The Linguistic Context of Schooling

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Contents

Chapter 1

Language School

A **language school** is a school where one studies a foreign language. Classes at a language school are usually geared towards, for example, communicative competence in a foreign language. Language learning in such schools typically supplements formal education or existing knowledge of a foreign language.

Students vary widely by age, educational background, workexperience.Further, at language school students usually have the possibility of selecting a specific course according to their language proficiency. According to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR), there are six language levels that define students language proficiency based on their speaking, writing and reading skills. Students will be then assigned to the course that matches their skills.

Structure

As a general rule, new students take a placement test which enables teachers to determine which is the most appropriate level for the student. Courses can be organized in groups or for individuals (one-to-one lessons). Private language schools are generally open year-round and are equipped with pedagogical material (books, tape recorders, videos, language laboratories, a library, etc.)

Organization

Most language schools are private and for-profit. Fees vary depending on a multitude of factors, including local cost of living, exchange rates, and demand for the language in the area where a school is located. Language schools are either independent entities or corporate franchises.

Teachers

Teachers are expected to possess native speakerfluency or acquired competence in their target languages; formal qualifications to become a language teacher, however, vary by school, region or country. This ensures the quality of the language school and provides students with a richer experience.

Teachers may have graduated with a B.A, Master's degree or a Ph.D.. Pedagogy, experience and strong teaching skills are the principal criteria during the recruitment of the language school's teachers.

Accommodation

Many language schools offer various kinds of accommodation to their students: host family (homestays), campus residences, shared housing, or hotels.

Qualifications

Most students will sit an international language exam and receive an internationally recognized qualification.

International language exams

Language schools commonly offer specific programs to those wishing to prepare for internationally recognized language exams such as:

- TOEIC (English)
- TOEFL (English)
- CaMLA (English)
- TrackTest (English)
- University of Toronto TEFL (English)
- Cambridge English Language Assessment (English)
- DELF/DALF (French)
- TestDaF (German)
- SIELE (Spanish)
- DELE (Spanish)
- JLPT (Japanese)
- TOPIK (Korean)
- HSK (Chinese Mandarin)
- DELI/DILI/DALI (Italian)

Some organizations combine language study with travel to destinations where the language is natively spoken.

This concept of immersion travel makes it easier for students to experience and understand the destination country's culture and language.

Language courses

English

Globally, English language schools have seen the greatest demand over schools for other languages. Over one billion people are said to be learning English in a second language or foreign language context. In the United States alone, ESL learners make up over one-third of all adult, non-academic learners. English learning has experienced the highest increase in demand over the last three years, with an increase of 67%. The United States and the UK are the biggest players in the global English travel market accounting for 62% of the total revenue earned in 2013, and account for 65.5% of students worldwide.

English language schools are also among the most numerous in Asian countries such as China, Japan and South Korea, as Western culture influences the rising demand for English in business and cultural contexts.

Other European languages

Spanish is the second most popular language in the language travel market, followed with some distance by French, Italian and German. While demand for French, Italian, and German is decreasing, the demand for other languages such as Chinese and Arabic has significantly increased in recent years. Total immersion Spanish language schools have become very popular in Latin America and Spain. Total immersion Italian language schools are popular in Italy.

Chinese

Chinese is one of the largest growing languages among second or foreign language learners, and demand for such classes has typically followed suit. Language schools teaching Mandarin Chinese in the United States and the United Kingdom have increased in number over the last two decades.

Arabic

Arabic has also grown in popularity in the last decade. Reasons include the continued growth of Islam worldwide (the Koran holy book is in Arabic), as well as cultural, economic and political reasons.

Hindi

The Hindi language along with the culture of the Indian subcontinent has started to become important due to recent foreign policies, global competitiveness, and emigration from the country. Hindi began to be introduced as a foreign language in some American schools in the 2000s. Instructors in the language were sought to teach from the kindergarten level right up to the university as part of the National Security Language Initiative.

Russian

Russian has also grown in popularity in the last decade. Reasons include the continued growth of Russian science worldwide, and cultural, economical and political reasons.

Chapter 2

Language Education

Language education – the process and practice of teaching a second or foreign language – is primarily a branch of applied linguistics, but can be an interdisciplinary field. There are four main learning categories for language education: communicative competencies, proficiencies, cross-cultural experiences, and multiple literacies.

