can anticipate the development of a system in which the preferential ways in which teachers teach and learners learn can be matched in instructional settings, perhaps via online computer networks or other technological resources (Rodgers, 2001). If such matchmaking becomes theoretically viable, a major challenge for the future will be how to put such information into practice in ELT classes. This problem challenges other notions of how individual differences in learning and teaching can be analyzed and accommodated (Rodgers, 2001).

2.   **Method Synergistics:** Crossbreeding elements from various methods into a common program of instruction seems an appropriate way to find those practices which best support effective learning. It seems reasonable to combine practices from different approaches and methods where the philosophical foundations are similar through an approach called "Disciplined Eclecticism" (Rodgers, 2001).

3.   **Curriculum Developmentalism:** LT has not profited much from more general views of educational design. The curriculum perspective comes from general education and views successful

instruction as an interweaving of Knowledge, Instructional, Learner, and administrative considerations as follows:

i. **Knowledge Considerations:** In language education, knowledge considerations involve the input/output assumptions about what language is, as well as specification of the content-the topical range of the instructional language examples or texts presented and the student responses anticipated (Rodgers, 2001).

ii. **Instructional Considerations:** These reflect the input of teachers and other staff involved with instruction. They also include methods, materials, programs, technologies, and educational environments, as well as time and scheduling techniques and plans for reporting on learning progress to all stakeholders (Rodgers, 2001).

iii. **Learner Considerations:** These involve the ages, proficiency levels, and developmental stages of the learner or learners. Considerations include societal expectations and learners' self-perceptions, prior learning experiences, and preferred learning styles, strategies, environments, and groupings (Rodgers, 2001).

iv. **Administrative Considerations:** These comprise the choice of instructional models and the scale, pace, and style of educational delivery. Plans for and execution of teacher and learner selection, evaluation, and promotion, as well as environmental development and institutional image, are also administrative considerations (Rodgers, 2001).

Successful educational program design and delivery demands successful integration of all four sets of considerations rather than a dominance by anyone set. From this perspective, methodology is viewed as only one of several instructional considerations that are realized in conjunction with all other curricular considerations (Rodgers, 2001).

4. **Content-Basics:** CBI assumes that LL is a by-product of focus on meaning and that content topics to support LL should be chosen to best match learner needs and interests and to promote optimal development of L2 competence (Rodgers, 2001). A critical question for language educators is "what content" and "how much content" best supports LL. The natural content for language educators is literature and language itself, and we are beginning to see a resurgence of interest in literature and in the

topic of "language: the basic human technology" as sources of content in LT (Rodgers, 2001).

5.   **Multintelligencia:** The notion of MI view of human talents proposed by Howard Gardner (1983, as cited in Christison, 1996). This model is one of a variety of learning style models that proposed 8 native intelligences and indicates classroom language-rich task types that play to each of these particular intelligences. The challenge here is to identify these intelligences in individual learners and then to determine appropriate and realistic instructional tasks in response (Rodgers, 2001).

6.   **Total Functional Response:** As CLT was founded on earlier notional/functional proposals for the description of languages, new leads in discourse and genre analysis, schema theory, pragmatics, and systemic/functional grammar are rekindling an interest in functionally based approaches to LT as well (Rodgers, 2001). Refinement of functional models will lead to increased attention to genre and text types in both first and L2 instruction (Rodgers, 2001).

7.   **Strategopedia:** "Learning to Learn" is the key theme in an instructional focus on LL strategies. Research findings suggest that strategies can indeed be taught to language learners, that learners will apply these strategies in LL tasks, and that such application does produce significant gains in LL. Simple and yet highly effective strategies will attract considerable instructional interest in Strategopedia (Rodgers, 2001).

8.   **Lexical Phraseology:** This view holds that only "a minority of spoken clauses are entirely novel creations" and that "memorized clauses and clause-sequences form a high proportion of the fluent stretches of speech heard in everyday conversation" (Rodgers, 2001). For language teachers, the results of such views have led to conclusions that LT should center on these memorized lexical patterns and collocations and the ways they can be pieced together, along with the ways they vary and the situations in which they occur (Rodgers, 2001).

9.   **O-Zone Whole Language:** Renewed interest in some type of "Focus on Form" proposals in SLA research, variously labeled as consciousness-raising, noticing, attending, and enhancing input, are founded on the assumption that students will learn only what

they are aware of. Whole Language proponents have claimed that one way to increase learner awareness of how language works is through a course of study that incorporates broader engagement with language, including literary study, process writing, authentic content, and learner collaboration (Rodgers, 2001).

10. **Full-Frontal Communicativity:** We know that the linguistic part of human communication represents only a small fraction of total meaning. LT should not restrict its attention to the linguistic component of human communication. The methodological proposal is to provide instructional focus on the non-linguistic aspects of communication, including rhythm, speed, pitch, intonation, tone, and hesitation phenomena in speech and gesture, facial expression, posture, and distance in non-verbal messaging so that instruction can improve other aspects of CC as well (Rodgers, 2001).

13.4. MULTILINGUALISM

Going through the aims of the Council of Europe about the future of language education and its important role in society in the Guide for the Development of Language Education Policies in Europe**,** one would come up with three goals as follows (Lefever, 2005). The first aim calls for an integration of teaching about cultural similarities and differences into the subject matter of LL. It goes beyond the kind of stereotypes often presented in language courses such as the 'strict German' or the 'eccentric Englishman.' It would include raising learners' awareness of their own cultural preconceptions and identity while learning to appreciate other ways of looking at the world (Lefever, 2005).

The second aim entails changing the focus of LT so that the objective is not just to teach a particular language, but to train learners to become good language learners, capable of assessing their language needs and being aware of LL strategies that suit them best. Examples of language needs could range from survival skills for travel to advanced reading skills for academic purposes (Lefever, 2005).

The final aim is coupled with the belief that LL is a powerful factor in intellectual development, encouraging open-mindedness and flexibility, and contributing to the development of other skills. Learning a language provides learners with opportunities to take responsibility for their own learning through self-reflection and autonomous learning, if the approaches

are effectively used in the learning process (Lefever, 2005). Clearly, one of the main objectives of language education in the world is to foster the development of a multicultural society and intercultural competence. This objective is drawn from the social reality of today's world which is unarguably multicultural and multilingual (Lefever, 2005). Cultures in the world are mixing at a rate not seen before in history because of ever-increasing globalization and mobility due to the rapid flow of information, relaxed boundaries, and cheaper travel (Lefever, 2005). In the multilingual, multicultural, and mobile reality of the world today, we need to view multilingual competence as a vital skill, and achievable by everyone. If citizens are to play a full role in today's world, take advantage of the opportunities open to them and live up to their potential, they will need competence in a range of languages, as well as positive attitudes towards speakers of languages from outside their immediate communities (Tinsley, 2003, as cited in Lefever, 2005).

13.5. INFORMATIONALISM, MULTILITERACIES, AND FUTURE PEDAGOGY

With the fast-paced changes brought about by globalization and technological development, TESOL professionals need to understand current socioeconomic factors and their influence on ELT (Warschauer, 2000). The industrial societies of the past are giving way to a new postindustrial economic order based on globalized manufacturing and distribution, which sees the application of science, technology, and information management as the key elements of productivity and economy growth (Warschauer, 2000). This new global economic order, termed *Informationalism* by Castells (1996, as cited in Warschauer, 2000), first emerged in the 1970s following advances in computing technology and telecommunications.

Although informationalism is still in its infancy, it has already had an important impact on the field of TESOL. As this new stage of global capitalism expands and develops, the ELT profession will face new challenges. In the 21st century, three consequences of informationalism are likely to affect ELT: (a) the growth of global Englishes, (b) changing employment patterns, and (c) the development and spread of technology (Warschauer, 2000).

Just as businesses and media have experienced globalization and relocalization, so has the EL. The past few decades have seen a growth in the role of English around the world as the lingua franca for economic and scientific exchange (Warschauer, 2000). But the very growth of English has

shifted the balance of forces within it, with L2 speakers by some accounts now outnumbering L1 speakers (Crystal, 1997, as cited in Warschauer, 2000). This explains in part the shift to a trend in which it would be rather odd to insist that all learners adapt to a British or North American model when L2 speakers increasingly use English to speak to other L2 speakers rather than to native speakers of the language (Warschauer, 2000).

A second major way that informationalism will affect ELT in the 21st century relates to trends in employment. Given ongoing discrimination against speakers of other languages, including stigmatized varieties of English, the ability to speak English is associated in many settings with economic advantage (Tollefson, 2007). Simply put, the jobs that existed in the industrial era are disappearing and are being replaced by new types of job and work requirements, such as software engineers, management consultants, strategic planners, lawyers, real estate developers, and research scientists, which are applied in EL contexts (Warschauer, 2000).

The final consequence of informationalism, and the one that underlies all the other changes of global Englishes and changing employment patterns, is the development and spread of information and communications technology (ICT). The rapid development and diffusion of ICT is both a contributor to and a result of the broader socioeconomic changes and it affects the entire context and ecology of LT today and tomorrow (Warschauer, 2000). The spread of world Englishes, changes in employment patterns, and the emergence of new technological literacies are mutually enforcing trends of the global informational economy, and a key pedagogical concept that responds is *multiliteracies*, put forth by a group of specialists in education, critical literacy, and discourse analysis (New London Group, 1996; Cope and Kalantzis, 2000, as cited in Warschauer, 2000). The multiliteracies concept recognizes the inadequacy of educational approaches that limit themselves to "page-bound, official, standards form of the national language" (New London Group, 1996, as cited in Warschauer, 2000) and suggests instead that students should learn to negotiate a multiplicity of media and discourses.

To cope with the demands of informationalism, we need a framework going far beyond the linguistic syllabi that are most common today, based on collections of syntactic or functional items. It also goes far beyond the notion of task-based learning if such learning is interpreted as consisting of a progression of narrow tasks designed principally to assist learners in grasping particular grammatical forms. A better framework for a new pedagogy is *project-based learning* (e.g., Stoller, 1997, as cited in Warschauer, 2000).

Projects themselves may include many individual tasks, but the umbrella of the project allows opportunities to critique and transform practice in ways that individual tasks do not.

Projects can take many guises and should be based in large measure on students' backgrounds, needs, and interests. When possible, they may involve electronic communication and collaboration to increase students' online literacy skills. They may also provide opportunities to grapple with cultural and identity issues emerging in the new global era (Beckett and Slater, 2005; Beckett, 2002). Projects might include long-distance exchanges in which students debate and discuss issues related to cultural identity, service-learning projects in which students use their knowledge of English and technology to assist their local communities, or multimedia creation and publishing projects in which students collaboratively experiment with new genres (Sokolik, 1999, as cited in Warschauer, 2000).

13.6. POTENTIAL COMPONENTS OF FUTURE ELT CURRICULUM

Littlejohn (2001) tries to enumerate some characteristics of future ELT curriculum as follows:

1. **Coherence:** The use of themes, topics, projects to bind lessons together and provide coherence and a deeper focus and understanding (Littlejohn, 2001).

2. **Significant Content:** The selection of content that is worth learning and thinking about, dealt with in appropriate ways, which does not, on the one hand, trivialize significant issues or, on the other hand, make trivial things seem important. A key topic could itself be "the future" -attempting to raise students' awareness of future developments and discuss their own hopes, aspirations, worries, and personal action (Littlejohn, 2001).

3. **Decision-Making in the Classroom:** A structured plan for actively involving students in making decisions in the classroom, taking on more responsibility for what happens in their lessons (Littlejohn, 2001).

4. **Use of Students' Intelligence:** The use of types of exercises which require *thinking*, beyond memory retrieval or repetition, for example, and involving students in hypothesizing, negotiating, planning, and evaluating (Littlejohn, 2001).

5.   **Cultural Understanding:** Tasks and texts which require students to look through the eyes of others, to learn the relative nature of values, to *understand* why people in different contexts think and do different things (Littlejohn, 2001).

6.   **Critical Language Awareness (CLA):** To view all language use critically-that is, to look beyond the surface meaning and ask oneself questions such as "*Why* are they saying that?" "What is *not* being said?" and "Who benefits from what is being said?" We might for example, ask students to think about deeper reasons for why the passive voice is used in a newspaper headline or why particular adjectives are used to describe a consumer product (Littlejohn, 2001).

13.7. POSSIBLE CHARACTERISTICS OF FUTURE ELT TEACHERS

According to Breen (2007), the question is: "what may be the characteristics of future language teacher development that can be grounded in localized communities of practice while also generating strategies for engaging with regional and global issues that impinge upon teachers' work?" Teacher development needs to be holistic in addressing practitioners who enact imagination, values, alignments, intuitions, and diverse knowledge systems during the teaching-learning process. Teachers need to integrate alternative ways of working into current practice; they need to make their own links between what has been personally meaningful in their work so far and what can be seen to be meaningful in future ways of acting (Breen, 2007). Teacher development must, therefore, address all the attributes of professional identity and self-esteem grounded in ongoing achievements rather than merely the attainment of external imperatives: it must start where teachers have come to and why, assuming that their personal experience and knowledge are evolving rather than things to be superseded (Breen, 2007).

The gap between these activities and curriculum or materials planning appears to be greater than previously because of the current centralization of language policies. Clearly, future teacher development needs to restore dynamic interchange between all these activities and the people engaged in them, thereby reducing unnecessary spaces between them while also recognizing that each of the activities has its own integrity of purposes and procedures (Breen, 2007). The future development of EL teachers requires their explicit recognition of the pivotal role they play at the heart of current

educational, cultural, and political change and the responsibilities that such a role involves (Breen, 2007).

13.8. CONCLUSION

The shift toward a global informational economy integrates more countries and regions into the global market and further spurs the need for workers worldwide in diverse occupations to learn English. The most far-reaching changes will come in the area of technology, with the Internet becoming everywhere in the developed world and commonplace in urban areas elsewhere. The expansion of the Internet and its mesmerizing potentials will allow an ever-increasing number of people to read, write, speak, and listen to English on a daily basis; to shop and sell; to learn and teach; to collaborate and struggle. L2 speakers will use English, together with technology, to express their identity and make their voices heard. English connects people around the world and provides a means to struggle and to give meaning to those connections. If English is imposing the world on our students, we as TESOL professionals can enable them, through English, to impose their voices on the world (Warschauer, 2000).

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Chapter 14

Instructed Second Language Acquisition

CONTENTS

14.1. OVERVIEW

L2 can be accomplished in two main different ways: naturalistic and instructed. According to Rod Ellis (1994), a distinction can be made between these two forms of acquisition. In naturalistic SLA, the language is learnt through communication that takes place in naturally occurring social situations, whereas in instructed SLA, the language is learnt through study with the help of guidance from textbooks and instruction. Klein (1986, cited in Ellis, 1994) distinguishes 'spontaneous' and 'guided' acquisition to refer to these two kinds of acquisitions. Van den Branden (2007) believes that learning a L2 in naturalistic contexts resembles the natural way young children learn L1, by implicitly acquiring the language while attempting to use it in communicative contexts for real-world purposes. In his opinion, "instructed second language learning is believed to be different in nature, in that it draws more on conscious learning, explicit focus on form, and controlled practice. In this view, the SL learner faces the task of transferring what he or she learned in the class to functional language use in real life" (pp. 161, 162). Ellis (2005a) argues that numerous studies have investigated the effects of instruction on learning and much of the theorizing about L2 instruction has been specifically undertaken with language pedagogy in mind. For example:

- Krashen's monitor model;
- Long's interaction hypothesis;
- DeKeyser's skill-learning theory;
- Van Patten's input processing theory;
- Pienmann's processibility theory;
- Ellis's instructed language learning.

All address the role of instruction in L2 acquisition. For more detailed explanations on these and other related theories, you can refer to Van Patten and William's book "Theories in SLA: An introduction (2007). The purpose of the present lecture is to discuss how these two main types of SLAs are different and what challenges we language teachers face in performing our task effectively as we are expected to help language learners with their challenge of learning a L2 in the confines of the classroom. So, this presentation explores to what extent these two contexts give rise to different learning experiences in order to draw conclusions on how L2 classrooms may best serve the needs of L2 learners.

According to Lightbown and Spada (1999), there is general agreement that L2 in a natural acquisition context is not the same as learning in the classroom and learning in natural settings is more effective. They raise questions such as: What is special about natural LL? Can teachers create the same environments in the classroom? Should teachers try to create such conditions? or are there essential contributions that only instruction and not natural exposure can provide? They further distinguish traditional instructional environments from communicative instructional settings. By traditional they mean grammar-translation or audiolingualism in which the focus is on language itself and by communicative they mean content-based and task-based instructional environments in which the style of instruction places the emphasis on interaction, conversation, and language use rather than on learning *about* language. The present lecture does not intend to discuss different methods of teaching in detail, because it would be beyond its scope. However, we deal with some principles that help us make the comparison between naturalistic and instructed SLA more transparent. A comparison between these two main types of instruction points out that:

1.   In naturalistic acquisition settings, learners are rarely corrected. In most cases, it would be considered rude to correct errors, while in classrooms, some sort of error correction is usually provided.

2.   In naturalistic acquisition, language is not presented step by step, while in classroom instruction, mostly some sort of organization, whether structural, notional/functional, and or lexical is established.

3.   In naturalistic acquisition, the learner is surrounded by language, exposed to it, and has a lot of opportunities to overhear the language, whereas in classrooms, the time for exposure is mostly limited.

4.   In naturalistic settings, learners observe or participate in many different types of language events, such as greetings, business transactions, and school instructions. They may also encounter the written language in the form of notices, newspapers, posters, etc. In instructed settings instead, learners deal mostly with concocted learning materials.

5.   The 5th difference is the type of language learners are exposed to in these two types of instruction. According to Gass and Selinker, in instructed settings, the learners are exposed to three sources of input: (a) teacher, (teacher talk is limited) (b) other learners

(limited and full of errors), and (c) materials. So far, research has not properly investigated the extent the learner will pick up or ignore errors in the other learners' speech.

6. To clarify his argument on the relationship between instruction and development, Vygotsky compares and contrasts native and FLL (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006). According to Vygotsky, children learn their language spontaneously as they participate in everyday social activity. Their goal is not to learn the language per se, but to participate in the practices of the community. Thus, learning the language and participating in the community co-occur and feed to each other. The situation regarding FLL in the school setting is quite different. Unlike the native language, foreign languages are learned consciously and intentionally. In native-language development, instruction makes visible something students already know to a considerable degree. In foreign-LL, instruction makes visible something students do not already possess. This perspective leads him to believe that the process of FLL is mediated by the native language.

7. In Instructed SLL, the role of the teacher in creating and maintaining a suitable learning environment and managing their classes is of great importance. The teacher should be well aware of the complexity of classroom life by identifying the wide range of factors that influence the on-the-spot classroom decision making. These factors are not usually at work in naturalistic settings. For example, a language class may become the scene of intercultural and interpersonal tensions and as Senior (2006) argues, "clashes between value systems, even between students from the same cultural background, can sometimes come to the fore in language classes" (p. 114).

8. Within the perspective of the *Fundamental difference hypothesis* developed by Bley-Vroman (1988, cited in Munoz, 2007) DeKeyser claims that children need massive exposure to the language for their implicit learning mechanisms to be activated and they cannot find this type of exposure in a foreign language classroom. Under his view, the critical period hypothesis is restricted to naturalistic language acquisition (LA) and would therefore, not apply to instructional settings.

Ellis (1994) asserts "it would certainly be wrong to assume that naturalistic learning is subconscious and instructed learning conscious" (p. 12). According to Ellis (2005), there is no evidence for teachers to make sure the type of instruction they use will result in successful learning, as there are different approaches which prescribe very different methods and techniques.

Our task as language teachers is not easy because:

- Research and theory do not afford a uniform account of how instruction can best facilitate LL, and there is considerable controversy. We still do not know for sure whether there is an innate mechanism like what Chomsky conceptualizes as UG is responsible for LA or the ideas developed in emergenism and connectionism, which assume language can be acquired through input without a dedicated LL device are correct. The problem is more complicated when we notice that even among those researchers who believe in the existence of UG as part of an innate biologically endowed language faculty, there is little agreement whether this UG mediates L2 acquisition or not and if it does to what extent, and this issue has been investigated and debated since 1980s (White, 2003).

- According to Gass and Selinker (2008) examples provided in SLA literature belong to both types of instruction. Some are the results of instructed and some others taken from naturalistic contexts. It seems the contextual difference has not been taken into consideration in the conclusions the researchers draw. Gass and Selinker argue that this is due to an assumption that processes involved in learning a L2 can be thought of as independent of the contexts in which the language is being learned. It seems that whatever psycholinguistic processing take place in a naturalistic situation presumably take place in a classroom situation.

- For more than century researchers were struggling to find one best method to teach the L2, taking it for granted that human brain is homogeneous, but today thanks to the findings of neuroscience such assumptions have been challenged, and today we know that from the perspective of neurobiology, brains are as different as faces are different (Schumann et al., 2004).

- There is no agreement about the efficacy of teaching explicit knowledge or about what kind of corrective feedback to provide

or even when explicit grammar teaching should begin. These controversies reflect both the complexity of the object of enquiry (instructed LA) and also the fact that SLA is still in its infancy (Ellis, 2005).

It is worth noting that instructed SLA can take place directly through formal instruction and indirectly by setting up conditions that promote natural acquisition in the classroom (Ellis, 1994). So far there has been no agreement as to whether instruction should be based on a traditional focus-on-forms approach, involving the systematic teaching of grammatical features in accordance to structural syllabus, or a focus on form approach, involving attention to linguistic features in the context of communicative activities derived from a task-based syllabus or some kind of combination of the two.

Another issue is the application of instruction to promote acquisition is that reports concerning the research findings are too theoretical, and the findings are not directly applicable to classroom practice, (Nassaji and Fotos, 2005). Doughty (2003) argues that "the debate concerning the effectiveness of L2 instruction takes place at two fundamental levels. At the first level, SLA theorists address in absolute terms any potential at all for instructional intervention in SLA. A small number of SLA researchers claim that instruction can have no effect beyond the provision of an environment conductive to SLA. At the second level of debate, a case is made for the benefits of instruction. A fundamental question in this second line of research is whether the most effective instruction is implicit or explicit" (p. 256). Let us begin by considering the argument made against any kind of L2 instruction whatsoever. In the early days of research on SLA, skepticism concerning L2 instructional intervention prevailed. Felix (1981, cited in Doughty, 2003) argues "FLL under classroom conditions seems to partially follow the same set of natural processes that characterize other types of LA … the possibility of manipulating and controlling the students' verbal behavior in the classroom is in fact quite limited" (p. 109).

Krashen (1985, cited in Doughty, 2003) insists that "the only contribution that classroom instruction can make is to provide comprehensible input that might not otherwise be available outside the classroom" (pp. 33, 34). Krashen suggests that the main function of the classroom may be to provide comprehensible input, and the classroom is most useful for beginners who cannot utilize the informal environment for input. In his Monitor Model, Krashen includes Natural Order Hypothesis, which says elements of language are acquired in a predictable order, and the order is the same regardless of

whether or not instruction is involved (Gass and Selinker, 2008; Schmitt, 2003). That is, it is useful for foreign language students who do not have input sources outside of class or those whose competence is so low that they are unable to understand the language of the outside world (Hadley, 2003). Long and Robinson (1998, cited in Doughty, 2003) introduced the strong non-interventionist position by making two proposals: (1) SLA is driven by the same Universal Grammar that guides L1 acquisition, and (2) SLA like L1 acquisition is entirely incidental.