Need

Increasing globalization has created a great need for people in the workforce who can communicate in multiple languages. Common languages are used in areas such as trade, tourism, international relations, technology, media, and science. Many countries such as Korea (Kim Yeong-seo, 2009), Japan (Kubota, 1998) and China (Kirkpatrick &Zhichang, 2002) frame education policies to teach at least one foreign language at the primary and secondary school levels. However, some countries such as India,

Singapore, Malaysia, Pakistan, and the Philippines use a second official language in their governments. According to GAO (2010), China has recently been putting enormous importance on foreign language learning, especially the English language.

History

Ancient to medieval period

The need to learn foreign languages is as old as human history itself. In the Ancient Near East, Akkadian was the language of diplomacy, as in the Amarna letters. For many centuries, Latin was the dominant language of education, commerce, religion, and government in much of Europe, but it was displaced for many purposes by French, Italian, and English by the end of the 16th century. John Amos Comenius was one of many people who tried to reverse this trend. He wrote a complete course for learning Latin, covering the entire school curriculum, culminating in his *Opera Didactica Omnia*, 1657.

In this work, Comenius also outlined his theory of language acquisition. He is one of the first theorists to write systematically about how languages are learned and about methods for teaching languages. He held that language acquisition must be allied with sensation and experience. Teaching must be oral.

The schoolroom should have models of things, or else pictures of them. He published the world's first illustrated children's book, *Orbissensualiumpictus*.

The study of Latin gradually diminished from the study of a living language to a mere subject in the school curriculum. This decline demanded a new justification for its study. It was then claimed that the study of Latin developed intellectual ability, and the study of Latin grammar became an end in and of itself.

"Grammar schools" from the 16th to 18th centuries focused on teaching the grammatical aspects of Classical Latin. Advanced students continued grammar study with the addition of rhetoric.

18th century

The study of modern languages did not become part of the curriculum of European schools until the 18th century. Based on the purely academic study of Latin, students of modern languages did much of the same exercises, studying grammatical rules and translating abstract sentences. Oral work was minimal, and students were instead required to memorize grammatical rules and apply these to decode written texts in the target language. This tradition-inspired method became known as the grammar-translation method.

19th and 20th centuries

Innovation in foreign language teaching began in the 19th century and became very rapid in the 20th century. It led to a number of different and sometimes conflicting methods, each claiming to be a major improvement over the previous or contemporary methods. The earliest applied linguists included Jean Manes ca, Heinrich Gottfried Ollendorff (1803–1865), Henry Sweet (1845–1912), Otto Jespersen (1860–1943), and Harold Palmer (1877–1949).

They worked on setting language teaching principles and approaches based on linguistic and psychological theories, but they left many of the specific practical details for others to devise.

The history of foreign-language education in the 20th century and the methods of teaching (such as those related below) might appear to be a history of failure. Very few students in U.S. universities who have a foreign language as a major attain "minimum professional proficiency". Even the "reading knowledge" required for a PhD degree is comparable only to what second-year language students read, and only very few researchers who are native English speakers can read and assess information written in languages other than English. Even a number of famous linguists are monolingual.

However, anecdotal evidence for successful second or foreign language learning is easy to find, leading to a discrepancy between these cases and the failure of most language programs. This tends to make the research of second language acquisition emotionally charged. Older methods and approaches such as the grammar translation method and the direct method are dismissed and even ridiculed, as newer methods and approaches are invented and promoted as the only and complete solution to the problem of the high failure rates of foreign language students.

Most books on language teaching list the various methods that have been used in the past, often ending with the author's new method. These new methods are usually presented as coming only from the author's mind, as the authors generally give no credence to what was done before and do not explain how it relates to the new method. For example, descriptive linguists seem to claim unhesitatingly that there were no scientifically based language teaching methods before their work (which led to the audio-lingual method developed for the U.S. Army in World War II). However, there is significant evidence to the

contrary. It is also often inferred or even stated that older methods were completely ineffective or have died out completely, though in reality even the oldest methods are still in use (e.g. the Berlitz version of the direct method). Proponents of new methods have been so sure that their ideas are so new and so correct that they could not conceive that the older ones have enough validity to cause controversy. This was in turn caused by emphasis on new scientific advances, which has tended to blind researchers to precedents in older work.(p. 5)

There have been two major branches in the field of language learning, the empirical and theoretical, and these have almost completely separate histories, with each gaining ground over the other at one time or another. Examples of researchers on the empiricist side are Jesperson, Palmer, and Leonard Bloomfield, who promote mimicry and memorization with pattern drills. These methods follow from the basic empiricist position that language acquisition results from habits formed by conditioning and drilling. In its most extreme form, language learning is seen as much the same as any other learning in any other species, human language being essentially the same as communication behaviors seen in other species.

On the theoretical side are, for example, Francois Gouin, M.D. Berlitz, and Emile B. De Sauzé, whose rationalist theories of language acquisition dovetail with linguistic work done by Noam Chomsky and others. These have led to a wider variety of teaching methods, ranging from the grammar-translation method and Gouin's "series method" to the direct methods of Berlitz and De Sauzé. With these methods, students generate

original and meaningful sentences to gain a functional knowledge of the rules of grammar. This follows from the rationalist position that man is born to think and that language use is a uniquely human trait impossible in other species. Given that human languages share many common traits, the idea is that humans share a universal grammar which is built into our brain structure. This allows us to create sentences that we have never heard before but that can still be immediately understood by anyone who understands the specific language being spoken. The rivalry between the two camps is intense, with little communication or cooperation between them.

21st century

Over time, language education has developed in schools and has become a part of the education curriculum around the world. In some countries, such as the United States, language education (also referred to as World Languages) has become a core subject along with main subjects such as English, Maths and Science.

In some countries, such as Australia, it is so common nowadays for a foreign language to be taught in schools that the subject of language education is referred to LOTE or Language Other Than English. In the majority of English-speaking education centers, French, Spanish, and German are the most popular languages to study and learn. English as a Second Language (ESL) is also available for students whose first language is not English and they are unable to speak it to the required standard.

Teaching foreign language in classrooms

Language education may take place as a general school subject or in a specialized **language school**. There are many methods of teaching languages. Some have fallen into relative obscurity and others are widely used; still others have a small following, but offer useful insights.

While sometimes confused, the terms "approach", "method" and "technique" are hierarchical concepts.

An **approach** is a set of assumptions about the nature of language and language learning, but does not involve procedure or provide any details about how such assumptions should be implemented into the classroom setting. Such can be related to second language acquisition theory.

There are three principal "approaches":

- The structural view treats language as a system of structurally related elements to code meaning (e.g. grammar).
- The functional view sees language as a vehicle to express or accomplish a certain function, such as requesting something.
- The interactive view sees language as a vehicle for the creation and maintenance of social relations, focusing on patterns of moves, acts, negotiation and interaction found in conversational exchanges. This approach has been fairly dominant since the 1980s.

A **method** is a plan for presenting the language material to be learned, and should be based upon a selected approach. In order for an approach to be translated into a method, an instructional system must be designed considering the objectives of the teaching/learning, how the content is to be selected and organized, the types of tasks to be performed, the roles of students, and the roles of teachers.

- Examples of structural methods are grammar translation and the audio-lingual method.
- Examples of functional methods include the oral approach / situational language teaching.
- Examples of interactive methods include the direct method, the series method, communicative language teaching, language immersion, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, the Natural Approach, Tandem Language Learning, Total Physical Response, Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling and Dogme language teaching.

A **technique** (or strategy) is a very specific, concrete stratagem or trick designed to accomplish an immediate objective. Such are derived from the controlling method, and less directly, from the approach.

Online and self-study courses

Hundreds of languages are available for self-study, from scores of publishers, for a range of costs, using a variety of methods. The course itself acts as a teacher and has to choose a methodology, just as classroom teachers do.

Audio recordings and books

Audio **recordings** use native speakers, and one strength is helping learners improve their accent. Some recordings have pauses for the learner to speak. Others are continuous so the learner speaks along with the recorded voice, similar to learning a song.

Audio recordings for self-study use many of the methods used in classroom teaching, and have been produced on records, tapes, CDs, DVDs and websites.

Most audio recordings teach words in the target language by using explanations in the learner's own language. An alternative is to use sound effects to show meaning of words in the target language. The only language in such recordings is the target language, and they are comprehensible regardless of the learner's native language.