Now, it is time to discuss the evidence that shows L2 instruction is efficient and effective. The past decade has witnessed an explosion of interest in instructed SLA research. The question of whether L2 instruction makes a difference was first posed in earnest by Long (1983, cited in Doughty, 2003) who attempted a preliminary study which directly tested Krashen's then influential claim of a learning/acquisition distinction. In those early studies, only very global comparisons were made between the L2 proficiency of subjects who either had or had not attended L2 classes. In general, the findings indicated that for those for whom the classroom is the only opportunity for exposure to L2 input, 'instruction' is beneficial. While long concluded that L2 instruction does make a difference, his work was more noteworthy for having identified a number of weaknesses in the prevailing research methodology. There were at least three fundamental problems. First the comparisons between instruction and exposure were too global. Second, there were no direct comparisons of either instruction or exposure conditions with true control groups; and third, neither the type of instruction nor any specific aspect of SLA were operationalized in the study variables. Several years later Long (1988) reconsidered the question of whether instruction makes a difference, but this time within four operationalized domains of SLA: (a) SLA processes, (b) SLA routes, (c) SLA rate, and (d) level of ultimate SL attainment. SLA processes include, for instance, transfer, generalization, and noticing. In the second domain, SLA route, developmental sequences have been identified in, for example, the acquisition of negation, relativization, and word order. Progress through the routes can be affected by the L1 in complex ways or by instruction, but only in terms of sub-stages or rate of passage. In other words, stages are not skipped, and the route cannot be altered (Pienemann, 1989, cited in Doughty, 2003). Despite these constraints, evidence continues to accumulate that the rate of instructed SLA is faster than that of naturalistic SLA. However, it is sometimes the case that what is learned quickly is forgotten equally fast (Lightbown, 1983, cited in Doughty, 2003). In the final domain discussed by

Long, level of ultimate attainment in the L2, studies indicated that, instructed learners make more progress toward the TL. After reviewing the cases for and against L2 instruction, Catherine Doughty concludes that instruction is potentially effective, provided it is relevant to learners' needs. However, she acknowledges that evidence to date for either absolute or relative effectiveness of L2 instruction is tenuous and woefully inadequate. Doughty concludes that "for adult SLA, instruction is necessary to compensate for developmental changes that put adults at a disadvantage" (p. 257).

In another study conducted by Littlewood (2004), it is mentioned that "the learner's *built-in syllabus* seems in some ways to be independent of the effects of instruction: similar errors and similar sequences have been observed in both natural and instructed learners. This discovery led some researchers to posit that the built-in syllabus may be powerful enough to override the effects of instruction" (p. 512). However, Littlewood asserts that it is clear that instruction has effects on learning in the case of those many L2 speakers whose ability comes only from classroom instruction, supplemented perhaps by a limited amount of outside-class practice. In studies which have compared learners who experience only natural exposure with learners who experience both exposure and classroom instruction, the results also indicate that instruction improves learning. The issue remains, however, of exactly how classroom instruction affects the learning process. For example, does it affect the course that learning takes? Or does it affect only the rate of progress along a pre-determined course? To what extent is it helpful if teachers focus learners' attention explicitly on the forms of the language they are learning, or should the main focus always be on the communication of meaning?

Several studies have provided evidence that instruction can accelerate the rate of learning. In one of these (Doughty and Varela, 1998, cited in Littlewood, 2004), learners were given instruction in forming relative clauses at a stage when they were considered ready to acquire them. They acquired the rules more quickly than learners who were exposed to input containing the structures but received no instruction. In another study (Pienemann, 1989, cited in Littlewood, 2004), English-speaking learners of German were taught German word order rules. It was found that instruction benefited the learners who received it and moved quickly into higher stages. These and similar findings are the main evidence for Pienemann's 'learnability' or 'teachability' hypothesis, according to which instruction can accelerate the rate of learning but not cause learners to skip a natural stage (Schmitt, 2003). The studies just mentioned provide evidence that learning can benefit

from instruction which focuses on form what often is called 'consciousness-raising.'

Gass and Selinker discuss some of the studies that show instruction can have its unique results. Based on a study conducted by Pavesi in 1986, the acquisition of relative clauses was compared in naturalistic and instructed learners. The results pointed out that the classroom context provided a richness that an informal environment could not create. A second example of instructional uniqueness came from work by Lightbown in 1983. Kasper and Rose (2002, cited in Thornbury and Slade, 2006) suggest that without instruction pragmatic knowledge will be difficult. They claim that L2 pragmatics can be taught and in fact, instructional intervention is better than no instruction. Laufer (2005) makes the same point with regard to vocabulary.

Bot, Lowie, and Verspoor (2005) take the view that SLA is a dynamic process, which means it is impossible to extract and measure single factors that contribute to SLA because they all interact with each other. For example, individual factors such as L1, age, aptitude, learning style, intelligence, personality, and so on interact with the process of SLA and cannot be ignored when the role of instruction is investigated.

14.2. CONCLUSION

When we consider the role of instruction in L2 teaching and learning, we notice that there are no definitive answers for the fundamental questions posed to teachers. Different approaches, sometimes totally contradictory, have been proposed to make the acquisition of a non-native language possible. Scholars still hold different contradictory views on essential matters such as the existence of an innate predisposition for the acquisition of language in human being, what Chomsky has called UG, and the role of such capability (on the condition it really exist) in the acquisition of the L2. In this way, we can conclude that the role of instruction is controversial and is open to further investigations.

Notes:
1.   Skill-acquisition theory accounts for how people progress in learning a variety of skills, from initial learning to advanced proficiency. The basic claim of skill acquisition theory is that the learning of a wide variety of skills shows a remarkable similarity in the development from initial representation of knowledge through initial changes in behavior to eventual fluent,

spontaneous, largely effortless, and highly skilled behavior, and this set of phenomena can be accounted for by a set of basic principles common to the acquisition of all skills.

2.   Processing Instruction refers to a type of instruction that takes as its basis how learners process input. In particular, it deals with the conversion of input into intake and specifically focuses on form-meaning relationships. In a series of experiments, Van Patten and his colleagues presented a model for instructional intervention that relied on the notion of attention to form and its crucial role in a learner's movement from input to intake and finally to output.

3.   Pienmann's Processibility Theory is a theory of L2 development. The logic underlying this theory is that at any stage of development, the learner can produce and comprehend only those L2 linguistic forms that the current state of the language processor can handle. It is therefore, crucial to understand the architecture of the language processor and the way in which it handles L2. This enables one to predict the course of development of L2 linguistic forms in language production and comprehension across languages.

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Chapter 15

Interlanguage(s)

CONTENTS

15.1. OVERVIEW

When we listen to foreign students speaking English, we are likely to hear a wide variety of errors. Variability is at times frustrating to the teacher. The teacher who has to cope with it in the classroom finds that sometimes a student can produce the target form correctly, and at other times he cannot: "it varies with the subtlest shifts of situation, just as the chameleon changes color as its surroundings change" (Tarone, 1979). Corder (1971, as cited in Schumann, 1974) defines the spontaneous speech of L2 learner as a language hating a genuine grammar. He calls this learner language an idiosyncratic dialect. Nemser (1971, as cited in Schumann, 1974) identifies the learner language as an "approximative system" which is defined as a structurally cohesive linguistic system distinct from both the source language and the TL. It is by definition transient and is gradually restructured in successive stages from initial through advanced learning. According to Nemser (1971, as cited in Schumann, 1974), the ultimate goal of the study of such systems would be the "accurate projection of the approximative system throughout its successive stages of development in each contact situation."

Selinker (1972, as cited in Bialystok and Sharwood Smith, 1985) suggests that there is a *latent psychological structure* in the brain that is activated when one attempts to learn a L2, i.e., whenever one tries to produce sentences in the L2 using meanings one may already have. When such an attempt is made, the utterances which are realized are not identical to those which would have been produced by a native speaker of the TL. Nor are they identical to the sentences having the same meaning in the learner's native language. Thus, a separate linguistic system is hypothesized to account for the actual realized utterances. This system is called "interlanguage" (Selinker, 1972, as cited in Tarone, 1983). However, it is not enough to simply conclude that the learner's interlanguage is systematic since this conclusion does not answer the question: What is the nature of that system?

15.2. THE PREMISES OF INTERLANGUAGE THEORY

1. **The learner constructs a system of abstract linguistic rules which underlies comprehension and production (Ellis, 1990, p. 51):** Selinker (1972, as cited in Bialystok and Sharwood Smith, 1985) and Lakshmanan and Selinker (2001) seem to view interlanguage as a single linguistic system in its

own right composed of rules which have been developed via different processes including transfer, simplification, and correct understanding of the target system. The learner draws on these rules in much the same way as the native speaker draws on linguistic competence. The rules are also responsible for the systematicity evident in L2 learner language (Adjemian, 1977, as cited in Tarone, 1979).

2. **The learner's grammar is permeable (Ellis, 1990, p. 51):** This means that the grammar of the language learner builds is immature and unstable and is subject to change either internally, by means of transfer from the L1 or overgeneralization of an interlanguage rule, or externally, via exposure to TL input (Ellis, 1990, p. 51).

3. **The learner's competence in transitional (Ellis, 1990, p. 51):** The permeability of an interlanguage system culminates in its rapid revision by language learners; therefore, they pass through a number of stages to acquire the TL. Each stage constitutes "an interlanguage," or in Corder's (1981) terms a "transitional competence" (p. 67). The series of stages together comprise the "interlanguage continuum" (Ellis, 1997, p. 33).

4. **The learner's competence is variable (Ellis, 1990, p. 51):** The language learner's competence must be viewed as heterogeneous rather than homogeneous (Tarone, 1983). A basic distinction is made between horizontal and vertical variation (Ellis, 2008, p. 129). The horizontal dimension refers to the interlanguage that a learner has constructed at a specific point in time, while the vertical dimension refers to the developmental stages through which the learner passes over time and is therefore, coterminous with "order/sequence of development" (Ellis, 1985). Horizontal variation is divided into inter-learner variation such as motivation, personality, psycholinguistic, and/or social variation, and intra-learner variation taking the form of either free (non-systematic) variation or systematic variation.

i. **Systematic Variability:** The study of how language users systematically vary their use of linguistic forms has been a major area of sociolinguistic inquiry. Two major types of variability have been identified and described: situational variability and contextual variability (Ellis, 1985).

Situational variability consists of the alternation of two or more linguistic forms in accordance with extra-linguistic factors. The study conducted by Labov (1970, as cited in Ellis, 1985) showed that there was systematic variability in the speech of New Yorkers regarding the level of formality of language use based on social factors. Labov model accounts for stylistic variability; that is variability determined by participant factors. The second type of variability that has been identified in interlanguage is contextual variability. This is evident when the language user varies his use of linguistic forms according to the linguistic environment. Examples of how this has been treated in sociolinguistic theory are Labov (1970, as cited in Ellis, 1985); and Dickerson (1975). Both situational variability and contextual variability constitute continuums, with some linguistic contexts associated with the use of one variant and other contexts with another, but with all variants occurring in varying proportions in all contexts at some stage of development (Ellis, 1985).

ii.   **Non-Systematic (Free) Variability:** This non-systematic variability is of two types. The first type is the result of performance lapses, the numerous false starts, deviations from rules, changes of plan in mid-course, etc. This type is not part of the language user's competence. It occurs when the language user is unable to perform his competence. The second type is that variability that is the result of competing rules in the learner's competence such as different pronunciations of "data," "often," and "schedule." These rules are acted upon quite haphazardly (Ellis, 1985).

A number of theoretical positions have been advanced to explain interlanguage variability:

a.   **The Homogeneous Competence Paradigm:** Which is described by Adjemian (1976, as cited in Tarone, 1983). It attributes to the learner a unitary competence, which is considered to underlie speech production. This competence is not always manifest in performance, because of various processing constraints which distract the user. The homogeneous competence paradigm sees variability as a performance characteristic in accordance with Chomskyian theory of language.

b.   **The Capability Continuum Paradigm:** As described by Tarone (1979, 1983). This paradigm rests on the assumption that the

learner's competence (or "capability" as Tarone prefers to call it) is heterogeneous, made up of a continuum of styles, ranging from the careful to the vernacular. Which style the learner calls upon is determined by the degree of attention paid to language form, which in turn is a reflection of social factors to do with participant factors. Tarone emphasizes that it enables interlanguage to be portrayed as systematic both because it is describable through a set of variable and categorical rules, and because it has internal consistency (Tarone, 1983).

c.   **The Dual Competence Paradigm:** As described by Krashen (1981, as cited in Tarone, 1983), which is exemplified by the Monitor Theory. Briefly, Krashen distinguishes "acquisition" and "learning," arguing that the latter is involved in language performance through the use of the Monitor, a device for editing utterances initiated by means of "acquired" knowledge.

d.   **The Multiple Competence Paradigm:** As described by Ellis (1985) who posits that the learner does not possess a single interlanguage system, but a number of separate and overlapping systems. Selinker and Douglas (1985, as cited in Ellis, 1985) suggest that the process of second-language acquisition (LA) involves the building of a number of interlanguage systems, which may share some rules, but which also contain some unique rules. The construction of these interlanguages is linked to the creation of "discourse domains": "a personally and internally created area of one's life that has importance" (Selinker and Douglas, 1985, as cited in Ellis, 1985).

5.   **Interlanguage development reflects the operation of cognitive learning strategies (Ellis, 1990, p. 52):** One view which holds that the L2 learner does not necessarily utilize the same LA device as the child does identifies a number of cognitive learning processes such as L1 transfer, overgeneralization, and simplification (Cancino et al., 1974, as cited in Ellis, 1990, p. 52). The different kinds of errors learners produce reflect different learning strategies (Ellis, 1997, p. 34).

The similarity between L1 and L2 acquisition lies in the process of hypothesis-formation and testing. Hypothetical rules, formulated on the basis of learning strategies, are tested out in comprehension and production, and amended, if needed. It is likely that the

first attempt will not establish form-function correlations that correspond to those of the TL (Ellis, 1985).

It is easy, now, to see why two types of variability arise in interlanguage. Non-systematic variation occurs when new forms are assimilated but have not yet been integrated into the learner's form-function system. Systematic variation, on the other hand, occurs when the new forms have been accommodated by a restructuring of the existing form-function system to give the new forms their own meanings to perform (Ellis, 1985).

6.   **Interlanguage use can also reflect the operation of communication strategies** (Ellis, 1990, p. 52)**:** Having to communicate messages for which the linguistic resources are not available, learners' resort to a variety of communication strategies (Tarone, 1980). These strategies help them bridge the gap. The commonest ones are paraphrase, code-switching, and appeal-for-help.

7.   **Interlanguage systems may fossilize** (Ellis, 1990, p. 52)**:** Selinker (1972, as cited in Lakshmanan and Selinker, 2001) used the term *fossilization* to refer to the tendency of many learners to stop developing in their interlanguage grammar in the direction of the TL. This may be because either there is no communicative need for further development or full competence in an L2 is neuro linguistically impossible for most learners. The prevalence of backsliding (i.e., the production of errors representing an early stage of development) is typical of fossilized learners (Ellis, 1997, p. 34).

15.3. INTERLANGUAGE AND CLASSROOM APPLICATIONS

The knowledge that the learner operates from a variable interlanguage system should be of practical value to the language teacher in such areas as teacher attitude, teacher expectations, and the evaluation of student progress (Dickerson, 1975). The basis for the application of interlanguage theory in language classroom is to conduct teaching in such a way that corresponds to the way L2 learners learn (Ellis, 1990, p. 53). The theory of interlanguage has had a profound impact on *error treatment*. The student's production should no longer be looked upon as a defective approximation of the TL. His production is not a random, scattershot attempt at imitating the model. The

learner is not deficient in cognitive ability, but he is generating utterances which are rule-governed according to his interlanguage system of variable rules (Dickerson, 1975). In short, the language teacher should not despair when he encounters variability; rather, he should adopt a point of view which *expects variability* (Dickerson, 1975). Since the learner's language system is characterized by a very large number of variable rules, variability is the norm, not the exception. Thus, non-target performance should not be considered "erroneous," but viewed, first, as a necessary part of the LL process, and secondly, as important information about the character of the learner's changing language system. The teacher should understand that this change in learner's language is not only systematic, but gradual. Another conspicuous proposal based on interlanguage theory focuses on the organization of the teaching content, *the syllabus*, ordering the teaching content according to the learner's built-in developmental syllabus rather than according to external criteria of linguistic difficulty (Ellis, 1990, p. 55). It was claimed that classroom teaching should be focused exclusively on communication and that no attempt should be made to teach specific parts of the code. The syllabus should attempt to control the level of difficulty of communicative demands placed on the learner, but the learning of grammar is to be left to the learner.

15.4. CONCLUSION

An interlanguage is not a full language, nor is it a reduced or treated one; it is a point on the way to a full natural language (Davies, 1989). Interlanguage involves at least three essential processes: (1) the internalization of new linguistic forms; (2) the progressive organization of form-function relationships; and (3) the elimination of redundant forms (Ellis, 1985). In fact, the theory of interlanguage legitimizes L2 learner's language. Ordinarily, the teacher's approach has been to evaluate the student's progress in terms of right versus wrong, not considering the various degrees of right and wrong. Given the concept of interlanguage, the teacher is urged to first recognize the L2 learner's language and then look at degrees of attainment, not just at a right/wrong dichotomy of English versus non-English.

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Chapter 16

Internalization

CONTENTS

16.1. OVERVIEW

Generally speaking, the process through which cultural artifacts, such as language, take on a psychological function is known as internalization (Lantolf, 2000). This process, along with mediation, is one of the core concepts of sociocultural theory (SCT) proposed by Vygotsky (1978), which has made a great impact on the learning and teaching profession (Lantolf and Thorne, 2007). In brief, and according to Daniels (2001) "SCT attempts to provide an account of learning and development as mediated processes. In SCT, the emphasis is on semiotic mediation with an emphasis on speech." He goes on to state that "it attempts to theorize and provide methodological tools for investigating the processes by which social, cultural, and historical factors shape human functioning" (p. 1).

16.2. INTERNALIZATION AND SCT

According to Lantolf (2007), Vygotsky recognized that humans shared specific mental abilities with other animals and that these were part of our biological endowment. On the other hand, he also argued that we are able to organize and control our brains in ways that animals cannot. Thus, while animal and human behavior arises from instinct as well as from environmental influences, only humans develop the capacity to voluntarily and intentionally regulate their memory, attention, and planning and to engage in rational thinking. The innatists argue that our unique mental abilities can be accounted for primarily in terms of the genetically specified properties of the human brain. The social constructionists, on the other hand, maintain that the explanation resides in discourse and social interaction (pp. 695, 696).

Yet, Vygotsky apparently takes the middle stand and accepting that biology lays the foundation on which human mental activity is constructed, he argues that "it is participation in, and internalization of, culturally shaped activities that imbues humans with the power to regulate (i.e., mediate) our biological endowment" (Lantolf, 2007, p. 696). Internalization transforms the structure and function of social processes that we carry out in conjunction with others, while at the same time maintaining traces of their external origins (Wertsch and Stone, 1985, cited in Lantolf, 2007). What on the social plane is elaborate and other-directed activity becomes abbreviated and self-directed activity on the psychological plane. Through internalization, individuals develop the ability to extend what was at one

point specific concrete activity, guided in some way by others, to similar though not identical activities in order to function independently of others (Lantolf, 2000). As Lantolf and Thorne (2007) put it, "the essential element in the formation of higher mental functions is the process of internalization. Internalization is a negotiated process that reorganizes the relationship of the individual to her/his social environment and generally carries it into future performance" (p. 203).

In other words, internalization is the process by which intermental functioning in the form of social relations among individuals and interaction with socially constructed artifacts is turned inwards and transformed into intramental functioning (Lantolf and Thorne, 2007).

16.3. ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT (ZPD) AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

According to Cummins and Davison (2007), a central construct within SCT, and the one most relevant for understanding the relationship between the learner and the learning environment, is the ZPD. Vygotsky formulated the notion of the ZPD to capture the relationship between assisted and self-regulated performance. The ZPD represents the distance between what the learner can do individually without assistance and what he or she can do with assistance (e.g., through instruction or the mediation of cultural artifacts such as paper and pencil, calculators, or computers). "Learning occurs within the interpersonal space of the ZPD, in the context of assisted performance, while development results from the appropriation and internalization of that assistance and enables individuals to function independently of specific concrete circumstances" (Cummins and Davison, 2007, p. 619). For language pedagogy, as Lantolf (2007) states, this perspective implies that instruction, learning, development, and assessment are inseparably linked and are essentially the same activity. Traditional approaches to testing are problematic because they focus on the learner in isolation rather than on what the learner can achieve within a supportive instructional context. By contrast, dynamic assessment focuses on what the learner can achieve within the ZPD and Lantolf concludes by urging L2 educators and researchers to explore the relevance of dynamic assessment for L2 pedagogy.

A clear application of SCT principles in L2 classroom, as discussed by Ellis (2003), is obvious in the task-based approach. This approach emphasizes the importance of social and collaborative aspects of learning. Ellis (2003) asserts that SCT focuses on how the learner accomplishes a task

and how the interaction between learners can assist in the L2 acquisition process.

Moreover, as Turuk (2008) maintains the issue of internalization is crucial in Vygotsky's theory as well as in L2 classrooms. Vygotsky encourages teachers not to concentrate too much on teaching concrete facts but to also push their students into an abstract world as a means to assisting them to develop multiple skills that will enable them to deal with complex learning tasks.

Simister (2004, cited in Turuk, 2008) recognizes the importance of the student' s personal voice and claims that emphasis on mere repetition of facts and accepted ideas will only produce dull and uninspired students. This implies that students should be taught how to create, adjust their strategies, and assimilate learning activities into their own personal world. As a result of the recognition of the role of abstract thinking in students' intellectual development, nowadays there is a call for the introduction of literature in L2 classrooms.

16.4. CONCLUSION

The concept of ZPD is a challenge for L2 teachers. It is a call made stressing the need for teachers to know the limits of their students and teach to the limits of their ZPD and no further (Turuk, 2008). Wertsch and Hikmann (1987, cited in Ohta, 2000) claim that determining a learner's ZPD is an act of negotiated discovery that should be realized through interaction between the learner(s) and the teacher. This interaction helps the teacher to determine precisely what the learner can achieve alone and what he/she needs assistance to achieve. Shayer (2002, cited in Turuk, 2008) advocates that more research is needed to enable teachers in each school subject to know how far ahead of development the learning they choose for their students should be. Shayer claims mere cognitive level matching leaves the children's mental development stagnant, but on the other hand, conceptualizing too high above students' ability may lead to frustration and disappointment and that therefore, it is the teacher's role to create the balance.

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Chapter 17

Are We Teaching Knowledge, Skill or Ability?