Language **books**have been published for centuries, teaching vocabulary and grammar. The simplest books are phrasebooks to give useful short phrases for travelers, cooks, receptionists, or others who need specific vocabulary. More complete books include more vocabulary, grammar, exercises, translation, and writing practice.

Also, various other "language learning tools" have been entering the market in recent years.

Internet and software

Software can interact with learners in ways that books and audio cannot:

- Some software records the learner, analyzes the pronunciation, and gives feedback.
- Software can present additional exercises in areas where a particular learner has difficulty, until the concepts are mastered.
- Software can pronounce words in the target language and show their meaning by using pictures instead of oral explanations. The only language in such software is the target language. It is comprehensible regardless of the learner's native language.

Websites provide various services geared toward language education. Some sites are designed specifically for learning languages:

- Some software runs on the web itself, with the advantage of avoiding downloads, and the disadvantage of requiring an internet connection.
- Some publishers use the web to distribute audio, texts and software, for use offline. For example, various travel guides, for example Lonely Planet, offer software supporting language education.
- Some websites offer learning activities such as quizzes or puzzles to practice language concepts.
- Language exchange sites connect users with complementary language skills, such as a native Spanish speaker who wants to learn English with a native English speaker who wants to learn Spanish. Language exchange websites essentially treat *knowledge of a language* as a commodity, and provide a marketlike environment for the commodity to be exchanged. Users typically contact each other

via chat, VoIP, or email. Language exchanges have also been viewed as a helpful tool to aid language learning at language schools. Language exchanges tend to benefit oral proficiency, fluency, colloquial vocabulary acquisition, and vernacular usage, rather than formal grammar or writing skills. Across Australasia, 'Education Perfect' – an online learning site- is frequently used as it enables teachers to monitor students' progress as students gain a "point" for every new word remembered. There is an annual international Education Perfect languages contest held in May.

Many other websites are helpful for learning languages, even though they are designed, maintained and marketed for other purposes:

- All countries have websites in their own languages, which learners elsewhere can use as primary material for study: news, fiction, videos, songs, etc. In a study conducted by the Center for Applied Linguistics, it was noted that the use of technology and media has begun to play a heavy role in facilitating language learning in the classroom. With the help of the internet, students are readily exposed to foreign media (music videos, television shows, films) and as a result, teachers are taking heed of the internet's influence and are searching for ways to combine this exposure into their classroom teaching.
- Translation sites let learners find the meaning of foreign text or create foreign translations of text from their native language.

- Speech synthesis or text to speech (TTS) sites and software let learners hear pronunciation of arbitrary written text, with pronunciation similar to a native speaker.
- Course development and learning management systems such as Moodle are used by teachers, including language teachers.
- Web conferencing tools can bring remote learners together; e.g.Elluminate Live.
- Players of computer games can practice a target language when interacting in massively multiplayer online games and virtual worlds. In 2005, the virtual world Second Life started to be used for foreign language tuition, sometimes with entire businesses being developed. In addition, Spain's language and cultural institute Instituto Cervantes has an "island" on Second Life.

Some Internet content is free, often from government and nonprofit sites such as BBC Online, Book2, Foreign Service Institute, with no or minimal ads. Some are ad-supported, such as newspapers and YouTube. Some require a payment.

Learning strategies

Language learning strategies have attracted increasing focus as a way of understanding the process of language acquisition.

Listening as a way to learn

Clearly listening is used to learn, but not all language learners employ it consciously. Listening to understand is one level of

listening but focused listening is not something that most learners employ as a strategy. Focused listening is a strategy in listening that helps students listen attentively with no distractions. Focused listening is very important when learning a foreign language as the slightest accent on a word can change the meaning completely.

Reading as a way to learn

Many people read to understand but the strategy of reading text to learn grammar and discourse styles can also be employed.

Speaking as a way to learn

Alongside listening and reading exercises, practicing conversation skills is an important aspect of language acquisition. Language learners can gain experience in speaking foreign languages through in-person language classes, language meet-ups, university language exchange programs, joining online language learning communities (e.g. Conversation Exchange and Tandem), and traveling to a country where the language is spoken.

Learning vocabulary

Translation and rote memorization have been the two strategies that have been employed traditionally.

There are other strategies that also can be used such as guessing, based on looking for contextual clues, spaced repetition with a use of various apps, games and tools (e.g.

DuoLingo, LingoMonkey and Vocabulary Stickers). Knowledge about how the brain works can be utilized in creating strategies for how to remember words.

Learning Esperanto

Esperanto, the most widely used international auxiliary language, was founded by L. L. Zamenhof, a Polish-Jewish ophthalmologist, in 1887, aimed to eliminate language barriers in the international contacts. Esperanto is an artificial language created on the basis of the Indo-European languages, absorbing the reasonable factors of commonality of the Germanic languages. Esperanto is completely consistent in its speech and writing.

The stress of every word is fixed on the penultimate syllable. By learning twenty-eight letters and mastering the phonetic rules, one can read and write any words. With further simplification and standardization, Esperanto becomes more easily mastered than other languages. Ease of learning helps one build the confidence and learning Esperanto, as a learning strategy, constitutes a good introduction to foreign language study.

Teaching strategies

Blended learning

Blended learning combines face-to-face teaching with distance education, frequently electronic, either computer-based or web-based. It has been a major growth point in the ELT (English Language Teaching) industry over the last ten years.

Some people, though, use the phrase 'Blended Learning' to refer to learning taking place while the focus is on other activities. For example, playing a card game that requires calling for cards may allow blended learning of numbers (1 to 10).

Skill teaching

When talking about language skills, the four basic ones are: listening, speaking, reading and writing. However, other, more socially based skills have been identified more recently such as summarizing, describing, narrating etc. In addition, more general learning skills such as study skills and knowing how one learns have been applied to language classrooms.

In the 1970s and 1980s, the four basic skills were generally taught in isolation in a very rigid order, such as listening before speaking. However, since then, it has been recognized that we generally use more than one skill at a time, leading to more integrated exercises. Speaking is a skill that often is underrepresented in the traditional classroom. This is due to the fact that it is considered harder to teach and test. There are numerous texts on teaching and testing writing but relatively few on speaking.

More recent textbooks stress the importance of students working with other students in pairs and groups, sometimes the entire class. Pair and group work give opportunities for more students to participate more actively. However, supervision of pairs and groups is important to make sure everyone participates as equally as possible. Such activities

also provide opportunities for peer teaching, where weaker learners can find support from stronger classmates.

Sandwich technique

In foreign language teaching, the **sandwich technique** is the oral insertion of an idiomatic translation in the mother tongue between an unknown phrase in the learned language and its repetition, in order to convey meaning as rapidly and completely as possible. The mother tongue equivalent can be given almost as an aside, with a slight break in the flow of speech to mark it as an intruder.

When modeling a dialogue sentence for students to repeat, the teacher not only gives an oral mother tongue equivalent for unknown words or phrases, but repeats the foreign language phrase before students imitate it: L2 => L1 => L2. For example, a German teacher of English might engage in the following exchange with the students:

- Teacher: "Let me try – lass michversuchen – let me try."
- Students: "Let me try."

Mother tongue mirroring

Mother tongue mirroring is the adaptation of the time-honoured technique of literal translation or word-for word translation for pedagogical purposes. The aim is to make foreign constructions salient and transparent to learners and, in many cases, spare them the technical jargon of grammatical analysis. It differs from literal translation and interlinear text

as used in the past since it takes the progress learners have made into account and only focuses upon a specific structure at a time. As a didactic device, it can only be used to the extent that it remains intelligible to the learner, unless it is combined with a normal idiomatic translation. This technique is seldom referred to or used these days.

Back-chaining

Back-chaining is a technique used in teaching oral language skills, especially with polysyllabic or difficult words. The teacher pronounces the last syllable, the student repeats, and then the teacher continues, working backwards from the end of the word to the beginning.

For example, to teach the name 'Mussorgsky' a teacher will pronounce the last syllable:*-sky,* and have the student repeat it. Then the teacher will repeat it with *-sorg-* attached before: *-sorg-sky,* and all that remains is the first syllable: *Mus-sorg-sky.*

Code Switching

Code switching is a special linguistic phenomenon that the speaker consciously alternates two or more languages according to different time, places, contents, objects and other factors. Code switching shows its functions while one is in the environment that mother tongue are not playing a dominant role in students' life and study, such as the children in the bilingual family or in the immigrant family. That is to say, the capability of using code switching, relating to the transformation of phonetics, words, language structure,

expression mode, thinking mode, cultural differences and so on, is needed to be guided and developed in the daily communication environment. Most people learn foreign language in the circumstance filled with the using of their native language so that their ability of code switching cannot be stimulated, and thus the efficiency of foreign language acquisition would decrease. Therefore, as a teaching strategy, code switching is used to help students better gain conceptual competences and to provide rich semantic context for them to understand some specific vocabularies.