CONTENTS

17.1. OVERVIEW

We can look at the issue of LT and what is presented to students in language classes from different perspectives and throughout the history of LT. According to Philp (2006) traditionally, grammatical knowledge and features were taught directly, and the students' ability to identify the features was practiced in follow-up exercises. Meanwhile, according to Larsen-Freeman (2000), in traditional approaches like GTM, the teacher presented knowledge (e.g., in teaching students' grammar and vocabulary and asking them to memorize grammar rules and vocabulary in L2), and then they helped students to coordinate these two elements to make and improve their ability of translation or to improve their ability to read or write both of which could be considered skills as well. In the meantime, according to Moras (2001), traditionally, the teaching of the knowledge of vocabulary above elementary levels was mostly incidental in the past, limited to presenting new items as they appeared in reading or sometimes listening texts.

However, according to Richards and Rogers (2001), in later methods like DM, teachers tried to teach communicative skills. There was no direct teaching of grammar knowledge. It was taught inductively with the purpose of helping students to improve their communicative ability and skill, so we can conclude that the teacher is presenting ability and skill rather than knowledge. Nevertheless, in more communicative methods like CLT, students need knowledge of the linguistic forms, meanings, and functions together with opportunities to practice and create the required skill of communication. Likewise, according to Cook (2001), teachers use techniques to bring communication directly into the classroom, and so, improve learners' communicative ability. According to Cook (2001), in communicative methods, it is partly presenting students with knowledge and partly improving their ability and skill. For example, in role-play, the teacher supervises students to see if they have problems, and then provides them with the necessary knowledge by correction.

Widdowson (1989), quotes from Hymes's (1972) account of CC as incorporating language beyond grammar and ability as well as knowledge which raises problematic issues concerning analysis of ability and accessibility of knowledge and the scope and application of linguistic rules. However, Ellis (2006), believes that when students make some errors in the production of language in task-based classes, teachers should focus on the form of language and seek to address those errors or gaps in the students' L2

knowledge, i.e., present students with knowledge. Meanwhile, Swan (2005, p. 387) says, "The aim and purpose of TBI is language instruction and LT. Any course of language instruction must establish an appropriate knowledge and skills base in the learner."

17.2. SKILL, KNOWLEDGE, AND ABILITY

Language learning is at least partly a matter of acquiring skills: According to Johnson (1996, p. 38, cited in Swan, 2005), 'A view of language as skill is persuasive, insightful, and useful for language teachers.' This being so, instructed acquisition may reasonably include the presentation and practice of discrete elements of behavior (Johnson, 1996, pp. 154, 155, quoted in Swan, 2005). Too, according to her, there should be grammar teaching in every classroom as Johnson (p. 171, quoted in Swan, 2005). In the meantime, Gagné et al. (1993, cited in Jiamu, 2001) consider language instruction as providing students with knowledge as they state "one important reason for varying one's teaching methods (including the motivation and background of the students) is the type of knowledge representation that is the focus of a particular segment of instruction." However, Jiamu (2001) states that it depends on whether we are dealing with *declarative knowledge,* i.e., facts like proposition (arguments and relation), images, and sequences, or *Procedural knowledge*, i.e., those which become automated over time. He then adds that if we are teaching students' facts and propositions such as mere grammar, we are teaching students knowledge; however, if we are trying to use that knowledge practically in a context, then we are making it automatic, and it changes into an automated ability. Similarly, Krashen (1981) believes in his input hypothesis that we must provide students with input that is *i+1*. So according to him, we teach students knowledge of language. In the meantime, Krashen (1987) believed that we teach grammar and grammatical rules to our students because we would like them to utilize conscious rules to raise their grammatical accuracy when it does not interfere with communication. However, in his later article, Krashen (1992) states that there are also several serious problems with the hypothesis that direct instruction plays a major role in developing language competence. It has been argued by Krashen (1992) that language is too complex to be deliberately taught and learned as knowledge, and there is evidence that people develop high levels of L2 competence without formal instruction. Nevertheless, he argues that even for teaching an issue such as grammar, it is better to teach it indirectly, e.g., through reading and making students interested in books and by so doing,

presenting students with the skill of reading which will ensure continued grammatical development (as well as improvement in vocabulary, spelling, and writing style) long after the language course ends. In the meantime, he states that since no learning becomes acquisition to get automated and change into ability, we must provide students with large doses of acquisition activity, not direct knowledge. Similar to Krashen (1981); Pienemann (1984, cited in Krashen, 1993) states in his teachability hypothesis that form-focused instruction will work if it is at the i+1 of the acquirer/learner so that it (knowledge) would become comprehensible for learners.

Looking at the issue from another perspective, Johnson (2002) believes that there is no fully-fledged 'skill-bases approach' to LT, but we can perhaps see the beginning of one in the work where general learning theory concepts are applied to LL. One such concept is *automization*, the idea that things learned become more automatic through practice. He further states that just below the surface in much discussion on automization is the notion of task-based teaching; perhaps by grading the tasks that we give learners; we can slowly lead them toward automization.

What separates the expert teacher from one with "growth potential" is the possession of four types of knowledge (Bruer, 1999; Darling-Hammond, 1999):

- **Knowledge of Content.** The expert teacher has a body of knowledge related to the content or subject matter that is to be taught. The math teacher knows a lot about math, the social studies teacher knows a lot about social studies, etc. This body of knowledge guides the expert teacher in deciding what is taught and in what order. What about the elementary teacher or the special education teacher?

- **Pedagogical Knowledge**. *Pedagogy* is the art and science of teaching. Expert teachers know a variety of skills, strategies, techniques, and methods to impart knowledge or enhance learning. Effective teachers have a toolbox filled with a variety of pedagogical skills they can use with a variety of students in a variety of situations.

- **Pedagogical Content Knowledge**. Pedagogical content knowledge is an understand of how to teach specific content or skills. For example, you know the best strategies for teaching reading, science, math, or writing. Also, you understand how to convert your knowledge into information that students can

understand. You can break things into manageable parts, use kid language to make things clear and simple, and design activities that help students understand.

- **Knowledge of Learners and Learning**. You understand the learning process, you know how students best learn, and you recognize link between what you do and student learning. Here you understand human development, theories of learning.

17.2.1. Demystifying the concept of knowledge, skill, and ability

Knowledge is the content of technical information needed to perform adequately in the job at an acceptable level, usually obtained through formal education and on-the-job experience. This knowledge is necessary for job performance but is not sufficient on its own.

Skill is a special ability or technique acquired by special training in either an intellectual or physical area. Skills can include listening, communicating, organisation, design and programming. Skills allow the individual to select the most appropriate behaviour or action to suit task requirements.

Abilities are the possession of natural competencies or cognitive factors which represent the individual's proficiencies or current stage of development. Although abilities are natural predispositions, they can be developed to generate further achievements. The ability to learn quickly, for example, may be considered as more valuable than current knowledge levels, as the ability of learning will in time generate a wealth of knowledge.

17.3. ENGLISH AS (THE) LANGUAGE OF SCIENCE

Science can be seen as an ongoing process of inquiry directed at finding the truth of things in our universe. Man's insatiable thirst for increasing his knowledge and his un-ended quest for discovering the truth of statements defining the realities of the universe have ultimately led to the emergence of epistemological systems. However, to establish the truth of statements - that is, arguments making claims about different issues, the philosophers of science have come up with some kind of scientific justification in terms of confirmation. By establishing the relevance between theory and evidence, through the application of verifiability principle and falsifiability principle, scientists try to enhance the credibility of the epistemological world to which they belong. Putting philosophical reasoning aside, looking for truth, for experiencing the world, is believed to be instinctive. Had it not been

so, we would still have been living as primitive beings in caves. Generally speaking, human history has witnessed a perpetual process of language evolution or devolution through time. In the past, other languages like Arabic, Roman, French and German enjoyed their own periods of language spread and global popularity. Currently however, English has gained itself a charismatic status so that all nations on the globe tend to use English as the language of science. It is mainly realized that there are numerous reasons why languages pass through the processes of distinction or extinction according to the special roles they play in human societies (Barjesteh, Biria & Bahdoran, 2018).

17.4. WHAT ARE THE RECENT METHODS USED IN TEACHING SCIENCES?

For teaching sciences, a number of approaches are available. One of them mostly used in the United States is known as Adjunct Model. In this approach, the language teacher and subject teacher work cooperatively for attaining the course outcomes. Another method widely used in ESP/ academic contexts is CLIL, which stands for Content and Language Integrated Learning and is used for teaching subjects such as science, history and geography to students through a foreign language. Generally speaking, the application of language teaching methods for learning another language has been received differently by different people. However, in self- learning of a language by an adult learner, the question of method is crucial. Currently, the effectiveness of Vaughan Methodology, which combines the features of Audiolingualism and GTM, has been approved by various individuals (Barjesteh, Biria & Bahdoran, 2018).

17.5. IS SCIENCE AN ART?

Traditionally, it is often stated that science and art are diametrically opposed since their areas of interest are totally different. However, there are those who maintain that science is an art. They reason that if art is the creation of beautiful and aesthetic things, then one can say that a good scientific theory is also beautiful because it is intellectually stimulating for two basic reasons. First, it brings us closer to world realities. Second, it harmonizes with other theories and evokes admiration. On this basis, like an artist, a scientist is also looking for beauty and excellence.

17.5.1. Is it possible to consider academic teaching as an art?

One of the theoretical conceptions regarding teaching assumes that teaching can be considered in terms of both art and craft. Under such perspectivization, teachers use their own personal craftsmanship and artistry in order to establish the necessary rapport between themselves and their learners. These teachers mostly rely on their personal beliefs and values and try to make the best use of different approaches to meet the pedagogical ends meet. On this basis, teaching theories and principles are the educational background against which teachers' arts and crafts are fore-grounded.

17.5.2. Is teaching a science, an art, or a craft?

A science: It is a science in that there are strategies and practices that a body of research has shown to be effective in enhancing learning. Just like doctors, teachers should use research to inform their practice. On the individual level teaching is a science also in that teachers are constantly collecting data by observing their students in order to see if learning is taking place and how they learn best. And, like scientists, teachers experiment with new techniques or strategies to see how they work.

An art: It is an art in that teachers must bring themselves fully into their teaching. As a teacher you will need to find the methods and strategies that work best for you. Teachers are not standardized products. What works for one teacher may not work for another. Thus, all the teaching strategies that you learn should be adopted and adapted to fit your particular teaching situation and your personal teaching style. To be an effective teacher you must carve out your own teaching philosophy and discover your own unique talents and learn how to use them.

A craft: Teaching might also be described as a craft. A craft is a skill or set of skills learned through experience. This is exactly what teaching is. This means that one cannot expect to leave a college teacher preparation program as a finished teaching product. Teaching is a complex, multi-dimensional endeavor; not something that can be mastered in four semesters. Master teachers develop over time through experience and continued study and reflection. Undergraduate and post-baccalaureate teacher preparation programs will not teach you how to teach; instead, they will give you the basis upon which to learn how to teach. Does this mean teacher education programs are of little value? Certainly not. There is a fairly substantial body of research that indicates that teacher education programs improve teachers' performance and their students' achievement (Wilscon, Flodenk, & Ferrini-

Mundy, 2001). However, becoming a master teacher happens over time with continued professional development and reflection.

17.6. CONCLUSION

Science is defined as, "a study of anything that can be tested, examined or verified". The teacher is always studying the situation and examining what they can do. Teaching is hence both, an art and Science. Teaching requires both art and science. It is a science in that there are strategies and practices that a body of research has shown to be effective in enhancing learning. Just like doctors, teachers should use research to inform their practice. Teaching as an art because it demonstrates ways in which the teacher may use creative ways to present the material so it is fun and interesting for his or her students. Some examples are games, "hands-on" activities, and/ or movies relating to the topics being covered.

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Chapter 18

Language Awareness

CONTENTS

18.1. OVERVIEW

Educational philosophers all over the world have long emphasized the role of general language awareness in human development. However, it is only recently that concerted efforts have been made in educational circles to relate language awareness directly to educational policies. Two prominent movements that have recently contributed to such efforts in the West are the Language Awareness movement in the United Kingdom and the Whole Language movement in the United States (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Since the early 1980s, Language Awareness has become a major concern in language education. There has been much discussion of Language Awareness both in relation to the language development of students and, to a lesser extent, in connection with the study and analysis of language by teachers of language (e.g., Carter, 1994; Donmall, 1985; Fairclough, 1992; Hawkins, 1984; James and Garrett, 1991; McCarthy and Carter, 1994; Sinclair, 1985; van Lier, 1995, 1996, cited in Andrews, 2007). The so-called Language Awareness Movement, which has embraced both mother-tongue and second/foreign language teaching, has sought to find ways of improving the language awareness of students and of their teachers.

An underlying belief behind the movement is that students who are able to analyze and describe language accurately are likely to be more effective users of the language. In the case of teachers, it is assumed that an understanding of the language they teach and the ability to analyze it will contribute directly to teaching effectiveness (Andrews, 2007). This is the view expressed by Edge (1989, cited in Andrews, 2007): "My position on this may seem over-conservative in some circles … but I want to argue that knowledge about language and LL still has a central role to play in EL teacher training for speakers of other languages" (p. 9). Recent research (e.g., Andrews, 1999; McNeill, 1999) suggests that TLA does have the potential to exert a powerful influence upon teaching effectiveness, at least as far as L2 teachers are concerned. Language Awareness Association and Journal were the outcomes of a growing interest in language awareness, originally in the 1970s and burgeoning in the 1980s, especially in Britain where Language Awareness is frequently referred to as 'Knowledge about Language.'

18.2. WHAT IS LANGUAGE AWARENESS?

When we know something, we generally know that we know it, as Spinoza remarked a few centuries ago (Van Lier, 1998). However, it is not always

the case that we know *how* we know what we know. Language awareness refers to the development in learners of an enhanced consciousness of and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language (Carter, 2003). The approach has been developed in contexts of both second and FLL, and in mother-tongue language education, where the term 'knowledge about language' has sometimes been preferred. Tunmer et al. (1984, cited in Jessner, 2006) argues, "to be metalinguistically aware is to begin to appreciate that the stream of speech, beginning with the acoustical signal and ending with the speaker's intended meaning, can be looked at with the mind's eye and taken apart" (p. 12).

18.3. CRITICAL LANGUAGE AWARENESS

The principles and practices of critical language awareness (CLA) can be traced to the contributions made by, among others, Fairclough (1992, 1995, cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2003) and his colleagues in Britain, and later by Luke (1996, 1997, cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2003) and his colleagues in Australia. Without dismissing the basic linguistic and sociolinguistic aspects of general language awareness, advocates of CLA seek to consider the sociopolitical nature of language use as well. They particularly wish to acknowledge and act upon the fact that language, any language, is implicitly linked to the exercise of power. Therefore, given that "power relations work increasingly at an implicit level through language, and given that language practices are increasingly targets for intervention and control, a critical awareness of language is a prerequisite for effective citizenship, and democratic entitlement" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 222, cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

Like critical pedagogists, CLA advocates, too, assert that a critical awareness of the word is essential to develop a critical awareness of the world. They also see language education as a prime source for sensitizing learners to social inequalities that confront them and for developing necessary capabilities for addressing those inequalities. CLA, therefore, should be fully integrated not only with the development of language practices across the curriculum but also with the development of the individual learner's intellectual capabilities that are required for long-term, multifaceted struggles in various sociopolitical arenas (Fairclough, 1992, cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

18.4. LEVELS OF LANGUAGE AWARENESS

One of the most persistent problems with the notion of consciousness in L2 education is the distinction between intuitive awareness of language and metalinguistic knowledge. Gombert (1992, cited in van Lier, 1998) distinguishes between *epilinguistic* and *metalinguistic* control. Van Lier (1998) has made a similar distinction between *practical/narrative* and *academic/technical* control, and language awareness comprises both these levels of linguistic knowledge, which relate to each other in intricate and dynamic ways. However, rather than a straightforward distinction between two types of awareness, van Lier (1998) proposes multiple layers of language awareness, and among these, B's linguistic skill demonstrated in Extract 1 demonstrates all layers. This view might be represented as in Figure 18.1.
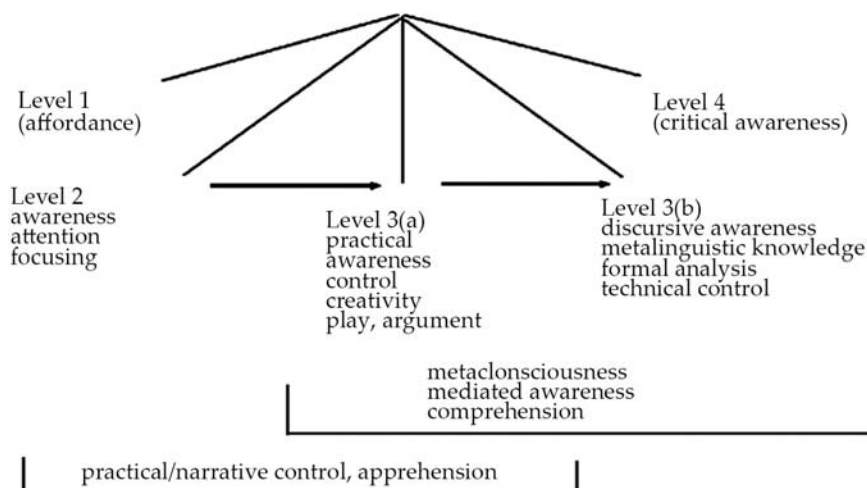
Figure 18.1. *Levels of language awareness.*

Hawkins (1984, cited in Cook, 2008) believes that if the students know the kind of thing to expect in the new language, they are more receptive to it.

18.5. TEACHER LANGUAGE AWARENESS (TLA)

According to Thornbury (1997, cited in Andrews, 2007), TLA is "the knowledge that teachers have of the underlying systems of the language that enables them to teach effectively" (p. x).

Wright and Bolitho's (1997, cited in Elder, Erlam, and Philp, 2009) model of classroom language content and use, emphasizes the interconnection between proficiency and language awareness and argues that a teacher's

language awareness (TLA) incorporates both knowledge about the language and knowledge of the language. Particular to TLA is a metacognitive aspect, drawing from both types of knowledge, which enables the teacher to plan learning activities, modify, and mediate input from other sources and respond to learner production and questions in the context of such activities. As Wright (2002, cited in Ellis et al., 2009) notes, "a linguistically aware teacher not only understands how language works, but understands the student's struggle with language and is sensitive to errors and other Interlanguage features" (p. 115). According to Willis and Willis (2007), thinking about language is divided into two parts, namely *language focus* and *form focus*. In form-focused learning, learners work on recognizing or manipulating the forms of the language in a number of ways, such as consciousness-raising, recalling, extension, correction, and exam practice.

18.6. EXPLICIT VS. IMPLICIT KNOWLEDGE ABOUT LANGUAGE

There is a distinction between 'conscious or overt knowledge about language' and 'intuitive awareness that children demonstrate when they use language,' i.e., between explicit and implicit knowledge (Goodman, 1990, cited in Andrews, 2007). In the L2 context, explicit knowledge refers to knowledge about language that speakers are aware of and, if asked, can verbalize (Ellis, 2003). Explicit knowledge is defined by Ellis (2004, cited in Andrews, 2007) as declarative knowledge of "the phonological, lexical, grammatical, pragmatic, and socio-critical features of an L2" (p. 224). According to Ellis (2004, cited in Andrews, 2007), such knowledge "is held consciously and is learnable and verbalizable. It is typically accessed through controlled processing when L2 learners experience some kind of difficulty in the use of the L2" (p. 245). Explicit knowledge includes what Ellis (2004, cited in Andrews, 2007) calls 'metalingual knowledge,' that is, knowledge of the technical terminology for labeling those linguistic and socio-critical features.

According to Barkhuizen and Ellis (2005), negotiation of meaning can trigger conscious noticing. As Schmidt (1990, 1994, cited in Barkhuizen and Ellis, 2005) has posited it, negotiation of meaning is required in order for learners to process input for intake. According to Long (1996, cited in Barkhuizen and Ellis, 2005):

…it is proposed that environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner's developing L2 processing

capacity, and that these resources are brought together more usefully, although not exclusively, during 'negotiation for meaning' (p. 414).

Explicit knowledge facilitates processes such as 'noticing' and 'noticing the gap' (Schmidt, 1994, cited in Andrews, 2007), which have been claimed to be crucial to L2 acquisition. That is to say, explicit knowledge of a grammatical structure makes it more likely learners will attend to the structure in the input and carry out the cognitive comparison between what they observe in the input and their own output (Ellis, 2005, cited in Andrews, 2007). It has been argued that there can be no L2 learning without attention and noticing, although it is possible that learners may learn one thing when their primary objective is to do something else (Schmidt, 1993, cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006). As Hulstjin (2003, cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006) concluded in a recent review:

On the one hand, both incidental and intentional learning require some attention and noticing. On the other hand, however, attention is deliberately directed to committing new information to memory in the case of intentional learning, whereas the involvement of attention is not deliberately geared toward an articulated learning goal in the case of incidental learning (p. 361).

18.7. CONSCIOUSNESS

According to Ellis (1994, cited in Andrews, 2007), "Underlying the whole question of the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge and how they are internalized is the question of consciousness in LL" (p. 361). Schmidt (1990, cited in Andrews, 2007), in exploring the role of consciousness in L2 learning, adopts the view that the importance of unconscious learning (i.e., Krashen's acquisition model) has been exaggerated. He argues instead that learners have to pay some kind of attention to language forms in order for acquisition to occur. Schmidt distinguishes between three senses of the word 'conscious': 'Consciousness as awareness,' 'consciousness as intention,' and 'consciousness as knowledge.'

18.8. LEVELS OF AWARENESS

Schmidt (1990, cited in Andrews, 2007) differentiates between levels of awareness, which he labels 'perception,' 'noticing,' and 'understanding.'

18.8.1. Perception

It is generally believed that all perception implies mental organization and the ability to create internal representations of external events (Baars, 1986; Oakley, 1985, cited in Schmidt, 1990). However, perceptions are not necessarily conscious, and subliminal perception is also possible.

18.8.2. Noticing

Noticing (focal awareness): Bowers (1984, cited in Schmidt, 1990) points out the crucial distinction between information that is perceived (input) and information that is noticed (intake). He (1990, cited in Fotos, 1993) argues that intake or noticing linguistic forms is critical to subsequently processing of the forms. There are a variety of terms for what Schmidt (1990) calls noticing, including *focal awareness, episodic awareness,* and *apperceived input* (Gass, 1988, cited in Schmidt, 1990). What these constructs have in common is that they identify the level at which stimuli are subjectively experienced. Noticing thus refers to private experience, although noticing can be operationally defined as availability for verbal report, subject to certain conditions (Schmidt, 1990). Concerning the role ascribed to noticing as a trigger for language processing, Sharwood Smith (1981); Rutherford (1987); and McLaughlin (1987, cited in Fotos, 1993) have considered that a language learner goes through four general processing steps:

- A feature in processed input is noticed, either consciously or unconsciously.
- An unconscious comparison is made between existing linguistic knowledge, also called Interlanguage, and the new input.
- New linguistic hypotheses are constructed on the basis of the differences between the new information and the current Interlanguage.
- The new hypotheses are tested through attending to input and also through learner output using the new form.