By region

Practices in language education may vary by region however the underlying understandings which drive it are fundamentally similar. Rote repetition, drilling, memorisation and grammar conjugating are used the world over. Sometimes there are different preferences teaching methods by region. Language immersion is popular in some European countries, but is not used very much in the United States, in Asia or in Australia.

By different life stage

Early childhood education

Early childhood is the fastest and most critical period for one to master language in their life. Children's language communication is transformed from non-verbal communication to verbal communication from ages of one to five. Their mastery of language is largely acquired naturally by living in a

verbal communication environment. As long as we are good at guiding and creating opportunities for children, children's language ability is easy to be developed and cultivated.

Compulsory education

Compulsory education, for most people, is the period that they have access to a second or foreign language for the first time. In this period, the most professional foreign language education and academic atmosphere are provided to the students. They can get help and motivation from teachers and be activated by the peers at any time. One would be able to undergo a lot of specialized learning in order to truly master a great number of rules of vocabulary, grammar and verbal communication.

Adult education

Learning a foreign language during adulthood means one is pursuing a higher value of themself by obtaining a new skill. At this stage, individuals have already developed the ability to supervise themself learning a language. However, at the same time, the pressure is also an obstacle for adults.

Elderly education

Compared to other life stages, this period is the hardest to learn a new language due to gradual brain deterioration and memory loss. Notwithstanding its difficulty, language education for seniors can slow this brain degeneration and active ageing.

Language study holidays

An increasing number of people are now combining holidays with language study in the native country. This enables the student to experience the target culture by meeting local people. Such a holiday often combines formal lessons, cultural excursions, leisure activities, and a homestay, perhaps with time to travel in the country afterwards. Language study holidays are popular across Europe (Malta & UK being the most popular because almost everyone speaks English as a first language) and Asia due to the ease of transportation and variety of nearby countries. These holidays have become increasingly more popular in Central and South America in such countries as Guatemala, Ecuador and Peru. As a consequence of this increasing popularity, several international language education agencies have flourished in recent years. Though education systems around the world invest enormous sums of money into language teaching the outcomes in terms of getting students to actually speak the language(s) they are learning outside the classroom are often unclear. With the increasing prevalence of international business transactions, it is now important to have multiple languages at one's disposal. This is also evident in businesses outsourcing their departments to Eastern Europe.

Minority language education

Minority language education policy

The principal policy arguments in favor of promoting minority language education are the need for multilingual workforces,

intellectual and cultural benefits and greater inclusion in global information society. Access to education in a minority language is also seen as a human right as granted by the European Convention on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages and the UN Human Rights Committee. Bilingual Education has been implemented in many countries including the United States, in order to promote both the use and appreciation of the minority language, as well as the majority language concerned.

Materials and e-learning for minority language education

Suitable resources for teaching and learning minority languages can be difficult to find and access, which has led to calls for the increased development of materials for minority language teaching. The internet offers opportunities to access a wider range of texts, audios and videos. Language learning 2.0 (the use of web 2.0 tools for language education) offers opportunities for material development for lesser-taught languages and to bring together geographically dispersed teachers and learners.

Acronyms and abbreviations

- **ALL**: Apprenticeship Language Learning
- **CALL**: computer-assisted language learning
- **CLIL**: content and language integrated learning
- **CELI**: Certificato di Conoscenzadella Lingua Italiana
- **CLL**: community language learning
- **DELE**: Diploma de EspañolcomoLenguaExtranjera
- **DELF**: diplômed'étudesen langue française