18.8.3. Understanding

Noticing is the basic sense in which we commonly say that we are aware of something, but does not exhaust the possibilities. Having noticed some aspect of the environment, we can analyze it and compare it to what we have noticed on other occasions. We can reflect on the objects of consciousness and attempt to comprehend their significance, and we can experience insight

and understanding. All of this mental activity—what we commonly think of as thinking—goes on within consciousness. Problem solving belongs to this level of consciousness, as do metacognition (awareness of awareness) of all types (Schmidt, 1990).

18.9. CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING

The term 'consciousness-raising,' as used by Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985, cited in Fotos, 1993), refers to increased learner awareness of particular linguistic features and is aimed at raising learner consciousness of specific grammatical structures through various treatments. We should seriously consider the pedagogic grammar hypothesis (PGH) proposed by Sharwood Smith (1980, cited in Rutherford and Sharwood Smith, 1985):

Instructional strategies which draw the attention of the learner to specifically structural regularities of the language, as distinct from the message content, will under certain conditions significantly increase the rate of acquisition over and above the rate expected from learners acquiring that language under natural circumstances where attention to form may be minimal and sporadic (p. 275).

One term which has come to the fore in relation to the reassessment of the role of consciousness and of explicit knowledge of grammar in L2 acquisition is consciousness-raising (Rutherford and Sharwood Smith, 1985; Sharwood Smith, 1981; Rutherford, 1987, cited in Andrews, 2007). Consciousness-raising for Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988, cited in Andrews, 2007) is not seen as referring just to one type of classroom activity, or one set of roles for teacher and learner. Instead, the term applies to activities on a continuum ranging from, at one end, the intensive promotion of conscious awareness via the articulation of pedagogical rules through to, at the other end, simply exposing the learner to specific grammatical phenomena. This broad conceptualization of consciousness-raising, therefore, incorporates varying degrees of explicitness and elaboration by the teacher; and the possibility, but not the necessity, of learners 'verbalizing' or 'articulating' what they have become aware of (Sharwood Smith, 1981, cited in Andrews, 2007). According to Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985), "By consciousness-raising, we mean the deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the TL" (p. 274).

Fotos (1993, cited in Ellis, 2008) was able to show that the explicit knowledge the learners gained from her CR tasks may have aided the processes believed to be involved in the acquisition of implicit knowledge.

She showed that completing the CR tasks aided subsequent noticing of the targeted features. Several weeks after the completion of the CR tasks, the learners in her study completed a number of dictations that included exemplars of the target structures. They were then asked to underline any particular bit of language they had paid special attention to as they did the dictation. Fotos found that they frequently underlined the structures that had been targeted in the CR tasks. According to Willis and Willis (2007), in one of the techniques related to the form-focused instruction in which learners work with text to find:

- Ways of expressing specific meanings, e.g., ways of giving permission; time phrases;
- Phrases with specific words, e.g., learners might be asked to identify phrases with 'me' as a way of highlighting permission and obligation; or phrases with particular prepositions as a way of highlighting time phrases;
- Words or phrases they think will be useful in the future (Willis and Willis, 2007, p. 133).

18.10. CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING TASKS

There are many ways of drawing attention to form without indulging in metalinguistic discussion (Rutherford and Sharwood Smith, 1985). A simple example would be the use of typographical conventions such as underlining or capitalizing a particular grammatical surface feature, where you merely ask the learner to pay attention to anything that is underlined or capitalized. Another example would be the deliberate exposure of the learner to an artificially large number of instances of some target structure in the language on the assumption that the very high frequency of the structure in question will attract the learner's attention to the relevant formal regularities. Interaction logs train students to think about their language use and particularly to notice the gap between their L2 language use and the language use of native or fluent speakers of the L2. They provide a means for learners to be detectives in the sense that they are responsible for gathering their own language data, analyzing evidence, and making and testing hypotheses. The logs are language diaries in which students write down what fluent speakers say, how they say it, in what situations and with whom, and how NSs react when a learner says something (Cohen, 1999, cited in Gass and Selinker, 2008). An advantage of interaction logs is that they allow learners to analyze their own language in a format that goes

beyond the ephemeral speech signal. Learners can record their own speech in writing and save it until a time when they can appropriately analyze it.

Furthermore, instructed learning can offer a context for focus on form (Gass and Selinker, 2008). Hawkins (1984, cited in Cook, 2008) maintains that the learners' general awareness of language should be raised before they start learning the L2, partly through grammar. He advocates an 'exploratory approach' in which the students investigate grammar, e.g., by deciding where to insert 'see-through' in the language. The textbook, *Learning to Learn English* (Ellis and Sinclair, 1989, cited in Cook, 2008) provides some exercises to make EFL learners more aware of their own predilections, for instance, suggesting ways for the students to discover grammatical rules themselves. Riley (1985, cited in Cook, 2008) suggested 'sensitization' of the students by using features of the L1 to help them to understand the second, say, by discussing puns to help them to see how speech is split up into words.

Sharwood Smith (1988, cited in McDonough, 2002) has argued that one role of grammar teaching is 'consciousness-raising' making structural relationships more transparent to the learner's self-observation. A related idea is 'input enhancement,' in which the teacher's role is to edit the language input (in his/her speed of delivery and intonation, and the teaching materials by using highlights of various kinds, including electronic ones) in such a way as to make the new relationships more obvious to the learner, to 'focus on form' without distracting the learner with difficult formulations of a grammatical rule taken from a descriptive grammar.

The concept of input enhancement highlights ways in which input is made salient to learners (Sharwood Smith, 1991, cited in Gass and Selinker, 2008). Input enhancement can take place in a number of ways, through drawing attention to a form, e.g., by coloring or boldfacing in written input. Understanding the importance of input enhancement is the concept of noticing. Given that input enhancement is a means of drawing a learner's attention to something, an underlying assumption is that noticing is a prerequisite to processing of the input. Salience can come about by a learner's own internal device (his/her own processing mechanisms) or by something that is externally created; this latter is input enhancement. Sharwood Smith (1991, cited in Gass and Selinker, 2008) refers to two variables involved in externally created salience: elaboration (e.g., repetition) and explicitness (e.g., metalinguistic information). An example of an implicit means of promoting student noticing is the use of some sort

of 'input enhancement' (Sharwood Smith, 1993, cited in Schmitt, 2002). It might take the form of 'input flooding,' that is, increasing the number of times that students encounter the target structure in a particular text. Another possibility for enhancing the input is for the teacher to modify the text features in some fashion, such as bold-facing the target structures to make them more salient to students. An example of encouraging noticing through interaction is accomplished through guided participation (Adair-Hauck, Donato, and Cumo-Johanssen, 2000, cited in Schmitt, 2002), in which the teacher carefully leads students to awareness that they did not have before-it is neither an inductive nor deductive process, then, but rather teacher and students collaborate to produce a co-constructed grammar explanation.

Peer interaction has also been used effectively in promoting noticing through the use of specific 'consciousness-raising tasks' (Ellis and Fotos, 1991, cited in Schmitt, 2002) in which students are given data, such as a set of grammatical and ungrammatical sentences, and are encouraged to discover the grammatical generalization for themselves. Fotos and Ellis (1991, cited in Fotos, 1993) have proposed the use of a task type called the grammar consciousness-raising task. This is a communicative task with a grammar problem to be solved interactively as the task content. Such a format integrates grammar instruction with the provision of opportunities for meaning-focused use of the TL. The object of grammar consciousness-raising task performance is to raise learners' consciousness of particular grammatical features through the development of explicit knowledge. Studies provide evidence that learning can benefit from instruction that focuses on form, which is often called 'consciousness-raising' (Davies and Elder, 2006). Willis (1996, cited in Kaplan, 2002) proposes a task-based methodology that (a) primes a topic area, (b) requires task-based language use, and then (c) provides learners with opportunities to reflect upon the language that completing the task has made salient. Learners will have been induced to notice a gap, and then consolidate it (Swain, 1995, cited in Kaplan, 2002). The following Microstrategic tips have been proposed by Kumaravadivelu (2003) to foster general or CLA:

- Have representatives from groups briefly share their discussion with the entire class. Let them also talk about any disagreements within their groups.
- Have individual learners make a list of terms they use to address family members (grandfather, grandmother, father, mother, elder brother, younger brother, elder sister, younger sister, etc.), in their cultural communities. Specifically, ask them to think about when

and where they use the address forms they listed, and when and where (and if) they use actual names to address family members. Allow them to use their L1 script if they wish, but advise them to give English gloss as well.

- Divide the class into small groups (or form pairs, depending on your convenience). Ask the learners to share their list with others and compare how forms of address work within a family in different linguistic or cultural communities.

- Have them talk about how factors such as setting, age, and gender of participants affect forms of address, and in what contexts boundaries may be crossed.

- Again, in small groups, ask them to compare how forms of address are structured in their L1 (or in various L1's represented in class) and in L2. Depending on the proficiency level and cultural knowledge of your students, you may have to give them different forms of address in L2.

- Ask the students to share some of their salient points with the class. Lead a detailed discussion on any selected issues that came up in small groups.

- Help them (if necessary, through leading questions) reflect on how different forms of address may actually reveal cultural values and beliefs, and how these are reflected in language use.

18.11. FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION

Today, only a handful of language-teaching experts advocate what Ellis (1997, p. 47, cited in Brown, 2001) referred to as "the zero option of no form-focused instruction at all," a prime advocate of which is Krashen with his 'input hypothesis.' Current views of L2 classroom methodology are almost universally agreed on the importance of some form-focused instruction within the communicative framework, ranging from explicit treatment of rules to noticing and consciousness-raising (Fotos and Ellis, 1991; Fotos, 1994, cited in Brown, 2001) techniques for structuring input to learners. The forms of language include the organizational components of language and the systematic rules that govern their structure. Phonological, grammatical, and lexical forms occupy the three principal formal categories that typically appear in a language curriculum (Brown, 2001). According to Gass and Selinker (2008), "Learner-generated attention to form may not

always come naturally and, clearly, may require some pedagogical training" (p. 381).

Ellis (1990, cited in Fotos, 1993) presents a view of language acquisition (LA) based on the position that it is through formal instruction that learners become aware of particular features of the TL and form explicit representations of what they are taught. According to Ellis's (1990, cited in Fotos, 1993) theory, once consciousness of a particular feature has been raised through formal instruction, learners continue to remain aware of the feature and notice it in subsequent communicative input, events considered to be necessary prerequisite for language processing leading to the eventual acquisition of the feature. Lightbown (1992, cited in Fotos, 1993) notes that learners who received formal instruction on the forms-maintained proficiency gains or even improved in accuracy if they had subsequent exposure to communicative language containing the forms, and were motivated to acquire them to improve their communicative skills. In this response, one function of formal instruction is to raise learner consciousness of a particular grammatical feature, which is then noticed by learners in subsequent meaning-focused input.

In the context of helping learners to actively engage form and meaning in a principled way, Long (1991, 1996, cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006) proposed what is called 'focus on form' or FonF, not to be confused with form-focused input. According to Long (1991, cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006), FonF "overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (p. 46) and "consists of an occasion shift of attention to linguistic code features—by the teacher and/or one or some students—triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production" (Long and Robinson, 1998, p. 23, cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006). In other words, the learner's attention to linguistic features will be drawn explicitly if and only if it is necessitated by communicative demand.

Long (1989, cited in Kaplan, 2002) argues that tasks that promote interaction will bring with them negotiation for meaning and that this negotiation will generate the focus-on-form and feedback that learners require to make progress. A study by Alvarez-Torrez, Fernandez-Garcia, Gass, and Mackey (1999, cited in Gass and Selinker, 2008) supports the notion that freeing up the cognitive burden of focusing on both form and meaning allows greater opportunity to focus on form.

Proponents of the 'Get it right in the end' position recognizes an important role for form-focused instruction, but they do not assume that everything has

to be taught. They argue that what learners focus on can eventually lead to changes in their Interlanguage systems, not just to an appearance of change (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Like advocates of the 'Let's talk,' 'Two for one' and the 'Just listen … and read' positions, they have concluded that many language features—from pronunciation to vocabulary and grammar—will be acquired naturally if learners have adequate exposure to the language and a motivation to learn (Krashen, 1982, cited in Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Several studies suggest that adults can not only increase their L2 proficiency in information environments but may do as well as or better than learners who have spent a comparable amount of time in formal situations (Krashen, 1988).

Proposals by two researchers (Ellis, 1990; Schmidt, 1990, cited in Fotos, 1993) are based on the view of formal instruction as consciousness-raising. Other studies have examined the relative effects of metalinguistic explanations provided by the teacher (i.e., deductive FFI) and consciousness-raising (CR) tasks where learners discover rules for themselves (i.e., inductive FFI). Fotos and Ellis (1991, cited in Ellis, 2008) found that both teacher-provided metalinguistic explanation and a CR task resulted in significant gains in understanding of the target structure (dative alternation), although the former seemed to produce the more durable gains. Recent experimental research on SLA has contrasted the effects of learning under conditions that instruct participants to consciously focus on form with those of learning under conditions that require meaning-based or memory-based processing with no conscious focus on form (Alanen, 1995; de Graaff, in press; De Keyser, 1994, 1995; Doughty, 1991; Ellis, 1993; Hulstijn, 1989; Leeman, Arteagoitia, Fridman, and Doughty, 1995; Robinson, 1996a, in press; also, Ellis, 1994a, for a review of issues in implicit and explicit LL, and Long and Robinson, in press, for a review of studies of the effects of focus on form, cited in Robinson, 1997). Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1995; Schmidt and Frota, 1986, cited in Robinson, 1997) has argued that conscious *noticing* of the form of input is necessary to subsequent L2 development and that consciousness at the level of rule awareness strongly facilitates subsequent learning. In contrast, Krashen (1981, 1982, 1985, 1992, 1994, cited in Robinson, 1997) has argued that L2 development is largely the result of unconscious acquisition processes that are facilitated by a focus on meaning alone.

Grammar instruction is of two types: *'focus on form'* and *'focus on formS.'* The former refers to drawing students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or

communication (Long, 1991, cited in Sheen, 2002). The latter is equated with the traditional teaching of discrete points of grammar in separate lessons, and as such, also includes the approach advocated by DeKeyser (1998, cited in Sheen, 2002). Text enhancement is a meaning-based approach to focus on form with an input orientation. In-text enhancement, a targeted form is highlighted throughout a written text to make it more salient. Learners read for meaning, and as they do so, they should notice the highlighted forms as well (van Patten, 2002).

In the latter part of the 20th century, the role of form-focused instruction in L2 education, i.e., explicit teaching of grammar, was challenged in a number of ways, particularly as a result of the advent of the CLT, causing a switch of attention from teaching the language system to teaching the language as communication (Howatt, 1984, cited in Andrews, 2007). Yet, as Roberts (1998, cited in Andrews, 2007) observed, "It is a myth to assert that CLT has no place for grammar in the formal sense" (p. 150).

18.12. CONCLUSION

Form-focused instruction and corrective feedback within communicative and content-based second and foreign language programs can help learners to improve their knowledge and use of particular grammatical features (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). In particular, a realization that a focus-on-form by learners cannot be guaranteed but has to be designed into TBI is an important pointer to future developments. Perhaps, Spada's, 1997, cited in Kaplan, 2002) conclusion that form-based and meaning-based approaches need not be in opposition to each other but can operate synergistically is the most realistic current judgment.

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Chapter 19

Foreign Language Learner Autonomy

CONTENTS

19.1. OVERVIEW

Since its inception over three decades ago, the autonomy approach in language learning/teaching has fostered a powerful investigation drive that has led to an increasing number of pedagogical assumptions and implications at various levels of the learning/teaching process. Autonomy is considered desirable for philosophical, pedagogical, and practical reasons. There are levels or degrees to learner autonomy, and that it is not an absolute concept. Any serious promotion of learner autonomy involves the willing cooperation of teachers as well as learners. Language learners are more likely to operate as independent flexible users of their TL if their classroom experience has already pushed them in this direction; by the same token, language teachers are more likely to succeed in promoting learner autonomy if their own education has encouraged them to be autonomous.

The theoretical and pedagogical rationale for the implementation of more learner-centered approaches to teaching dates back to halfway through the 20th century. Starting from the 1950s, and influenced by the work of George Kelly (1955, as cited in Reinders, 2010) and others in psychology, there emerged an increased recognition of the importance of the learner as an active individual who brings previous experiences, beliefs, and preferences to the classroom. Further along the way, at the turn of the 1970's and the beginning of the 1980's and with the advent of CLT which put the learner at the center of L2 pedagogy, the field of second/foreign LT has entered a new era in which the importance of helping students become more autonomous in their learning has become one of the prominent themes in the field (Reinders, 2010). This chapter presents various definitions of the notion of language learner autonomy, and review some key concepts related to this topic; it also presents two models of L2 learner autonomy and then taps the levels of autonomy. Finally, it makes an attempt to deal with the issue of autonomy within the classroom situation and what teachers can do to foster autonomy in language learning.

19.2. SIGNIFICANCE OF LEARNER AUTONOMY

Autonomy is considered desirable for philosophical, pedagogical, and practical reasons (Cotterall, 1995). The philosophical rationale behind autonomy is the belief that learners have the right to make choices with regard to their learning. Furthermore, many writers have pointed out the importance of preparing learners for a rapidly changing future, in which independence in learning will be vital for effective functioning in society.

Helping learners become more independent in their learning is one way of maximizing their life choices. Littlejohn (1985, as cited in Cotterall, 1995) suggests that one outcome of learners acting more autonomously may be an increase in enthusiasm for learning.

Promoting learner autonomy can also be justified on pedagogical grounds, since adults demonstrably learn more, and more effectively, when they are consulted about dimensions such as the pace, sequence, mode of instruction and even the content of what they are studying (Candy, 1988, as cited in Cotterall, 1995). Learners who are involved in making choices and decisions about aspects of the program are also likely to feel more secure in their learning. The practical argument for promoting learner autonomy is quite simply that a teacher may not always be available to assist (Cotterall, 1995). Learners need to be able to learn on their own because they do not always have access to the kind or amount of individual instruction they need in order to become proficient in the language. Finally, learners become more efficient in their LL if they do not have to spend time waiting for the teacher to provide them with resources or solve their problems (Cotterall, 1995).

19.3. DEFINITIONS OF LEARNER AUTONOMY

Although learner autonomy has been one of the dominant topics in LT over the last three decades, an all-encompassing definition has still to be achieved. To its advocates the development of autonomy implies better LL. But what does autonomy really mean? Defining autonomy can be demanding because of its broad and abstract nature.

One of the earliest and most frequently cited definitions of autonomy in the field of LT/learning is found in Holec's (1981, as cited in De Florio-Hansen, 2009) report to the Council of Europe where Holec defines learner autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning, to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning." As such, Holec (1981, as cited in Dickinson, 1994) suggests that autonomous learners are capable of managing their own learning in that they are capable of making the whole range of decisions necessary to plan and carry out a learning program. Such decisions include choosing suitable learning objectives and deciding upon appropriate content and learning materials to accomplish the chosen learning objectives. It also involves making decisions about the methods and techniques to be used in successfully completing the task, and finally monitoring and evaluating what has been acquired. Holec began by defining learner autonomy as the "ability to take charge of one's

own learning," noting that this ability "is not inborn but must be acquired either by 'natural' means or by formal learning, i.e., in a systematic, deliberate way," and pointing out that "*To take charge of one's learning* is to have the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning" (Holec, 1981, as cited in Little, 2004). Although Holec frequently discussed the qualities of autonomous learners, his description of taking charge of one's own learning, which emphasized planning, the selection of materials, monitoring learning progress and self-assessment, arguably focused on the mechanics of day-to-day learning management. In contrast, Little (1991, as cited in Smith, 2003) placed psychology at the heart of learner autonomy. In his definition, Little combined Holec's definition with his own as follows:

"Autonomy in LL depends on the development and exercise of a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action; autonomous learners assume responsibility for determining the purpose, content, rhythm, and method of their learning, monitoring its progress and evaluating its outcomes" (Little, 1991, as cited in Smith, 2003).

Littlewood (1996) defines an autonomous person as one who has an independent capacity to make and carry out the choices which govern his or her actions. To him, this capacity depends on two main components: *ability* and *willingness.* Ability and willingness can themselves each be divided into two subcomponents. Ability depends on possessing both *knowledge* about the alternatives from which choices have to be made and the necessary *skills* for carrying out whatever choices seem most appropriate. Willingness depends on having both the *motivation* and the *confidence* to take responsibility for the choices required. If a person is to be successful in acting autonomously, all of these four components need to be present together. Three years later, Littlewood (1999) proposes a distinction between two *levels* of self-regulation which he calls "proactive" and "reactive" autonomy:

1. **Proactive Autonomy:** Learners are able to take charge of their own learning, determine their objectives, select methods and techniques, and evaluate what has been acquired. In this way, they establish a personal agenda for learning which affirms their individuality and sets up directions in a world which they themselves have partially created. Learners, in fact, regulate both the direction of activity and the activity itself.

2. **Reactive Autonomy:** This is the kind of autonomy that does not create its own directions but, once a direction has been initiated, enables learners to organize their resources autonomously in order to reach their goal.

Kumaravadivelu (2003) thinks there are two complementary views on learner autonomy, particularly with regard to its aims and objectives. He calls them a narrow view and a broad view of learner autonomy. The narrow view of learner autonomy involves, simply, enabling learners to learn how to learn (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 133). He explains that this enabling process includes equipping them with the tools necessary to learn on their own, and training them to use appropriate strategies for realizing their learning objectives. On the other hand, he believes that the broad view treats learning to learn a language as a means to an end, the end being learning to liberate (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 141). Then he took a step further by naming the narrow view as academic autonomy which enables learners to be strategic practitioners in order to realize their learning potential, and the broad view as liberatory autonomy which empowers learners to be critical thinkers in order to realize their human potential (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 141). While different scholars tell us what learner autonomy actually is, according to Kumaravadivelu (2003) they also tell us what it is not: Autonomy is not independence, that is, learners have to learn to work cooperatively with their teachers, peers, and the educational system; Autonomy is not context-free, that is, the extent to which it can be practiced depends on factors such as learners' personality and motivation, their LL needs and wants, and the educational environment within which learning take place; and Autonomy is not a steady-state achieved by learners, that is, autonomous learners are likely to be autonomous in one situation, but not necessarily in another, and they may well choose to look for teacher direction at certain stages in their learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 134).

19.4. CONCEPTUALIZING LEARNER AUTONOMY

In spite of the debate on the definitions of Learner Autonomy, there are more and earlier origins to the term Autonomy. One could even argue that autonomy lies at the very center of Enlightenment thinking began in the (European) Enlightenment period (Schmenk, 2005). Most notably, it was the philosopher Kant (1933, as cited in Schmenk, 2005) who developed the concept of personal autonomy to characterize the human potential to make rational decisions individually while respecting other persons' autonomy. Autonomy does not, therefore, imply freedom of action on any given occasion, but rather a more general idea that the individual should "freely direct the course of his or her own life" (Young, 1986, as cited in Benson, 2008). As such, the concept of autonomy defines the senses in which a

liberal society should value and protect individual freedom (Benson, 2008; Trebbi, 2008). The emergence of the Enlightenment ideals of autonomy and independence recognizes the right of individuals to use their own capacity to make reasonable decisions of and on their own (Schmenk, 2005). In education, the concept of personal autonomy has been playing a major role in helping individuals to think and act independently, be able to resist domination and move toward emancipation (Trebbi, 2008).

19.5. MODELS OF L2 LEARNER AUTONOMY

The first model comes from Benson (1997, as cited in Schmenk, 2005) who attempts to present a systematic model of L2 learner autonomy consisting of three versions: *technical*, *psychological*, and *political*. He describes them as follows:

- In 'technical' version of learner autonomy, the concept is defined simply as an act of learning a language outside the framework of an educational institution and without the intervention of a teacher.

- 'Psychological' versions define autonomy as a capacity—a construct of attitudes and abilities—which allows learners to take more responsibility for their own learning.

- Lastly, 'political' versions of learner autonomy define the concept in terms of control over the processes and content of learning. The main issue for political approaches is how to achieve the structural conditions that will allow learners to control both their individual learning and the institutional context within which it takes place.

Oxford (2003) argued that Benson's (1997) attempt at a systematic model of L2 learner autonomy proved helpful in some ways but remained at best quite fragmentary. She argues that the model's versions of (a) technical, encompassing situational conditions for autonomy; (b) psychological, involving the individual's characteristics, such as attitudes and behaviors; and (c) political, dealing with competing ideologies, clearly privileges the political version and a necessary piece, the sociocultural perspective, is missing (Oxford, 2003, p. 76). Oxford also argues that the model falls short of explaining how other equally important constructs such as context and motivation relate to autonomy (Oxford, 2003, p. 76). As a result, Oxford (2003) came up with her own model of L2 learner autonomy which contains four perspectives on autonomy as follows:

1. **Technical Perspective:** Focus on the physical situation. Autonomy in this perspective is seen as skills for "independent-learning" situations such as in a self-access center.

2. **Psychological Perspective:** Focus on the characteristics of learners. Given this perspective, autonomy is seen as a combination of characteristics of the individual. Contributions include attitudes, ability, learning strategies and styles.

3. **Sociocultural Perspectives:** Focus on mediated learning. On the one hand, autonomy is self-regulation, gained through social interaction with a more capable meditating person in a particular setting. Mediation can also occur through books, technology, and other means. On the other hand, autonomy is not the primary goal. The primary goal is participation in the community of practice. Mediated learning occurs through cognitive apprenticeship.

4. **Political-Critical Perspective:** Focus on ideologies, access, and power structures. Looked through this perspective, autonomy involves gaining access to cultural alternatives and power structures, and developing an articulate voice amid competing ideologies. Therefore, as Little (2004) mentions, learner autonomy belongs together with the idea that one of the functions of education is to equip learners to play an active role in participatory democracy.

19.6. LEVELS OR DEGREES OF AUTONOMY

Holec (1981, as cited in Thanasoulas, 2000b) believes there are varying degrees of self-direction in learning which may be connected to varying degrees of autonomy. Also, Candy (1991, as cited in Thanasoulas, 2000b) holds that learner autonomy is a perennial dynamic process amenable to "educational interventions," rather than a static product, a state, which is reached once and for all. Nunan (2000, as cited in Onozawa, 2010) contends that autonomy is not an all-or-nothing concept, that all learners could be trained to develop a degree of autonomy, but that this is a gradual and incremental process, and we often only see the benefit of such a thing towards the end of the learning process. He summarizes five levels of autonomy as follows:

➢ **Level 1: Awareness:** In this level, learners are made aware of the pedagogical goals and content of the program and encouraged to identify the learning strategies implicit in the tasks making

up the methodological component of the curriculum. Nunan mentioned that it is a good idea to remind learners of instructional goals and regular intervals during a course. Learners can also be involved in awareness-raising activities of one sort or another. At its most basic, learners will be involved in identifying the strategy implications of pedagogical tasks and identifying their own preferred learning styles and strategies.

➢ **Level 2: Involvement:** This is an intermediate stage between simple awareness and the subsequent stage in which learners become involved in modifying materials. Learners will be involved in making choices from a range of goals, a selection of content and a variety of tasks.

➢ **Level 3: Intervention:** Learners are involved in modifying and adapting goals, content, and learning tasks.

➢ **Level 4: Creation:** The penultimate stage is one in which learners create their own goals, content, and learning tasks. In the case of creation, a step along the road towards tasks and materials which are totally student-generated would be tasks which have been partly developed by the student.

➢ **Level 5: Transcendence:** At the final level, learners transcend the classroom, making links between the content of the classroom and the world beyond the classroom. At this level, learners begin to become truly autonomous by utilizing in everyday life what they have learned in formal learning contexts.

19.7. CLASSROOM IMPLICATIONS: HOW TO FOSTER LEARNER AUTONOMY?

To foster autonomy, Dörnyei (2001, as cited in Onozawa, 2010) specifies two crucial and practical classroom changes: increase learner involvement in organizing the learning process, and make a change in the teacher's role. He also emphasizes that the key issue in increasing learner involvement is to share responsibility with learners in their learning process, recommending several ways to achieve this. Among these are to give learners *choices* about as many aspects of the learning process as possible, to give students positions of *genuine authority*, to encourage *student contributions* and *peer teaching*, to encourage *project work*, and to allow learners to use *self-assessment* procedures when appropriate (Dörnyei, 2001, as cited in

Onozawa, 2010). Regarding the teacher's role, there is a need to adapt a somewhat non-traditional teaching style, often described as the "facilitating style" respecting the autonomy of the group in finding their own way and exercising their own judgment (Dörnyei, 2001, as cited in Onozawa, 2010). The teacher as a facilitator leads learners to discover and create their own meanings about the world.

Little (2004) also believes that in formal educational contexts, learner autonomy entails reflective involvement in planning, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating learning. He states that the development of autonomy in LL is governed by three basic pedagogical principles as follows:

1. **Learner Involvement:** Engaging learners to share responsibility for the learning process (the affective and the metacognitive dimensions).

2. **Learner Reflection:** Helping learners to think critically when they plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning (the metacognitive dimensions).

3. **Appropriate Target Language Use:** Using the TL as the principal medium of LL (the communicative and the metacognitive dimensions) (Little, 2004).

According to these three principles the teacher should:

- Use the TL as the preferred medium of classroom communication and require the same of her learners;

- Involve her learners in a non-stop quest for good learning activities, which are shared, discussed, analyzed, and evaluated with the whole class in the TL, to begin within very simple terms;

- Help her learners to set their own learning targets and choose their own learning activities, subjecting them to discussion, analysis, and evaluation-again, in the TL;

- Require her learners to identify individual goals but pursue them through collaborative work in small groups;

- Require her learners to keep a written record of their learning-plans of lessons and projects, lists of useful vocabulary, whatever texts they themselves produce; and

- Engage her learners in regular evaluation of their progress as individual learners and as a class-in the TL (Little, 2004).

To sum up, and according to Benson (2001, as cited in Reinders, 2010), fostering autonomy does not imply any particular approach to practice.

In principle, any practice that encourages and enables learners to take greater control of any aspect of their learning can be considered a means of promoting autonomy. In order to foster learners' autonomy, teachers need to develop a sense of responsibility and also encourage learners to take an active part in making decisions about their learning.

19.8. CONCLUSION

The main point of this chapter has been the notion that there are degrees of learner autonomy and that it is not an absolute concept. Furthermore, it should be recognized that "it takes a long time to develop, and simply removing the barriers to a person's ability to think and behave in certain ways may not allow him or her to break away from old habits or old ways of thinking" (Candy, 1991, as cited in Thanasoulas, 2000a). It is clear that any serious promotion of learner autonomy involves the willing cooperation of teachers as well as learners (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 155). What this means is that, on the one hand, teachers have to determine the degree of control they are willing and able to yield to their students in terms of curricular aims and objectives, selection of tasks and materials, and assessment of learning outcomes. On the other hand, this also means that learners have to decide, with some guidance from their teachers, if necessary, the degree of responsibility they are willing and able to take in those areas of learning and teaching.

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Chapter 20

Noticing the Gap vs. Noticing the Hole

CONTENTS

20.1. OVERVIEW

Recent years have seen a growing concern with the role of conscious processes in SLA. This concern is frequently centered on the Noticing Hypothesis of Schmidt, which has been adopted by a large and probably growing number of researchers (Truscott, 1998). Its significance for SLA can be seen and understood from such claims as "those who notice most, learn most" and "no noticing, no acquisition" (Ellis, 2003). In the strong form of the hypothesis, noticing is a necessary condition for learning. In a weaker version noticing is helpful but might not be necessary (Truscott, 1998).

20.2. NOTICING HYPOTHESIS

The Noticing Hypothesis –a hypothesis that input does not become intake for language learning unless it is noticed, that is, consciously registered (Schmidt, 1990, 2001)— has been around now for about two decades and continues to generate experimental studies, suggestions for L2 pedagogy, and controversy. Schmidt (1990, 1994, 2001) claimed that attention to input is a conscious process. He viewed *noticing* (i.e. registering formal features in the input) and *noticing-the-gap* (i.e. identifying how the input to which the learner is exposed differs from the output the learner is able to generate) as essential processes in L2 acquisition. Specifically, he claims that the only linguistic elements in the input that learners can acquire are those elements that they notice. By *noticing*, Schmidt means that learners are paying attention, that there is some level of awareness in learning. He contrasts this to implicit learning, learning without awareness, subliminal learning, and other scenarios. In many respects, Schmidt's claim is a reaction to Krashen's idea that acquisition involves subconscious learning. Because Schmidt believes in some level of awareness on the part of the learner, he tends to

reject a major role for any kind of implicit or unconscious learning. The concept of noticing and the role of noticing are not universally accepted within SLA and remain controversial.

In the SLA literature, researchers have established that input plays a pivotal role in facilitating language learning. Krashen (1985), in particular, argues that acquisition occurs only subsequent to persistent exposure to abundant comprehensible input, a process through which the learners have plenty of opportunities to eventually understand the linguistic information conveyed by that input in full. Extensive empirical research conducted in Canadian French immersion programs by Swain and her associates (1985–

2005) have demonstrated that although comprehensible input is necessary for LL, it is not the only thing the students need, as Krashen (1985) has claimed. The results from Swain's (1985, cited in Seba, 2008) study showed that through exposition to rich comprehensible input, learners demonstrated fluent use of the TL, but they still failed to achieve accuracy in terms of morphology and syntax. Swain argued that one of the reasons behind these obtained outcomes is that learners have little opportunities to output (i.e., produce language) and are rarely pushed to produce the L2 more accurately. As a result, she argued that comprehensible input is not enough for L2 learning and that more attention to 'comprehensible output' is required.

In her output hypothesis, Swain (1995, cited in Swain, 1998, p. 66) highlights the significance of output (e.g., speaking, and writing) in facilitating SLA by explaining its different roles in the learning process. It is good to know the overall process of L2 acquisition outlined by Gass (1997, Suzuki et al., 2009, p. 6). Gass' six stages comprise *input, apperceived input, comprehended input, intake, integration, and output.* Input is any linguistic information available to learners via listening and reading. Learners perceive this input differently, depending on their prior knowledge and their reaction to affective factors such as motivation and anxiety (i.e., *apperceived input*). The apperceived input is analyzed and comprehended according to meaning and/or form (i.e., comprehended input), after which it can become intake. During the subsequent integration phase, selected intake is converted into long-term memory, causing restructuring and automatization of current linguistic knowledge (DeKeyser, 2007; Suzuki et al., 2009, p. 6). Output is the 6th and final component of Gass' L2 acquisition process. Swain (1995, cited in Muranoi, 2007) has hypothesized that under certain circumstances, output promotes noticing. This does not mean that learners learn language first and produce it later. As Swain (2005, cited in Suzuki et al., 2009) stated since language production (i.e., output) is seen as part of the *process*, and not merely the *product*, of L2 learning, L2 learning takes place when learners attempt to produce their developing L2 knowledge. This is important if there is a basis to the claim that noticing a form in input must occur in order for it to be acquired (p. 66). According to Swain (1998, p. 66), the different types of noticing can include: (a) noticing a form in the input, (b) noticing one's interlanguage deficiencies (or holes), and (c) noticing the gap between the interlanguage and the TL. The first type of noticing is when, while listening to or reading the TL input, the learner simply attends to the formal aspects of the TL in the input. Input frequency, saliency of the input, and external manipulations such as input enhancement, may influence this first type of

noticing. In the second type, noticing the interlanguage deficiencies is when learners may notice that they cannot say what they want to say precisely in the TL. This type of noticing is also referred to as noticing "holes" (Doughty and Williams, 1998, p. 228, cited in Muranoi, 2007; Swain, 1998, p. 66). Swain argued that one major function of production in the TL is to facilitate this type of noticing. Finally, the third type of noticing-noticing the gap is when learners may notice that their current interlanguage is different from the TL. Feedback provided during interactions may help learners notice their errors, that is, notice the gap. Swain (1998), citing Doughty and Williams (1998), hypothesizes that noticing the gap between the TL and the interlanguage may be stimulated by noticing a hole in one's interlanguage. Producing output helps learners notice that there is something that they cannot say precisely (in her terms, a "hole") though they want to say it in the TL (Swain, 1995, cited in Muranoi, 2007). In this way, learners consciously recognize some of their linguistic problems, and more importantly, the learners' attention may be selectively led to relevant input (Swain, 1998). Learners may "notice the difference between what they themselves can or have said (or even what they know they cannot say) and more competent speakers of the TL say instead to convey the same intention under the same social condition" (Doughty, 2001, p. 225, cited in Muranoi, 2007, p. 55). This process is called cognitive comparison and has been as one of the crucial processes in LA (Muranoi, 2007). It can be assumed, therefore, that producing output promotes both noticing a hole in the interlanguage system and noticing the gap between the interlanguage and the TL, both of which trigger important cognitive processes such as selective attention and cognitive comparison.

20.3. THE ROLE OF INSTRUCTION

Drawing on what we know about the various roles of instruction in general for L2 acquisition (especially Long, 1983, 1988; Long & Robinson, 1998), on Schmidt's (1990, 1994, 1995, 2001) hypothesis that noticing, but not necessarily understanding, is important for L2 acquisition, and on recent evidence that instruction is important to enhance subsequent noticing (Peckham, 2000), one can hypothesize different degrees of usefulness of explicit teaching for different levels of difficulty, as shown in the following table. It is important to note, however, that rule difficulty is an individual issue that can be described as the ratio of the rule's inherent linguistic complexity to the student's ability to handle such a rule. What is a rule of moderate difficulty for one student may be easy for a student with more language learning aptitude or language learning experience, and therefore the role

of instruction for that element of grammar may vary from bringing about the learning of a structure that otherwise would not be learned to merely speeding up the learning process. Conversely, for a weaker student, the goal may not be to get the student to learn the rule at issue, but to draw enough attention to the forms involved so that the student will notice them more at some level and at least implicitly acquire some concrete uses of these forms through subsequent exposure rather than acquire the more abstract rule during instruction. Thus, for one and the same rule, the goal as well as the degree of effectiveness of explicit instruction will vary depending on the *subjective difficulty* of the rule.

20.4. NOTICING THE GAP VS. NOTICING THE HOLE

Truscott (1998) maintains that Schmidt and Frota (1986), in fact, presented noticing the gap as an adjustment of Krashen's (1983) theory, the only difference being their additional claim that conscious awareness of the gap is a requirement. In grammar correction, the goal is for learners to become aware of gaps between their grammar and the target grammar. So, research on correction provides further evidence regarding the value of noticing, especially noticing the gap. Based on an empirical study, Santoz et al. (2010) maintain that the output practice promoted in collaborative writing fosters noticing processes, especially noticing the hole (while engaged in text-generation activity), and noticing the gap (via the analysis of the corrective feedback received on one's own writing). Swain has hypothesized that, under certain circumstances, output promotes **noticing** (one of the three functions of output that relate more to accuracy than to fluency in second language learning, the other two being *'hypothesis formulation and testing'* and *'metatalk'*).

There are several levels of noticing:

1. Noticing the form: Learners may simply notice a form in the TL due to the frequency or salience of the features themselves.

2. 'Notice the gap principle' or 'cognitive comparisons' (proposed by Schmidt & Frota, 1986):

    Learners may notice not only the TL form itself but also that it is different from their own interlanguage.

3. Noticing the hole (proposed by Doughty and Williams): Learners may notice that they cannot say what they want to say precisely in the TL. Noticing the hole may be an important stimulus for noticing the gap.

20.5. CONCLUSION

During interaction in the L2 (1) learners are focused primarily on the extraction of meaning from the input (e.g., Krashen, 1982), (2) that learners must somehow "notice" things in the input for acquisition to happen (Schmidt, 1990), and that (3) noticing is constrained by working memory limitations regarding the amount of information they can hold and process during on line (or real time) computation of sentences during comprehension (e.g., Just & Carpenter, 1992).

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Chapter 21

Attention From Van Lier Perspective

CONTENTS

21.1. OVERVIEW

The assumption based on the presupposition that language learning could take place without some degree of consciousness is not now theoretically viable (Nassaji and Fotos, 2004). According to Nassaji and Fotos (2004), the role of *unconscious learning* has been exaggerated, neglecting the fact that conscious attention to form, or what has been called "noticing," is a necessary condition for LL. This chapter is an attempt to look at the concept of "attention," according to van Lier. This chapter examines the concept of consciousness, attention and awareness and end up with their application in SLA.

21.2. WHAT IS CONSCIOUSNESS?

Consciousness (like many other concepts such as language) is not a single object or a unitary construct (van Lier, 1998). It is possible to identify many layers, levels, and facets of consciousness. Reviewing the literature, one would come up with two prominent, widely discussed treatments of consciousness: the traditional cognitive perspective and a less common perspective which sees consciousness as social and contextual (Schmidt, 1990; van Lier, 1998). The traditional perspective of consciousness is a cognitive one. This perspective resting on several assumptions holds that consciousness is individual rather than social, that there is a sharp distinction between mind and body, and that the mind is located in the brain). In this perspective, it is common to identify several different types or levels of consciousness (Schmidt, 1994; van Lier, 1996), including:

➢ **Level 1: Global ('Intransitive') Consciousness:** Just being alive and awake. This is the most basic level which we share with all animals (Wittgenstein, 1980, cited in van Lier, 1998).

➢ **Level 2: Awareness (or 'Transitive' Consciousness, Consciousness of Something):** Perceptual activity of objects and events in the environment, including attention, focusing, and vigilance. This level of consciousness is gradable in contrast to the previous one: there are various degrees and intensities of attention, alertness, vigilance, etc.

➢ **Level 3: Meta consciousness:** Awareness of the activity of the mind; language awareness; knowledge about mental processes, metalinguistic awareness of formal linguistic properties, communicable knowledge.

> ➢ **Level 4: Voluntary Action, Reflective Processes, Mindfulness:** Deliberate and purposeful engagement in actions.

Taking a second look at the above-mentioned four levels, you would locate awareness and attention at the second level.

21.2.1. Senses of Consciousness.

Schmidt (1994) distinguished four senses of consciousness:

First, there is **consciousness as intentionality**. That is, learners can set out to learn some element of the L2 deliberately, or they can learn something incidentally while focused on some other goal (for example, while processing input for meaning). This sense of 'conscious' then juxtaposes 'intentional' and incidental' learning.

Second, there is **consciousness as attention**. Irrespective of whether acquisition takes place intentionally or incidentally, learners need to pay conscious attention to form. This sense of consciousness encompasses the Noticing Hypothesis.

Third, there is consciousness as awareness. That is, learners may become aware of what they are learning. Schmidt acknowledged that this is a contentious issue. He noted that whereas some cognitive psychologists such as Reber (1993) have argued that learning is essentially implicit (i.e. takes place without awareness), others (such as Carr & Curran, 1994) have argued that learners consciously form and test hypotheses. Thus, while it is not controversial to claim that awareness is involved in learning explicit knowledge, it is less clear whether consciousness is involved-in the development of implicit knowledge.

Fourth, there is **consciousness as control**. That is, the actual use of knowledge in performance involves conscious processes of selection and assembly. Schmidt proposed that whereas fluent performance is essentially unconscious, it may have originated in earlier guided performance, as proposed by Anderson (1993). Schmidt's seminal work has established a clear role for consciousness in L2 acquisition and helped to show what this consists of. The general position that Schmidt adopted is that the role of unconscious learning has been exaggerated. Increasingly, SLA researchers have moved away from debating the role of consciousness to examining how attention functions in L2 acquisition. In making sense of the different positions that have been advanced, it is helpful to distinguish a number of different senses of 'attention'. Eysenck (2001), for example, pointed out that its primary use in cognitive psychology is to refer to selectivity

in processing. He then distinguished focused attention', which is studied by asking participants to attend to only one of two or more input stimuli, and divided attention', which is studied by requiring participants to attend simultaneously to two or more input stimuli. With this important distinction in mind, we will examine how different SLA researchers have theorized the role of attention, starting with Schmidt.

21.3. DEFINITIONS OF ATTENTION

Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 37) believe that attention is the ability of a person to focus on something while ignoring others. It has the following subsystems:

- Alertness (an overall readiness to deal with incoming stimuli);
- Orientation (the direction of attentional resources to certain types of stimuli);
- Detection (cognitive registration of a particular stimulus); and
- Inhibition (deliberately ignoring some stimuli).

Having the above definition in mind, let us turn to what van Lier thinks about attention and its definition. Van Lier, (1998, 2004) believes that there are different kinds and levels of attention and that attention relates to awareness and consciousness. According to him, the levels of attention are, "Being unaware, being aware, attending, focusing, and being vigilant" (van Lier, 2004). As can be seen, levels of attention vary from relaxed to vigilant, depending on the particular activity the learners are engaged in. However, it cannot be said that one level is more conducive to learning than the other; all have their own place and usage (van Lier, 2004). Meanwhile, van Lier (2004) postulates that the learning process is characterized by a set of interwoven stages, namely awareness, perception, and attention, autonomy, development of cognitive processes such as processing and understanding, authenticity, and mastery of the language.

21.4. APPLICATION OF ATTENTION TO SLA

Van Lier (1996, cited in van Lier, 2004) believes that what Krashen considered to be internalized without any attempt and was considered subconscious internalization of language is not possible without paying attention to what is being internalized. According to van Lier (2004) "If we are not aware at all of something, we will clearly not pick up information about it. However, if we are, our cognitive processes will be activated while

we are incorporating the information into our activities. As we continue to be active, and our activity interacts with the environment, we select what we pay attention to, we direct our focus to certain particulars or details, we may focus more intensely, we may prepare for more action and so on" (p. 99). So, he rejects Krashen's idea. In this respect, van Lier agrees with the weak version proposed by Schmitt (1990), in which it is stated that people learn about the things they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attended to. Elsewhere, van Lier (2001) argues that awareness, attention, and noticing particular features of language adds to learning of that language. In the meantime, van Lier (1994) states that "We must study LL from the perspective that conscious attention is essential for LL" (p. 72). So, it can be concluded that he believes in conscious attention and considers it important in learning. As he states, "Through conscious participation in the learning process, the learner allocates appropriate levels of attention and investment of energy, and directs this attention and energy where it is most beneficial for learning" (van Lier, 1994, p. 73). However, in the above-mentioned statements, two specific phrases were mentioned: "learn much" and "adds to learning." Based on these, one can conclude that LL has different levels. Sometimes it is incidental and implicit, and at other times it requires concentrated attention (van Lier, 2004). Both conditions- and all other gradations in between can yield to learning in various circumstances. So, it might be possible sometimes to learn language incidentally, but this learning might not be equal to the one in which the learner has concentrated on his learning and has tried to learn attentively. Elsewhere, van Lier (1996, cited in van Lier, 1998) talks about awareness and says, "Initially, awareness consists of becoming cognizant of something. It involves consciousness of the why and how of the learning process. Awareness varies in intensity according to the attention an individual pays to an issue at any given time" (p. 9).

In the meantime, he further goes into detail about awareness and divides it into two types and says: First, in focal awareness, an object or event captures our attention, and we focus on it. Second, in subsidiary, or peripheral awareness, a person is generally aware of something that is not the main focus of his or her attention. So, in this sense, he agrees with level two of Schmitt's (1994) categorization. In fact, van Lier's (1996) categorization presented here equals the two parts of level two of Schmitt's four-level categorization of consciousness. In other words, focal awareness of van Lier (1996) is equal to the first part of level two in the consciousness categorization proposed by Schmitt (1994) which is defined as "focal attention and 'noticing'" and

"subsidiary, or peripheral awareness" proposed by van Lier is equal to the second part of level two in the consciousness categorization proposed by Schmitt (1994, p. 11) which is defined as "peripheral attention." However, there is a little difference between the two categorizations as Schmitt (1994) considers focal and peripheral attention on two sides of a continuum, but van Lier (1996) deems them in two different levels. Nevertheless, he considers both of them very important for language acquisition (LA).

21.5. CONCLUSION

To sum up, we must study LL from the perspective that conscious involvement is essential for LL, but this conscious involvement cannot be limited to explicit grammatical study, knowledge of rules, or attention to form. In this sense, Long (1996, cited in van Lier, 2001, p. 162) distinguishes a focus on *form* within a meaningful context from a focus on *forms* when teaching is driven by grammatical items. Furthermore, awareness-raising itself is not sufficient (van Lier, 2001, p. 164). It must be integrated with action/collaboration and with reflection/interpretation/analysis. One possible approach is a progression from perception to (inter)action to interpretation in a cyclical and spiral approach.

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Chapter 22

Multicompetence

CONTENTS

22.1. OVERVIEW

The first origins of the concept of multicompetence can be traced back to Cook's (1999) early attempts to criticize the notion of native speaker as a norm. As Cook (2005) maintains the common-sense belief about people speaking an L2 is that they are imperfect imitations of native speakers, embodied in a typical Chomsky (1986, cited in Cook, 2005) quotation: We do not for example say that the person has a perfect knowledge of some language similar to English but still different from it. What we say is that the child or foreigner has a 'partial knowledge of English' or is 'on his or her way' towards acquiring knowledge of English, and if they reach this goal, they will then know English (p. 16). Accordingly, the ultimate goal of language learning is to sound like a native speaker in all aspects of the language or to acquire the language as spoken by the native speaker, which is unattainable for many (Cook, 2005). As Cook (2002) maintains the first challenge to this was the concept of the 'independent language assumption' that learners are not willfully distorting the target system, nor arbitrarily selecting bits of the system but are inventing a system of their own, mooted by McNeill (1966) and others in the 1960s for the L1 and captured in the term 'interlanguage' (Selinker, 1972) for the L2 (p. 10). Thus, as Cook (2002) states L2 learners do indeed speak interlanguages that do not correspond to established languages such as English, with unique grammars, phonologies, etc.; these are not just 'partial' grammars of the L2, as Chomsky put it, any more than the three-year-old child's L1 grammar is a partial grammar; "rather they are grammars with their own properties, created by the learners out of their own internal processes in response to the L2 data they receive" (p. 10). Thus, the mind of the L2 user is different from that of a native speaker in that it includes "the L1, the interlanguage, and the other mental processes are all internal to the L2 learner." Therefore, as Cook (2002) points it out for it to make sense, a name was needed for a complex mental state including the L1 and the L2 interlanguage, but excluding the L2. Hence the term multi-competence was originally coined to reflect this totality in one mind, originally expressed as the compound state of a mind with two grammars (Cook, 1991). Yet, later on, since it was thought that the term *grammar* could be confused with Chomsky's notion of knowledge of syntax, Cook introduced the term multi-competence to refer to the knowledge of more than one *language* in the same mind (Cook, 2010).

22.2. EVIDENCE FOR MULTICOMPETENCE

In defining the characteristics of L2 users Cook (2002) refers to the following:

1. **The L2 user has other uses for language than the monolingual:** The most obvious difference is that, as well as uses of language that can be carried out in either language, L2 users can perform specific activities that L1 users cannot. For example, when they are aware that the other person knows both languages, L2 users often code-switch from one language to another.

2. The L2 user's knowledge of the L2 is typically not identical to that of a native speaker: L2 users can pass for native speakers; their grammar, their accent, their vocabulary gives away that they are non-native speakers, even after many years of learning the language or many decades of living in a country.

3. The L2 user's knowledge of their L1 is in some respects not the same as that of a monolingual: The most obvious difference occurs in the area of phonology: The L2 users' pronunciation of their L1 moves towards that of the L2 in respects.

In short, Cook (2002) argues that "in contrast to monolinguals, bilinguals, and multilingual have a different knowledge of both their L1 and their L2 as well as a different kind of language awareness and language processing system" (p. 159). In fact, Cook considers a privileged status for the L2 users in comparison with native speakers.

22.3. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF MULTICOMPETENCE

According to Choong (2008), there can be certain implications for the concept of multicompetency in L2 classrooms, some of which are summarized as in subsections.

22.3.1. Teaching Materials

Cook (1999) advocates more L2 user representation in the textbooks and materials teachers use in class. Just as there may be gender or ethnic bias in textbooks in general, there is a bias towards native speakers in ESL and EFL textbooks. As Cook (1999) explains, "the status of L2 users is in even more need of redress, because they are virtually never represented positively" (p. 200). Many times, the L2 user is represented as ignorant or incompetent seeking help or guidance from native speakers in shops, surgeries, stations,

and so on. Appearances of successful L2 users would be helpful as they provide positive models and could contribute to the motivation and confidence of the students. Teaching materials that include successful L2 users may boost morale by providing attainable goals (Choong, 2008).

22.3.2. Teachers

For a long time, native speaker teachers accounted for the best possible choice for teaching an L2. Yet, as Choong (2008) puts it, another model stemming from the multicompetence concept that could be provided to the L2 learner is a non-native speaker teacher. Cook (2002) points out that students are more likely to identify with and to be able to emulate non-native speaker teachers than native speakers. Also, these teachers would be able to share their own experiences of learning the language, and maybe more sensitive to the difficulties faced by the students.

22.3.3. Use of L1 in the Classroom

Cook (2001) states that over the last century, the use of the L1 has been largely taboo in L2 teaching. In the strongest form, L1 use is banned, and in the weakest sense, it is minimized. However, he advocates a more positive view: maximizing L2 use. Since multicompetence means that the L1 is always present in the users' minds, it would be artificial and sometimes inefficient to avoid its use. Languages are not compartmentalized within the mind, so there is little reason they should not be used in the classroom. Some reasons for using the L1 in the classroom are to convey and check the comprehension of lexical or grammatical forms and meanings, to give directions, and to manage the class. These things may be difficult or impossible to do without resorting to the L1, and it saves time that might be wasted trying to conform to a strict rule of L1 prohibition.

22.3.4. Affective and Motivational Impact

As Brown, Malmakjaer, and Williams (1996, p. 56, cited in Kumara, 2006, p. 20) state a further implication of multicompetence is that "if an atmosphere is created in which the L1 competence of an individual is recognized and valued then this might potentially have an important affective and motivational impact on their approach to their learning a L2."

22.4. CONCLUSION

In brief, as Cook has advocated in much of his prominent work, the concept of native speaker has little meaning as an L2 goal. In the literal sense, it is impossible for an L2 user to become a native speaker, since by definition you cannot be a native speaker of anything other than your L1. Phrasing the goal in terms of the native speaker means L2 learning can only lead to different degrees of failure, not degrees of success. Accepting the native speaker goal still does not specify which native speaker in what roles: Native speakers of English come from all parts of the globe, classes of society, genders, and ages. In fact, the majority of communication in English does not involve native speakers. While the native speaker goal can have a limited currency for some students, it has no relevance as an internal goal since learning a L2 makes people different from monolingual native speakers. Following Labov (1969, cited in Cook, 2007), it is all a matter of difference, not deficit.

Finally, as the title of Cook's (2007) article suggests, the goal of ELT must be promoting multicompetence among L2 users and not reproducing native speakers.

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Chapter 23

Neo-Behaviorism in Language Teaching

CONTENTS

23.1. OVERVIEW

Behavioristic view on LL and teaching, which had its roots in structural linguistics of Bloomfield and the general principles of LL of behavioristic psychology of Watson, Thorndike, and Skinner, was a dominant learning and teaching approach in the first half of 20th century.

According to Schunk (2000), there are three general principles of behaviorism: the law of exercise, which indicates that LL is promoted if the learner repeats the responses to the stimuli. Here, practice plays a fundamental role. The law of effect, which focus on reinforcement, such as approval of correct responses, strengthen the association and is necessary to learning. These two principles had been proposed by Thorndike. And, the principle of shaping which mentions that learning will be rapid and smooth if the complex behavior is broken into smaller units and are learnt bit by bit. Behind all these principles, according to Ellis (1994) is the assumption that LL, like other types of learning, takes the form of habit formation. According to Hall (2009), there are two important characteristics of behaviorism. The first basic characteristic of behaviorism is that behaviorists emphasize the importance of empirical, observable behaviors. A second one is that they view the external environment as the principal (maybe the only) determinant factor in behavior. So, in the classic "nature vs. nurture" debate, according to Johnson (2004), the behaviorists fall solely on the "nurture" side. According to Watson (1924) cited in Hergenhahn and Olson (2008), what determines the intelligence, temperament, and other personality characteristics of a child, is the environment in which the child is raised. Genetic predisposition is unimportant. According to Byram (2002), behaviorist believes that every learning and also language acquisition (LA) can be learned process of Stimulus-Response-Reinforcement (S-R-R). In other words, learners imitate and repeat (law of exercise) the language they hear (linguistic input or stimulus), and when they are reinforced for that response (law of effect), learning takes place.

This view of behaviorism which focuses on environmental factors and Skinners' verbal behavior were completely rejected by Chomsky's innateness hypothesis. However, according to Clark and Clark (2009), it gives rise to the second phase of behaviorism, which he calls him Neobehaviorism. The new-behaviorists' like Hull, Tolman, and Bloom recognized the internal characteristics of the learners. Suppes (1975) page 270 stated that: What came to be felt as the appropriate criticism within psychology of the work of those days was the absence of sufficient internal structure, the absence

of anything of the complexity we intuitively associate with human mental abilities, especially the complex and subtle processes of memory and of language comprehension and production.

According to Keramati (2008), the fundamental issue for Hall, who was the first behaviorist who recognized the importance of learner's internal characteristics such as motivation, was to connect learning and motivation. He believed that learning was insufficient for behavior and therefore, we need some other internal factors such as to have motivation. The importance of cognition has even been recognized by new-behaviorist Edwin Chase Tolman as early as 1948. According to (Harzem, 2002) the influence of new behaviorists in current educational practice like learning outcomes, curriculum planning, assessment, and teacher's role in the classroom is both influential and undeniable. One of the goals of education has always been modification of behavior or learning outcome, i.e., positive feedback of the teacher to young learners or certification at higher levels. Learners' outcome refers to both external and internal behavior, with external behavior being more straightforward and easily observable, and internal behavior being more complex and not directly observable. Learning outcome is an explicit statement of what a learner can do if, for example, completes a course of study.

Behaviorist view on LL is now discredited, but various elements of behaviorist thinking are making a comeback. The influence of new behaviorism in language assessment has also been influential. We know that authentic test task is the one which approximate the real-life task or target language use (TLU) task (Bachman and Palmer, 1996) or is "the performance of behavior stated in learning outcome under the same condition as those under which they were learnt." According to Schunk (2000), Connectionism and Competition model are two typical examples of Neobehaviorism. They are in fact an integration of behaviorism and cognitivism. For example, connectionists who assume our brain like a computer that would consists of neural networks-complex clusters of links between information nodes. These links of connections become activated or weakened through activation or non-activation, respectfully. For them, learning is seen as the process of association between the stimulus and response. They believe that the human mind has an innate capacity to make these associations. Torike (2005, cited in Keramati, 2008) page. 87 mentioned: "As learners are exposed to repeated patterns of units in input, they extract regularities in the pattern; probabilistic associations are formed and strengthened."

So, for them, the notion of innateness is not seen as an innate capacity to learn the abstract rules of language. In fact, they believe of innateness from behavioristic Lightbown and Spada (2006, cited in Hall, 2009) used a concrete example for that. They said when a child hears a word in the context of a specific object, event or person, an association is created in the mind of the child. The association will be stronger if the frequency of input and nature of feedback will be more. The child has an innate capacity to make these associations. Therefore, whenever the child hears that word, it brings to her mind that object and whenever she sees the object, it brings to her mind that word. According to McWhinny (2001, cited in Keramati, 2009), the competition model challenged Chomsky's competence theory. They reject the nativist view and argue that the brain relies on a type of computation that emphasizes patterns of connectivity and activation. The second one is that of input-driven learning. According to this commitment, learning is explained in terms of input rather than innate principles and parameters. Cue validity is the key construct in this explanation. The basic claims of the competition model are that cues such as stress, intonation, rhythm, morphological marking, and word order are available in input and language processing involves competition among these cues. Different types of cues interact dynamically every time children or adults hear a sentence.

Despite the strong criticism on behaviorism, they have had an important and powerful influence on education and learning. The two principles of the law of effect and law of exercise of Thorndike have their strong presence in the recent education. The presence of some of the features of behaviorism in new models of learning, like connectionism, is an evidence of the fact that exclusion of behaviorism from education is neither possible nor recommended. Learners and learning are so complicated that probably one model would not be able to accommodate all the complications.

23.2. INSIGHTFUL BEHAVIORISM AND NEOBEHAVIOUSIM

Behaviourists came to realize that not all learning could be explained by Pavlov's and Watson's theories of simple stimulus–response and reinforcement. In 1927 Köhler demonstrated that apes solved problems through a form of thinking he termed *'insightful behaviorism'* (Köhler 1925). Neo-behaviourists such as Tolman expanded this mental focus to a consideration of purposive behavior in animals and people. He demonstrated that rats build up a mental representation or cognitive map of

their environment and develop expectations rather than a set of inflexible links between stimuli and response (Tolman 1948). Neo-behaviourists recognized the importance of learners' internal characteristics, such as personality, motivation and habit. Hull (1943) factored in motivation and habits as variables in his scientific 'laws'. In the 1960s, the investigations of cognitive science into processes like memory and perception (Cognitivism) provided new perspectives on learning.

23.3. INFLUENCES OF BEHAVIORISM

Out of the various influences of behaviorism emerged a number of learning principles, which became the psychological foundations of Audiolingualism and came to shape its methodological practices. Among the more central are the following:

- Foreign language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation. Good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes. By memorizing dialogues and performing pattern drills, the chances of producing mistakes are minimized. Language is verbal behavior – that is, the automatic production and comprehension of utterances – and can be learned by inducing the students to do likewise.

- Language skills are learned more effectively if the items to be learned in the target language are presented in spoken form before they are seen in written form. Aural-oral training is needed to provide the foundation for the development of other language skills.

- Analogy provides a better foundation for language learning than analysis. Analogy involves the processes of generalization and discrimination. Explanations of rules are therefore not given until students have practiced a pattern in a variety of contexts and are thought to have acquired a perception of the analogies involved. Drills can enable learners to form correct analogies. Hence the approach to the teaching of grammar is essentially inductive rather than deductive.

- The meanings that the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context and not in isolation. Teaching a language thus involves teaching aspects of the cultural system of the people who speak the language.

23.4. TYPES OF LEARNING IN BEHAVIORISTIC FRAMEWORK

Types of learning differ according to the context and subject matter to be learned, but a complex task like language learning involves every one of Gange's types of learning. Gange identified eight types of learning as follow:

- *Signal learning.* The individual learns to make a general diffuse response to a signal. This is the classical conditioned response of Pavlov.

- *Stimulus-response learning.* The learner acquires a precise response to a discriminated stimulus. What is learned is a connection or, in Skinnerian terms, a discriminated operant, sometimes called an instrumental response.

- *Chaining.* What is acquired is a chain of two or more stimulus response connections. The conditions for such learning have also been described by Skinner.

- *Verbal association.* Verbal association is the learning of chains that are verbal. Basically, the conditions resemble those for other (motor) chains. However, the presence of language in the human being makes this special type because internal links may be selected from the individual's previously learned repertoire of language.

- *Multiple discrimination.* The individual learns to make a number of different identifying responses to many different stimuli, which may resemble each other in physical appearance to a greater or lesser degree. Although the learning of each stimulus-response connection is a simple occurrence, the connections tend to interfere with one another.

- *Concept learning*. The learner acquires the ability to make a common response to a class of stimuli even though the individual members of that class may differ widely from each other. The learner is able to make a response that identifies an entire class of objects or events.

- *Principle learning.* In simplest terms, a principle is chain of two or more concepts. It functions to organize behavior and experience. In Ausubel's terminology, a principle is a "subsumer" -- a cluster of related concepts.

- ***Problem solving.*** Problem solving is a kind of learning that requires the internal events usually referred to as "thinking". Previously acquired concepts and principles are combined in a conscious focus on an unresolved or ambiguous set of events.

The first five types fit into a *behavioristic framework*, while the last three are explained by Ausunel's or Rogers's theories of learning. Since all eight types of learning are relevant to second language learning, it can be understood that certain "lower"-level aspects of second language learning may be discussed or handled by behavioristic approaches and methods, while certain "higher"-order types of learning are taught by methods derived from a cognitive approach to learning. The second language learning process can be categorized in cognitive terms by means of the eight types of learning.

23.5. CONCLUSION

Neobehaviousim bridges the gap between behaviorism and cognitivism. Like Thorndike, Watson, and Pavlov, the neobehaviorists believe that the study of learning and a focus on rigorously objective observational methods are crucial to a scientific psychology. Unlike their predecessors, however, the neobehaviorists are more self-consciously attempting to formalize the laws of behavior. Neobehaviorism is associated with a number of scholars such as Tolman, Hull, Skinner, Hebb, and Bandura. Neobehaviorists demand formalizing the law of behavior. It can be claimed that all neobehavioristic theories have been proposed in order to put some cognition within the mechanistic nature of traditional behaviorism. Unlike their predecessors, however, the neobehaviorists were more self-consciously trying to formalize the laws of behavior. Neobehaviorism bridges the gap between behaviorism and cognitivism. Like Thorndike, Watson, and Pavlov, the neobehaviorists believe that the study of learning and a focus on rigorously objective observational methods are crucial to a scientific psychology. Unlike their predecessors, however, the neobehaviorists are more self-consciously attempting to formalize the laws of behavior. They are also under the influence of the Vienna Circle of logical positivists, a group of philosophers led by Rudolph Carnap, Otto Neurath, and Herbert Feigl, who maintain that meaningful statements about the world need to be formed as statements concerning physical observations. Anything else is metaphysics or nonsense, not science, and must be rejected. Neobehaviorism is concerned with hidden variables and tries to provide formal theories of behavior and to establish the fundamental law of learning or habit-formation as a unifying factor for

all social sciences. Hull-Spence's neobehaviorism focuses on molecular building blocks that are described as forming sequences of connecting events between environmental stimuli and behavior. Hull's neobehaviorism can be considered as functionalist in that it is interested in an organism's survival. Tolman is almost the only behaviorist who notices the problems in Stimulus-Response theory, since reinforcement is not essential for learning to occur. He feels that behavior is holistic, purposive, and cognitive. Tolman's views can be summarized by saying that behavior is not a response to a stimulus but is cognitive coping with a pattern of stimuli. Tolman is similar to the behaviorists in his emphasis on objectivity and measurement. He differs in that he does not believe reinforcement is crucial for learning to take place.

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Chapter 24

Paradigm Shift

CONTENTS

24.1. OVERVIEW

Since the 1960s, two new terms, paradigm, and research program, are used to describe aspects of the evolution of scientific thinking. Paradigm in normal usage is a very clear or typical example of something (Makaay, 1999). A term used very widely and loosely to refer to a conceptual framework of beliefs, theoretical assumptions, accepted research methods, and standards that define legitimate work in a particular science or discipline (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). A paradigm is simply a belief system (or theory) that guides the way we do things, or more formally establishes a set of practices. This can range from thought patterns to action. Thomas Kuhn (1962) suggested that a paradigm defines "the practices that define a scientific discipline at certain point in time." He also postulated that paradigms are discrete and culturally-based. According to Kuhn, a paradigm dictates:

- What is studied and researched?
- The type of questions that are asked.
- The exact structure and nature of the questions.
- How the results of any research are interpreted?

According to Guba (1990), paradigms can be characterized through their: ontology (What is reality?), epistemology (How do you know something?) and methodology (How do you go about finding out?). These characteristics create a holistic view of how we view knowledge: how we see ourselves in relation to this knowledge and the methodological strategies we use to discover or undiscover it. Ontology is what exists and is a view on the nature of reality. Epistemology is our perceived relationship with the knowledge we are un/dis/covering. Are we part of that knowledge or are we external to it? And methodology refers to how you go about finding out knowledge and carrying out your research. It is your strategic approach, rather than your techniques and data analysis. Some examples of such methods are:

24.2. NORMAL SCIENCE VERSUS REVOLUTIONARY SCIENCE

Normal science is the step-by-step scientific process, which builds patiently upon previous research. On the other hand, revolutionary science, often 'fringe science' questions the paradigm itself. Kuhn originally believed that a paradigm would make a sudden leap from one to the next, called a *shift*, and he believed that the new paradigm could not be built upon the foundations of the old. Probably the best example of this is in physics. Newton's Laws

were an example of a paradigm, and scientists worked upon his principles for centuries. The discovery of the internal structure of the atom started to find holes in the theory, and Einstein provided the 'out of the box thinking' that dragged the paradigm in another direction.

However, Kuhn later conceded that the process might be more gradual. For example, Relativity did not completely prove Newton wrong, but added to it and adapted it. Even the Copernican revolution was a little more gradual before completely throwing out Ptolemy's beliefs. Taking the Chinese researcher example, there is now a better integration between eastern and western medical philosophies, so the paradigms are merging. The Paradigm is closely related to the Platonic and Aristotelian views of knowledge. Aristotle believed that knowledge could only be based upon what is already known, the basis of the scientific method. Plato believed that knowledge should be judged by what something could become, the end result, or final purpose. Plato's philosophy is more like the intuitive leaps that cause scientific revolution; Aristotle's the patient gathering of data. A revolution will revise *some* of the previous paradigm but not necessarily all of it. To be accepted a proposed new paradigm must retain at least the bulk of the puzzle-solving power of its predecessor. And the scientists trained in the old paradigm, including young and radical scientists, must be able to recognize the new scientific achievement *as* a new scientific achievement. So, it must share some similarity to its predecessor. There is progress then in science, not only in normal science but also through revolutions.

24.3. REVOLUTIONS AS CHANGES OF WORLD VIEW

During scientific revolutions, scientists see new and different things when looking with familiar instruments in places they have looked before. Familiar objects are seen in a different light and joined by unfamiliar ones as well. Scientists see new things when looking at old objects. In a sense, after a revolution, scientists are responding to a different world. A shift in view occurs because of genius or flashes of intuition, factors embedded in the nature of human perception and retinal impression, and a change in the relation between the scientist's manipulations and the paradigm or between the manipulations and their concrete results. But it does not occur because different scientists interpret their observations differently. Observations are themselves nearly always different. Observations are conducted within a paradigmatic framework, so the interpretative enterprise can only articulate

a paradigm, not correct it. And also, it does not occur because of changes in definitional conventions.

24.4. PARADIGM SHIFT IN SECOND LANGUAGE EDUCATION

In L2 education, the principal paradigm shift over the past 40 years flowed from the positivism to post-positivism shift and involved a move away from the tenets of behaviorist psychology and structural linguistics and toward cognitive, and later, socio-cognitive psychology and more contextualized, meaning-based views of language. Key components on this shift concerned:

1. Focusing greater attention on the role of learners rather than the external stimuli learners are receiving from their environment. Thus, the center of attention shifted from the teacher to the student. This shift is generally known as the move from teacher-centered instruction to learner-centered or learning-centered instruction.

2. Focusing greater attention on the learning process rather than on the products that learners produce. This shift is known as a move from product-oriented instruction to process-oriented instruction.

3. Focusing greater attention on the social nature of learning rather than on students as separate, decontextualized individuals.

4. Focusing greater attention on diversity among learners and viewing these differences not as impediments to learning but as resources to be recognized, catered to, and appreciated. This shift is known as the study of individual differences.

5. Focusing greater attention on the views of those internal to the classroom rather than solely valuing the views of those who come from outside to study classrooms, evaluate what goes on there and engage in theorizing about it. This shift led to such innovations as qualitative research-with its valuing of the subjective and effective, of the participants' insider views and of the uniqueness of each context.

6. Along with this emphasis on context came the idea of connecting the school with the world beyond as a means of promoting holistic learning.

7. Helping students to understand the purpose of learning and develop their own   purposes.

8.   A whole-to-part orientation instead of a part-to-whole approach. This involves such approaches as beginning with meaningful whole texts and then helping students understand the various features that enable to texts to function, e.g., the choice of words and the text's organizational structure.

9.   An emphasis on the importance of meaning rather than drills and other forms of rote learning.

10.   A view of learning as a lifelong process rather than something done to prepare for an exam.

24.4.1. Eight Changes as Part of the Paradigm Shift in Second Language Education

The paradigm shift in L2 education outlined above has led to many suggested changes in how L2 teaching is conducted and conceived. In this section, we consider 8 major changes associated with the shift in the L2 education paradigm. We selected these 8 because of the impact they already have had on our field and for the potential impact they could have if they were used in a more integrated fashion. Firstly, we briefly explain each change, explore links between the change and the larger paradigm shift and look at various L2 classroom implications. These eight changes are:

- Learner autonomy;
- Cooperative learning;
- Curricular integration;
- Focus on meaning;
- Diversity;
- Thinking skills;
- Alternative assessment; and
- Teachers as co-learners.

24.5. CONCLUSION

L2 educators should take a big-picture approach to the changes in the teaching profession. Many of these changes stem from an underlying paradigm shift. By examining this shift and looking for connections between various changes in the teaching field, these changes can be better understood. Most importantly, by attempting to implement change in a holistic way, the chances of success greatly increase. However, it is much easier to state in theory than

to implement in practice. Perhaps the best-known and most painful example of the failure to implement holistic change in L2 education is that in many cases while teaching methodology has become more communicative, testing remains with the traditional paradigm, consisting of discrete items, lower-order thinking and a focus on form rather than meaning (Brown, 1994). This creates a backwash effect that tends to pull teaching back toward the traditional paradigm, even when teachers and others are striving to go toward the new paradigm. Implementing change is difficult. Perhaps this is where the 8th changes as mentioned above, teachers as co-learners, plays the crucial role. Many people are drawn to work in L2 education because they enjoy learning and want to share this joy with others. All the changes that have taken place in our field challenge us to continue learning about our profession and to share what we learn with others, including our colleagues, so that we can continue to help our field develop.

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Chapter 25

What Is Needs Analysis?

CONTENTS

25.1. OVERVIEW

Conducting a needs analysis is an important first step in the development of a curriculum that is being developed from scratch for a completely new program (Brown, 1995). According to Brown (1995), the definition of a needs analysis as cited in Kusomoto (2008) is "the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the LL requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation" (p. 36). The outcome of a need's analysis should be a list of goals and objectives for the parties involved, which should "serve as the basis for developing tests, materials, teaching activities, and evaluation strategies, as well as for reevaluating the precision accuracy of the original needs assessment" (Brown, 1995, p. 35). Some studies have confirmed that a needs analysis can best be implemented in curriculum development (Bosher and Smalkowski, 2002; Chaudron et al., 2005). Bosher and Smalkowski (2002) conducted a needs analysis and developed a course called "Speaking and Listening in a Health-Care Setting" to assist struggling ESL students attempting to enter health-care programs at a private college in Minneapolis, Minnesota. Similarly, Chaudron et al. (2005) conducted a task-based needs analysis for Korean as a foreign language program at the University of Hawai'i at Mānoa. The researchers focused on target needs to develop prototype task-based instruction rather than developing an entire curriculum. According to Berwick (1989), as cited in Allami et al. (2009) by definition, needs analysis refers to procedures adapted to collect and assess information that can help relevant stakeholders in designing an appropriate language program. Sometimes it is even perceived as an educational technology with which the goals of a language program could be measured precisely.

Richards, Platt, and Platt (1992), as cited in Kandil (n.d.), mention that needs analysis is the process of determining the needs of a learner or group of learners that need a language and arranging the needs according to priorities. Nunan (2001) defines needs analysis; he says, "techniques and procedures for collecting information to be used in syllabus design are referred to as needs analysis" (p. 13). He continues that the techniques have been adapted and borrowed from other areas and domains of training and development, especially those associated with industry and technology. According to Rouda and Kusy (1996), needs assessment is a kind of systematic exploration of the ways things are and the way they should be. They believe that things are usually associated with organizational and/or individual performance.

Findely and Nathan (1980) notice that needs assessment is person-centered instead of language-centered. They think that needs analysis starts with questions about what the learner needs to be able to do, and what functions s/he needs to perform and do in the TL. According to Johnson and Jackson (2006), needs analysis is established practice in LT, and it leads to needs-driven teaching. They believe that needs analysis is based on what might be termed competence needs; it means areas of language identified as being useful and fruitful to learners in terms of eventual uses.

25.2. WHAT IS THE ROLE OF NEEDS ANALYSIS?

According to Mozzon-McPherson (2007), the needs analysis acts as a mediating tool. It helps the learner and advisor to identify and clarify learner needs, work out priorities, target specific identified areas and domains, and consider a realistic timescale for an action plan. Richards and Renandya (2002) mention that nowadays, needs analysis is seen as the logical starting point for the development of a language program, and it is responsive to the learner and learning needs, yet there has been some disagreement as to what is entailed. Brindley (1989), as cited in Richards and Renandya (2002), suggests that two orientations are now recognized in general:

- "A narrow, product-oriented view of needs which focuses on the language necessary for particular future purposes and is carried out by the experts; and
- A broad, process-oriented view of needs which takes into account factors such as learners' motivation and learning styles as well as learner-defined TL behavior" (p. 75).

To Brindley, both types of needs analysis are necessary.

According to Lowe (2009), main types of needs analysis are:

1. **Target Situation Analysis:** A study of the situations in which the language is used. This provides a guide as to what language to teach.

2. **Present Situation Analysis:** What are the students like at the beginning of the course? What is their learning background? For those in institutions, this may be known, and very similar. For other classes, the background may vary widely.

3. **Lacks Analysis (Deficiency Analysis):** This means what it says. Students are evaluated to see what language they lack. Commonly, a diagnostic test is used in the analysis.

4.   **Learning Needs Analysis (Strategy Analysis):** In terms of language, learning skills such as autonomy, etc.

5.   **Constraints Analysis (Means Analysis):** The limitations in the actual teaching context are identified.

6.   **Pedagogic Needs Analysis:** A term which groups together, i.e., lacks analysis, learning needs analysis, and constraints analysis (3, 4, and 5 above).

7.   **Wants Analysis (Subjective Needs Analysis):** The teacher finds out what the learners think they want to learn.

These types do seem to overlap somewhat, and sometimes the needs may be contradictory.

25.3. METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES IN LEARNER NEEDS ANALYSIS

Long (2005) says that in our era, the demands for accountability in public life, with education a particularly urgent case and foreign language education a prime example within it, are growing. He continues that lots of secondary school students and adults with occupational, academic, vocational, or survival needs for functional L2 proficiency are dissatisfied with lessons, materials, and methodology developed for someone else or for no-one in particular. I (Hashtroodi) think we have some experience in high school. So Long (2005) believes "there is an urgent need for courses of all kinds to be relevant and to be seen to be relevant to the needs of specific groups of learners and of society at large" (p. 19).

According to Long (2005), one way among other ways in which foreign and L2 educators have responded to the changing situation is to base more of their courses on the findings of learner needs' surveys. But like teaching of ESL, too many of the needs analyses or assessments are done through semi-structured interviews, or written questionnaire. In the past, instruments often have been devised by applied linguists or even teachers with limited expertise in research methods, usually little or no insider knowledge of the field concerned, and with the learners as the primary respondents. Long (2005) adds that some exceptions also exist and the situation is improving yet slowly.

Another complex issue is the sufficiency of language students as sources of information about their present or future communicative needs (Long, 2005). Learners wish to be consulted sometimes and are well informed (I

myself experienced that my adult educated students want to be consulted). But in most of the cases, while they can identify and recognize their general reasons for studying a language, 'it will be the analyst's job to identify needs, administer tests, and generally complete the diagnosis." (p. 20) Long (2005) believes that there are a great number of needs analysis which have been reported in the literature, yet there has been little research surprisingly. He mentions that most of the writings about the topic, report the results of needs analyses with little generalizable findings or principles, and also make unsupported assertions about suitable or successful needs analyzes methodology.

He says that "with very few exceptions reviews of the L2 NA literature make little or no reference to research in foreign language education or in ESL on the methodology of NA itself for the simple reason that hardly any such research has been conducted" (p. 21).

25.3.1. Issues and Methods in Needs Analysis

According to Kormos, Hegebi, and Csolle (2002), learners needs have been of prime importance in learner-centered approaches, and the study of these needs-known as needs analysis or needs assessment-has become an important part of curriculum design. They believe that the early study of needs analysis is associated with Munby's work (1978). They also say that one of the most general definitions of needs is provided by Berwick (1989) who states that "a need is expressed as a gap or measurable discrepancy between a current state of affairs and a desired future state" (p. 519).

They provide Brindley's (1989) definition of needs analysis as the gap between what is and what should be, and they add that these broad definitions, must be explained, it means what is meant by the current state of affairs and whose gaps and desires are to be investigated. These different interpretations of needs, according to Kormos et al. (2002), led to a great deal of disagreement between researchers and led to the appearance of several approaches to the interpretation and analysis of needs. According to Brindley (1989), as cited in Kormos et al. (2002), one of these approaches is called the narrow interpretation "where the learners' needs are seen as the language they will have to produce in a particular communicative situation, in other words, needs mean TL behavior in a TL situation" (p. 519).

They mention that this kind of orientation is applied by Bachman and Palmer (1996), who argue that needs analysis involves the systematic gathering of particular information on the language needs of learners and

the analysis of this information for the purpose of language syllabus design. Brindley, as cited in Kormos et al. (2002) refers to broad interpretation and says that needs are individual learner needs in the learning situation, which entail a number of affective, cognitive, and even social factors. Nunan (1988) as cited in Kormos et al. (2002) uses objective or factual and subjective or perceived information about learners.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987), as cited in Kormos et al. (2002), "distinguish between two types of needs: target needs and learning needs." (p. 519) Target needs comprise necessities, lacks, and wants. On the other hand, learning needs is a cover term for all the factors connected to the process of learning like attitude, awareness, motivation, personality, learning styles and strategies, social background.

According to Kormos et al. (2002), there are many ways in which needs can be assessed and evaluated, and they vary according to the purpose of the analysis. Questionnaires, interviews, observation schedules, and consultations are used commonly as tools, and maybe designed for various audiences depending on the purpose of the assessment. They believe that it is good to use a combination of these methods. They pinpoint that the roots of needs analysis "derive from learner-centeredness and ESP curriculum design" (p. 520), and it has been widely applied in other fields of applied linguistic research.

25.4. OVERVIEW OF NEEDS ANALYSIS

Recently a major trend in language syllabus design is the use of information from and about learners in curriculum decision-making, according to Nunan (2001). He says that some points are important and can have an influence on the shape of the syllabus which the course is based. The points are assumptions about the learner's purpose in undertaking a language course, and the syllabus designer's beliefs about the nature of language and learning. He mentions that according to how specific learners' purposes are, and how immediately learners wish to employ their developing language skills, learners' purposes will vary. He says that information is collected from why learners want to learn the TL and from such things a societal expectations and constraints and the resources available for implementing and doing the syllabus. He points out that there are two different types of needs analysis used by language syllabus designers which are learner analysis and task analysis. According to Nunan (2001) "learner analysis is based on information about the learner" (p. 14). So, the question here is

"for what purposes is the learner learning a language?" (p. 14). He states that with certain students, there are lots of areas of possible conflict within a teaching program, and "these potential points of conflict can be revealed through needs analysis" (p. 18) According to Nunan (2001) task analysis is used to specify and categorize the language skills required to do real-world communicative tasks, and sometimes follows the learner analysis which establishes the communicative purposes for which the learner desires and wishes to learn the language. So, the question here is "what are the subordinate skills and knowledge required by the learner in order to carry out real-world communicative tasks?" (p. 19).

25.5. JOHN'S MUNBY'S "COMMUNICATIVE SYLLABUS DESIGN"

Munby in 1978 in his influential book, writes in details a set of procedures for determining target situation needs. He calls the procedures, the 'communication needs processor' (CNP). ESP, at last had the machinery for identifying needs. According to him, the end product is a detailed profile of the students' language needs. Modern needs analysis includes areas specifically excluded by Munby, e.g., practicalities, and constraints, teaching methods, learning strategies, and recently, materials selection. This is a major limitation of Munby. Munby's model is actually performance related, and it neglects underlying competence (Lowe, 2009).

25.5.1. Munby's Model

Nunan (2001) points out that the most complicated application of needs analysis in the case of syllabus design is found in the work of John Munby (1978). Munby's model as Nunan (2001) says, has nine elements, and the syllabus designer had better collect information on each of these elements. The elements are: 1. Participant, 2. Purposive domain, 3. Setting, 4. Interaction, 5. Instrumentality, 6. Dialect, 7. Target level, 8. Communicative event, and 9. Communicative key.

Critique of Munby (According to West, 1994, as cited in Lowe, 2009):

1. **Complexity:** Long and complicated, hence unlikely to be used more than once. All subsequent systems have striven for simplicity.

2. **Learner Centeredness:** Munby's tool collects data about the learner, yet not FROM the learner.

3.   **Constraints:** Munby studied these afterwards, when what is desirable is balanced against what is feasible. Many would argue that these constraints should be considered at the beginning!

4.   **Language:** Munby provided detailed procedures for describing the learner, yet gave no guidance on how to take the next step of developing a syllabus.

25.5.2. Criticism of Munby's Model

Nunan (2001) emphasizes the Munby's approach has been criticized from many angles for being too much mechanistic, and for paying too little attention to the perceptions of the learner. These kinds of criticisms led to a change of emphasis, so syllabus designers try to pay much more attention to the collection of subjective information. And a trend towards a humanistic approach to education was emphasized in this way.

Nunan (2001) defines humanistic approach, he says "humanistic education is based on the belief that learners should have a say in what they should be learning and how they should learn it, and reflects the notion that education should be concerned with the development of autonomy in the learner" (p. 20). Nunan (2001) mentions that teachers' syllabus and the learners' syllabus or agenda might be different. So objective needs analysis is good to involve learners and teachers in exchanging information, therefore, the agenda of the teacher and the learner can be more closely aligned. This takes place in two ways: (a) "information provided by learners can be used to guide the selection of content and learning activities;" and (b) by providing learners with detailed information about goals, objectives, and learning activities, learners may come to have a greater appreciation and acceptance of the learning experience they are undertaking or about to undertake.

25.5.3. Objective and Subjective Information

Nunan (2001) points out that some syllabus designers differentiate between objective and subjective information. Objective data is the factual information that does not need the attitudes and views of the learners to be taken into account. So biological information on age, nationality, and home language are objective. But subjective information reflects the perceptions, goals, and priorities of the learner. It includes information about why the learner has undertaken to learn a L2, and the classroom tasks and activities that the learner prefers.

25.6. NEEDS ANALYSIS IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND REVIEW

In a curriculum review, according to Balint (n.d.), students perceived EL needs are often collected and taken into consideration toward any curriculum revision. According to Balint, as student populations, societal views, and institutional factors are constantly changing, EL programs need to adapt their curriculum. He also mentions that needs analysis as commonly called needs assessment, is now often viewed as an integral part of language curriculum development and review. He says that in the field of ESL, primarily the growing interest in the needs of the students has focused on what types of linguistic output the students will need, often referred to as an *ends-means* approach to curriculum design. "Following the Munby Model of curriculum design, this focuses on the specific speech acts necessary in a given situation the learner will encounter" (p. 26).

Needs analysis's inclusion, according to Balint, can be seen in many curriculum development models that have been developed over the past 20 years, such as the one by Brown (1995) as you see on the board. Pay attention that the needs analysis is the first element of Brown's curriculum approach and that thorough evaluation of the program, the needs analysis is part of a system that returns to the needs analysis again. Balint pinpoints that "in reference to statements made by Pratt (1980) about needs analyzes, Brown (1995) points out that needs are not absolute, that is, once they are identified, they continually need to be examined for validity to ensure that they remain real needs for the students involved." (p. 28) So EL programs need to conduct needs analyses as part of routine review of its curriculum.

25.7. NEEDS ANALYSIS FOR VARIOUS LANGUAGE PROGRAMS

Kusumoto (2008) mentions that because needs analysis serves as an important initial step in curriculum design for further development of teaching materials, learning activities, tests, program evaluation strategies, and so forth, there is an impressive amount of research on needs analysis in the LT field. Recently, a considerable degree of emphasis has been placed on needs analysis for EAP, English for Business Purposes, and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Bosher and Smalkoski, 2002; Brown et al., 2007; Cowling, 2007; Edwards, 2000; Jasso-Aguilar, 2005). For example, Cowling (2007) as cited in Kusumoto (2008) conducted a needs analysis

and designed a syllabus for an intensive EL course for the Japanese industrial firm, Mitsubishi Heavy Industry (MHI) in Japan. The company has many plants building and maintenance contracts overseas. He also says that teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) literature has widely discussed the value and importance of a needs analysis in language program and curriculum development for foreign language programs, such as Korean as a Foreign Language and Japanese as a Foreign Language, in addition to ESL and EFL contexts (e.g., Chaudron et al., 2005; Iwai et al., 1999). However, needs analysis studies on teacher training have rarely been reported in the literature?

25.8. ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

By its high awareness of needs, ESP is distinguished. On the surface, ESP is distinguished by content (science, etc.), yet this is a secondary consequence of the felt needs. The opposite is TENOR, Teaching English for No Obvious (immediate) Reason (Lowe, 2009).

According to Richards (2001), as cited in Balint (n.d.), needs analysis's inclusion in L2 curriculum development began in earnest in the 1960's as language programs started emphasizing ESP instruction. Balint says that "the type of needs analysis for ESP focuses on gathering detailed language used for vocational or other specific language needs" (p. 26). He mentions that one such particular and specialized language focus is that necessary for academic purposes, the language needed to perform English-medium coursework at the university in an English-speaking country, such as the United States or England. He continues that often the language needs for academic or vocational purposes are from professionals in the field in that the learners will be entering.

25.9. NEEDS ASSESSMENT AND ESP

ESP practitioners have been preoccupied with learner needs, with identifying and recognizing learner wants and purposes as integral and obligatory elements in materials design, all over ESP's history (Johns, 1991). According to Munby (1978), (as cited in Johns, 1991), needs assessment were quite simple, precourse procedures in their early years. Recent needs assessments, according to Johns (1991), increasingly have grown sophisticated, but as materials developers have become aware of the problematic nature of their task. Johns (1991) says that one attempt to gain and capture some of the

difficulty and complexity of the means by which individuals acquire and use language was made by Jacobson (1986). He states that Jacobson observed international students in the process of collecting data for a laboratory report, to determine at which points there was communication breakdown.

According to Rmani et al. (1988) (as cited in Johns, 1991), other assessments have exploited ethnographic principles, which are thick description in an effort to identify the different elements of the target situation in which students will be using English. According to Coleman (1988), (as cited in Johns, 1991), the problems involved in assessing learner needs and understanding the situation in which they will be using English are daunting. Johns (1991) adds that ESP materials designers continue in their efforts to expand and improve their collection and analysis techniques. Hutchinson and Waters (1987), (as cited in Gadacha, 2007) go beyond the categorization of linguistic features in their approach to ESP language needs analysis. They distinguish target needs (it means what learners need to do in the target situation) from learning needs (it means what learners need to do in order to learn). But Gadacha (2007) believes that needs assessment "is a sensible undertaking even when students have clear target needs, real-life language needs and a context for using the language skills gained to class" (p. 149). He mentions that it is a two-fold challenge, based on Graves (2001): how to provide adequate yet not overwhelming data on which to base decisions and how to benefit from the potential and experience of learners. So Gadacha (2007) concludes that learners must cease to be looked upon, and in this way, they can bring their own experience and expectations to a language program. He adds that "it was this neglect which prompted so many investigators to develop an approach which would more actively involve learners in the needs analysis and design of the language program" (p. 149). Clapham (2000) states that ESP course designers began to do needs analyzes of their students' future linguistic requirements during the late 1970s. She mentions that often these needs analyze were expressed in terms of notions and functions, and she continues that the most celebrated model of such a needs analysis was explained by Munby (1978) in his communicative syllabus design. She says that Munby presented a system for devising appropriate syllabus specifications from adequate profiles of communication needs. She notes that Munby did not want his model to be used as the basis for designing test specifications, and actually it was inadequate for this purpose. According to Alderson (1988), (as cited in Clapham, 2000) any needs analysis based on it would produce and make a huge list of needs, most of which not be convertible into test items, and because there would be no

indication of the respective importance of the different needs and required skills, "it would be impossible to make a principled selection of those needs and skills which were testable" (p. 513) Celce-Murcia (2001) believes that needs assessment is obligatory in every genuine ESP course. She says that an ongoing needs assessment is integral to curriculum design and evaluation, in many programs. Practitioners in performing an assessment try to determine as closely as possible what students will need to do in EL contexts or with EL literacies. She also says that methods of assessing learner needs have become increasingly complicated and process-based, over the years. She presented a few of them employed for the same curricular design. They are as follows:

- Questionnaires and surveys;
- Interviews of experts, students, and other stakeholders;
- Observation, job-shadowing, and analysis;
- Multiple intelligence and learning style surveys of the students;
- Modes of working;
- Spoken or written reflections by the students-or their supervisors-before, during or after instruction.

Celce-Murcia (2001) concludes that "from the established needs, specific objectives for students are written, and from these objectives, the classroom tasks and methods for assessment of the program and its students are determined and revised as the course progresses" (p. 50).

25.10. EAP AND NEEDS ANALYSIS

According to Zareva (2005), most EAP needs analysis research has focused primarily on identifying students' needs with respect to the four skills areas (it means reading, writing, listening, speaking), and it is logical to expect that the distribution of these needs will differ and vary according to the point of view research, level of study, and even area of specialization. Waters (1996), (as cited in Zareva, 2005) points out that a major weakness of EAP needs analysis research is the fact that it largely ignores that a good deal of EAP is carried out within an integrated-skill framework.

25.11. CONCLUSION

As Findly and Nathan (1980) believe procedures for needs assessment are reaching a state of useful refinement now, and they are well developed,

workable taxonomies for looking at parameters of CC in terms of roles, topics, situations, notions, and grammatical structures. Also, teachers and curriculum designers apply these procedures to establish an inventory of competencies for each new program.

According to Long (2005), there are five sources of information for needs analysis: 1. Published and unpublished, 2. Learners, 3. Teachers and applied linguists, 4. Domain experts, 5. Triangulated sources. And syllabus designer's choice among sources is a crucial issue according to Chambers (1980), (as cited in Long, 2005) that the one determines needs largely determines which needs are determined. Brindley (1989), (as cited in Hall and Hewings, 2001) suggests three different approaches to needs analysis and calls them the language proficiency orientation, the psychological/ humanistic orientation, and the specific purpose orientation. Hall and Hewings (2001) believe that a main purpose for conducting and doing needs analysis is to categorize and group learners. This kind of grouping process facilitates the specification of content and learning procedures that are along with some aspect of the learner data that has been gathered.

And an effective and popular needs analysis, according to Case (2008):

- Looks at their needs in many different ways;
- Has a clear purpose;
- Is culturally appropriate?
- Fits in with the restrictions you are under;
- Discusses and gives hints for self-study skills;
- Includes a mix of skills;
- Is interactive/ fun;
- Cannot crash and burn;
- Links to a language point;
- Works with mixed levels;
- Leaves a written record;
- Includes functional language;
- Is also a level check and diagnostic test;
- Is an example of the kind of lesson you will be giving them;
- Is flexible.

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Chapter 26

Schema and Background Knowledge

CONTENTS

26.1. OVERVIEW

Hedge (2003) defined content schemata as the background knowledge of a topic which a learner holds in his or her mind and which assists in the interpretation of a text (p. 408). According to Ellis (2003), language users make use of their knowledge of the world to help them comprehend texts. Research in cognitive psychology has shown that learners possess schemata, i.e., mental structures that organize their knowledge of the world which they draw on in interpreting texts (p. 41). Brown (2001) also stated that a text does not by itself carry meaning. The reader brings information, knowledge, emotion, experience, and culture, to the printed word (p. 300).

26.2. USING DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHEMATA FOR COMPREHENDING A WRITTEN TEXT

According to Ellis (2003), there is a general distinction between content and formal schemata. The former are structures that organize our knowledge of the world. The latter are structures that represent our knowledge of the different ways in which textual information can be organized (p. 41). Anderson and Lynch (1988, cited in Ellis, 2003) distinguished three types of content schemata: (1) general factual knowledge, (2) local factual knowledge, and (3) socio-cultural knowledge (p. 41). For example, understanding a newspaper headline like 'Saddam Slams Door on Hopes for Peace' involves knowing who Saddam is (general knowledge); knowing that Saddam expelled American members of a United Nations inspection team from Iraq (local factual knowledge); and knowing that slamming doors is generally perceived negatively in English speaking cultures (socio-cultural knowledge).

Formal schemata include mental representations of (1) micro-rhetorical structures such as adjacency pairing, for example knowing that an invitation is likely to be followed by either a schema for weather forecasting refusal or an acceptance, and (2) macro-level rhetorical structures, for example, the problem-solution pattern. Toledo (2005) defined formal schemata as the (partial) knowledge the learner has about, mainly, the written texts' structure. In his paper, he referred to the need to include the notion of genre in schema research, and more specifically in research on formal schemata. The notion of genre or *rhetoric schemata* brings up a pragmatic dimension, and incorporates a consideration of the socio-cultural conventions for the assessment of reading comprehension.

26.3. THE ROLE OF SCHEMATA IN LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Listeners like readers, use these schemata to comprehend a text in three major ways: (1) interpretation, (2) prediction, and (3) hypothesis testing (Ellis, 2003, p. 41). Interpretation involves recognizing key lexical items that activate an appropriate schema. Prediction occurs on the basis of the initial interpretation. For example, listeners who activate a content schema for weather forecasting will be able to predict that there will be information relating to both the kind of weather (whether there will be sun, rain, or snow) and the temperature (both minimum and maximum). They will also be able to predict how the information in the forecast will be structured, for example, information about the current state of the weather will precede information about future weather. Hypothesis testing involves further processing of the language of the text in order to confirm/disconfirm predictions. In cases where they disconfirmed, new schemata are invoked and the process of prediction and hypothesis testing continues. The processes of interpretation, predicting, and hypothesis testing do not necessarily occur sequentially. They are dynamic and can be carried out in parallel.

26.4. WHAT IS SCHEMA MATCHING?

Evermann (2009) in his article, defined the concept of schema matching as an important step in database integration which identifies elements in two or more databases that have the same meaning. He believed that a multitude of schema matching methods have been proposed, but little is known about how humans assign meaning to database elements or assess the similarity of meaning of database elements. Schema matching is the problem of finding correspondences (mapping rules, e.g., logical formulae) between heterogeneous schemas, e.g., in the data exchange domain (Nottelmann and Straccia, 2007). The schema of a relational database defines the structure of the database. It defines a set of relations with attributes and the dependencies among attributes. The normalized theory of the relational schema is to ensure high consistency, low redundancy, and better efficiency. A relational data model is limited in representing rich semantic relationships between various resources and supporting reasoning on semantic relations. The Semantic Web aims at making Web resources machine-understandable by enriching semantics in resources.

There is growing evidence regarding the benefits of explicit schema training using visual representations on students' learning of mathematics.

Jitendra, Star, Starosta, Leh, Sood, Caskie, Hughes, and Mack (2009), in their study evaluated the effectiveness of an instructional intervention (schema-based instruction, SBI) that was designed to meet the diverse needs of middle school students by addressing the research literatures from both special education and mathematics education. Specifically, SBI emphasizes the role of the mathematical structure of problems and also provides students with a heuristic to aid and self-monitor problem solving. Results suggested that students in SBI treatment classes outperformed students in control classes on a problem-solving measure, both at posttest and on a delayed posttest administered 4 months later.

26.5. WHAT IS BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE?

Various terms have been used to refer to the information shared and drawn upon by people when they communicate with each other. Some of these terms are 'shared knowledge,' 'mutual knowledge,' 'common knowledge,' 'background knowledge,' 'common ground,' 'mutual beliefs,' 'shared beliefs,' 'mutual suppositions,' 'presuppositions,' etc. The plethora of terms used reflects the current state of interest expressed by various scholars in this 'common knowledge/belief', which people seem to draw upon in helping them to express themselves as well as to understand each other. The plethora of terms used also reflects a general confusion of the terminology (Lee, 2001). By referring to the above points, Lee (2001) proposed a definition for background knowledge. Her believed that *Common* (or *background)* knowledge is that information which members of a particular community assume to be held common by virtue of the fact they have very similar background or up-bringing. For example, you accept the information that London is in the south of Britain while Edinburgh is to the north to be common knowledge between your brother (a Singaporean who has never been to Britain) and you, even though we have never talked about the relative locations of the two cities before. The reason is because we have very similar childhood and school experiences.

An important topic in the study of categorization and concept formation focuses on how background knowledge or theories might influence what is learned about a category (Murphy and Medin, 1985, cited in Palmeri and Blalock, 2000). For example, background knowledge can influence the

ease of learning linearly separable versus non-linearly separable categories and can influence the ease of learning conjunctive versus disjunctive rules. In addition, a number of studies have found a facilitative effect of prior background knowledge on learning new categories (e.g., Heit, 1994, 1998; Murphy and Allopenna, 1994; Murphy and Wisniewski, 1989, cited in Palmeri and Blalock, 2000).

According to Gilabert, Martı́nez, and Vidal-Abarca (2005) making good texts for learning is a complex issue not only because there are different procedures to improve an instructional text, but also because there are complex interactions among those procedures, some learner's variables (e.g., prior background knowledge and strategies).

26.6. USING BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE IN DIFFERENT DISCIPLINES

Background knowledge may be specified as arising from a concept hierarchy of attributes, as integrity constraints, from the integration of conflicting databases, or from knowledge possessed by domain experts. Using such information, one can propose to re-engineer the database by replacing missing, conflicting, or unacceptable outlying data by sets of the attribute domain (McClean, Scotney, and Shapcott, 2000). Forestier, Gançarski, and Wemmert (2010), in their paper after the introduction of the collaboration process, presented different ways to integrate background knowledge into it. The integration of background knowledge in clustering algorithms has been the subject of a lot of interest. Many approaches have been investigated to use background knowledge to guide the clustering process. In constrained clustering, knowledge is expressed as must-link and cannot-link constraints and is used to guide the clustering process. A must-link constraint gives the information that two data objects should be in the same cluster, and cannot link means the opposite. This kind of knowledge is sometimes easier to obtain than a classical subset of labeled samples (Forestier, Gançarski, and Wemmert, 2010).

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Chapter 27

Socratic Method of Teaching

CONTENTS

27.1. OVERVIEW

Socrates was a classical Greek philosopher. As one of the founders of Western philosophy, he is an accomplished figure known mostly through the writings of Plato and Xenophon, later philosophers who were his students. It is a widely held view that Plato's dialogs are the most comprehensive accounts of Socrates viewpoints. The Socratic method is a type of pedagogy in which a series of questions are asked not only to draw individual answers, but also to encourage fundamental insight into the issue at hand. Socrates was the son of a midwife and believed as a midwife helps a woman give birth to the child, he helped people generate new ideas. This skill was named midwifery skill (Wang, Tsai, Chiang, and Lin, 2008). Socrates is reputed to have elicited sophisticated concepts from an untutored slave boy through patient questioning. This illuminates two fundamental facts for us. The power of questioning in teaching and the innateness of some capabilities. In this way, we can conclude it was Socrates who for the first time developed the idea of Nature versus Nurture (Newcombe, and Uttal, 2006).

27.2. TYPES OF QUESTION

Gunter and Mintz (2010) argue that the job of the teacher, according to Socrates, is to help the learner collect his or her thoughts from which to build new understanding from prior knowledge. Socrates method is learning by inquiry, the process of asking and answering perplexing questions. They classify questions into six main types:

1.   *Remembering questions* ask students to recall information.
2.   *Understanding questions* ask students to explain ideas or concepts.
3.   *Applying questions* ask students to use information in another familiar situation.
4.   *Analyzing questions* ask students to break information into parts in order to explore the relationship among the parts.
5.   *Evaluating questions* ask students to justify a decision or a course of action.
6.   *Creating questions* ask students to generate new ways of thinking about things.

According to Wang, Tsai, Chiang, and Lin (2008) Socrates first guided the students to recognize their ignorance, and then kept their minds surrounded by questions until they could not stop thinking about them, and then helped

to provide a good and spontaneous learning process similar to the processes by which we learn from our own painful experiences (midwifery skill). In comparison with the traditional lecture approach to teaching, there is a specific characteristic of PBL. When taught through lectures, the learners merely know the knowledge they are given, rather than understand it. Sullivan, Smith, and Matusov (2009) assert that Socrates does not remain above many of the dialogs, but often uses his own life as a personal example. For example, in *Apology*, he argues that others should imitate his search for wisdom. He tries to encourage others to always do the right thing.

Walton (2005) also argues that Socrates' typical method is based on a series of questions addressed to an interlocutor in which he compares an answer to previous answers, often revealing problems or apparent contradictions. For example, Socrates asks a to give his views on what the common quality of courage is. He then asks several other questions that invite the soldier to refine his definition, by applying it to specific cases or issues. For example, he asks who is the most courageous, a person who dives to save someone drowning even though he lacks the skill of diving, or the expert diver. Questions such as these make the soldier narrow down his initial definition of courage, making it more precise. The Socrates conducts a similar examination with another soldier. The outcome is that the definitions of these two soldiers are incompatible. This outcome poses a puzzle. These two soldiers who are expected to be experts on courage based on their military knowledge, disagreed on how to define courage. Socrates concludes that the experts know less than they think they know.

27.3. TEACHERS' ROLE

Teaching methods requiring active participation of the student are favored in an idealistic curriculum; for example, the Socratic lesson where Socratic questioning is used to stimulate student thought. Here the lecture is not simply to provide factual information for memorization. It is based on a dialectic method where ideas are discussed and debated. The teacher's role is an important one. The teacher brings together the world of ideas and the world outside of the classroom, understands stages of development and learning, plans activities accordingly, and is a role model representing the ideal adult. With regard to curriculum, idealists see the curriculum as a vehicle by which students are taught to conceptualize, to develop thinking skills and to reach self-actualization. Knezic, Wubbels, Elbers, and Hajer (2010) in their article argue that Socratic Dialog proves a considerable

contribution in training teachers. They suggest a manner of integrating Socratic Dialog in teacher education. Wubbles (1992, cited in Knezic et al., 2010) pointed out the gap between the theoretical concepts' student teachers learn and their teaching practice. He suggests changing teacher students' preconceptions in the process of teaching them new concepts by making them realize the shortcomings of their preconceptions and creating the new need for new conceptions. Participating in the Socratic Dialog may serve the purpose of self-scrutiny of preconceptions about teaching and thus possibly lead to conceptual changes in student teachers and make them apply new concepts in their teaching. Socrates claimed that just like his mother, he was practicing midwifery. His mother helped pregnant women deliver babies, and he helped his followers deliver knowledge. He did so by questioning. First driving the followers into self-contradiction, and thus freeing them of their false preconceptions, and then helping them deliver the true knowledge.

27.4. CITICISMS OF THE SOCRATIC METHOD

The case/Socratic method has been challenged by a number of education experts. Some of the criticisms include: The method has a high cost and low efficiency;

It has an adverse emotional impact on both law teachers and law students. This method often fails to consider legislative and administrative materials, trial-level proceedings, legal institutions, the legal profession, and social and psychological factors at play both in the case scenario and the classroom. It is argued that the Socratic method is a drill at best, and that for many students, even the most glittering dialogues may be fools' gold. Even the more vocal students in a highly Socratic class spend most of their time listening to others and their experience is mainly passive and vicarious. The assumption that the student who is being questioned and the rest of the class develop in a parallel manner from the dialogue is dubious. Many students report that the anxious wait to be called upon does not allow for much penetration of information much less the development of higher cognitive skills. The dialogue students hear involves, much of the time, perceptions they do not grasp or share. Assignments often are not planned with the view to systematically develop students' analytical skills.

27.5. CONCLUSION

Socratic dialogue, a form of the Socratic method in which conversation is used to find the value and truth of individuals' opinions. During this conversation, members of a group think carefully, slowly, and deliberately. Hence, the Socratic dialogue must not be confused with a debate, discussion, or brainstorming session because it's a methodical investigation that engages participants in a common cause. Socratic dialogue has three, distinctive levels. The first level is the dialogue or conversation itself. The second level is *strategic discourse*, which describes the shape of the dialogue as it unfolds. The third level is called *meta-discourse* because it relates to the rules for conducting the dialogue.

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Chapter 28

Grammatical versus Communicative Functions

CONTENTS

28.1. OVERVIEW

From linguistic and pragmatic points of view, the distinction is made between the grammatical function of words and the communicative function of sentences and utterances. Grammatical functions are also call parts of the speech or seen tactic categories (Fromkin et al., 2003). Grammatical function refers to the deer medical row (subject, object, etc.), a word plays in a sentence (Radford, 2004). On the opposite, the communicative function relates to what people want to do through language. Accordingly, function in a communicative sense refers to "purposes for which people communicate such as expressing thanks and making requests" (Guntermann and Phillips, 1982, cited in Chastain, 1998). Function generally refers to "the purpose for which an utterance or a unit of language is used" (Richards et al., 1992). Language functions are categories of behavior realized in a specific speech acts such as the requests, apologies, suggestions, and offers. A single grammatical form may accomplish several different functions. For example, an imperative sentence may perform a variety of different functions such as ordering, requesting, suggesting, and inviting. Communicative function and the ability to recognize it is especially important in interaction. At the individual, or group level, the communicative function of an interaction will be directly related to individual purposes and needs (Paltridge, 2000). From a discourse analysis point of view, in function can be arrived at with reference to participants, their roles, and contacts in any discourse and linguistic forms are interpreted in terms of these (McCarthy, 1999).

28.2. FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE

28.2.1. Lyons's (1981) View

Language has three main functions: Descriptive, expressive, and social. Factual information is conveyed through the descriptive function of language (ex. Water boils at 100°C). The expressive function provides information about the speaker, his feelings, the Francis, prejudices, and past experiences (I wish I were young to jump over this obstacle).

The social function of language is used to stab Liszt and maintain social relations between people (ex. you had better work hard to pay me back). These functions at times, it should be mentioned, may overlap. Holiday's (1978, 1994, p. 179) view: inhabit the A's opinion, language plays the three main functions.

1.   **Ideational:** Which organizes the language producers' experience of the real or imaginary world. Language camera for both to real and imagined persons, things, actions, etc.

2.   **Interpersonal:** Which establishes and maintains social relations between people.

3.   **Textual:** Which creates written and spoken text which are coherent.

Halliday (1978, cited in Stern, 1983) further developed a taxonomy of language functions based on developmental or a lamb and the functions of language:

1.   Instrumental= (I want) to satisfy certain needs.

2.   Regulatory = (do as I tell you) to control other people's behavior.

3.   Interactional = (me and you) to interact with others.

4.   Personal = (here I am) to express self.

5.   Imaginative = (let us pretend) to create a particular world of self.

6.   Informative = (I have something to tell you) to convey new information.

28.2.2. Bachman's (1990) View

In his model of communicative language ability, Bachman divides language competence into organizational competence and pragmatic competence. He further divides pragmatic competence to illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. Under illocutionary competence, he enumerates four functions of language which are Ideational, Manipulative, Heuristic, and Imaginative.

28.2.3. Wilkins's (1976) Functional/Notional Syllabus

Wilkins (1976) in his functional/notional syllabus which is a model for organizing a syllabus, contends that "what people want to do through language is more important than mastery of language as an unemployed system" (cited in Chastain, 1988, p. 106). Wilkins identified six functions/ purposes of language: judgment and evaluation, (per)suasion, arguments, rational, and query and exposition, personal emotions, and emotional relations.

28.3. PRAGMATICS

As a component of language ability, and an important branch of linguistics, "Pragmatics is the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and the use of those forms" (Yule, 1996, p. 4). Another appealing definition of the concept was provided by Crystal (1997) who proposed that Pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of its users, with regard to choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on others involved in the very act of communication (cited in Rose and Kasper, 2001). Wolfson (1989) argues that Pragmatics must be considered as a part of sociolinguistics in that Pragmatics as a narrower scope. In more simpler terms, Pragmatics is the study of language in use. Levinson (1983, cited in Martinez-Floor, 2004) argued that the interest in Pragmatics appeared as a reaction to Chomsky's use of language as an abstract construct, on the one hand, and as the necessity to bridge the gap between existing linguistics theories and accounts of linguistic communication, on the other.

28.4. SPEECH ACT THEORY

The study of the speech acts has been undertaken under the general topics of Discourse Analysis, Semantics, and Pragmatics. Pragmatics is, however, seen as dealing with speech acts and the speaker's meaning (Horn and Ward, 2005).

Two key figures behind the speech at the theory are John Austin and John Searle. A speech act is an action performed by the use of an utterance to communicate (Yule, 1996). A speech act is a sentence or utterance that has both prepositional (literal) meaning and illocutionary force (Paltridge, 2000).

28.4.1. Austin's (1962) Classification

In speech act theory, utterances have three kinds of acts, according to Austin.

1. **Locutionary/Propositional Meaning/Act:** This is the basic literal meaning of the utterance which is conveyed by the particular words and the structures contained in the utterance.

2. **Illocutionary Act/Force:** This is the effect the utterance/sentence has on the listener/reader (example: I am thirsty).

3. **Perlocutionary Act:** This implies what is done as a result of saying something.

Austin (1962, cited in Wardaugh, 1986) identifies two further types of utterances; namely performatives and constatives. Performative audiences are those which performed an act as in "I promise not to be late"

A constative is, on the other hand, an utterance that expresses something that is either true or false as in "Nile River is in Egypt."

28.4.2. Paltridge (2000) Classification

Paltridge distinguishes between direct and indirect speech acts. Direct the speech acts perform the function in a direct and literal manner. Indirect speech acts intend something that is totally different from the literal meaning of what is said (e.g., The room is too cold).

In the literature on language functions and the speech acts, the two terms are fairly considerably used interchangeably. Function refers to the purpose for which language is used, which may be realized in speech acts. Speech acts are utterances which have both propositional and certain illocutionary force with them.

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Critical Appraisal of Language Teaching Methodology

Language teaching methodology aims to provide a critical appraisal for EFL students to manage different terms in language teaching methodologies. The purpose of this book is to strengthen critical appraisal of language teaching methodology and to promote the critical thinking of the graduated and postgraduate students about the main concerns English teaching and learning. This book briefly outlines the main concepts in language teaching methodology by providing a brief historical overview along with outlining the key issues in language teaching. It presents students a brief overview of the terms commonly used in the second language (L2) professional literature. The goal is not to be exhaustive but rather to provide a sketchy overview of the basics for the novice readers. Language teaching methodology briefly overview methods in language teaching from a historical perspective then provide different alternative methods in language teaching. The methods are divided into the traditional and conventional parts. All methods have been briefly outlined by summarizing each into main focus, principles, and critical appraisal. Attempts were made to focus on the main concern of each method. Next, the book provides a critical look at foreign language learner, computer-assisted language learning (CALL), Corpus Linguistics, different types of learning, instruction, and programs. The book can be used in both undergraduate and graduate courses. The most outstanding feature Language teaching methodology provides our intended readers including MA, PhD students, teachers, and researchers with a substantive source by which they can get a firsthand, immediate experience at different academic experience. We hope that the reading of the book caters to the continuing process of enquiry which is the ultimate goal in the new-found reformulation of ideas evolving in the history of language teaching and learning.

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