- **EFL**: English as a foreign language
- **EAL/D**: English as an additional language or dialect
- **EAP**: English for academic purposes
- **ELL**: English language learning
- **ELT**: English language teaching
- **ESL**: English as a second language
- **ESP**: English for specific purposes English for specific purposes
- **FLL**: foreign language learning
- **FLT**: foreign language teaching
- **HLL**: heritage language learning
- **IATEFL**: International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language
- **L1**: first language, native language, mother tongue
- **L2**: second language (or any additional language)
- **LDL**: LernendurchLehren (German for learning by teaching)
- **LOTE**: Languages Other Than English
- **SLA**: second language acquisition
- **TELL**: technology-enhanced language learning
- **TEFL**: teaching English as a foreign language
- **TEFLA**: teaching English as a foreign language to adults
- **TESOL**: teaching English to speakers of other languages
- **TEYL**: teaching English to young learners
- **TPR**: Total Physical Response
- **TPRS**: Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling

- UNIcert is a European language education system of many universities based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

Chapter 3

International Language Exams

TOEIC

The **Test of English for International Communication** (**TOEIC**) is an international standardized test of English language proficiency for non-native speakers. It is intentionally designed to measure the everyday English skills of people working in an international environment.

There are different forms of the exam: The TOEIC Listening & Reading Test consists of two equally graded tests of comprehension assessment activities totaling a possible 990 score; There are also the TOEIC Speaking and Writing Tests. The TOEIC speaking test is composed of tasks that assess pronunciation, intonation and stress, vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, relevance of content and completeness of content. The TOEIC Writing test is composed of tasks that assess grammar, relevance of sentences to the pictures, quality and variety of sentences, vocabulary, organization, and whether the opinion is supported with reason and/or examples. Both assessments use a score scale of 0 – 200.

TOEIC Listening & Reading Test

The TOEIC Listening & Reading Test lasts two hours [45 minutes for Listening, and 75 minutes for Reading]. It consists of 200 multiple-choice items evenly divided between the

listening and reading comprehension section. Each question is worth five scores. So each candidate receives independent scores for listening and reading comprehension on a scale from 0 to 495 points. The total score adds up to a scale from 0 to 990 points. The TOEIC certificate exists in five colors, corresponding to achieved results:

- orange (0–219)
- brown (220–469)
- green (470–729)
- blue (730–859)
- gold (860–990)

TOEIC test certificates are optional, unofficial documents that are meant for display only.

TOEIC Speaking & Writing Test

The TOEIC Speaking & Writing Tests were introduced in 2006. Test takers receive separate scores for each of the two tests, or they can take the Speaking test without taking the Writing test and vice versa. The Speaking test assesses pronunciation, intonation and stress, vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, relevance of content and completeness of content, while the Writing test assess grammar, relevance of sentences to the pictures, quality and variety of sentences, vocabulary, organization, and whether the opinion is supported with reason and/or examples. The tests are designed to reflect actual English usage in the workplace, though they do not require any knowledge of specialized business terms. The TOEIC Speaking Test takes approximately 20 minutes to complete; the TOEIC writing test lasts approximately 60 minutes. Each test has a

score range between 0–200, with test takers grouped into eight proficiency levels for Speaking and nine proficiency levels for Writing.

History

The US-based Educational Testing Service (ETS) developed the TOEIC test to measure achievement in using English in a business setting. YasuoKitaoka was the central figure of the Japanese team that conceived the basic idea of the TOEIC test.

ETS's major competitors are Cambridge University, which administers the IELTS, FCE, CAE, and CPE and Trinity College London, which administers GESE and ISE exams.

2006 Redesigned TOEIC tests

A new version of the TOEIC Listening & Reading test was released in 2006. The changes can be summarized as follows:

- Overall, passages are longer.
- Part 1 has fewer questions involving photograph descriptions.
- The Listening Section hires speakers of English from Britain, Australia, New Zealand and North America, and uses an equal distribution of the dialects. However, all the voice actors for the audio sections have lived in the United States for an extended period.
- Part 6 no longer contains an error-spotting task, criticized as unrealistic in a corporate environment,

instead adopting the use of a task wherein the test taker fills in blanks in incomplete sentences.

- Part 7 contains not only single-passage questions but also double-passage questions wherein the test taker reads and compares the two related passages, such as an e-mail correspondence.

According to a survey conducted in 2006 by the Institute for International Business Communication (財団法人国際ビジネスコミュニケーション協会, *Zaidanhōjin Kokusai BijinesuKomyunikēshonKyōkai*), 56.8% of the respondents who took both the older and the revised versions of the TOEIC test in Japan find the latter version more difficult. The lower the score the test taker achieves, the more marked this tendency becomes. As many as 85.6% of those who earned scores ranging from 0 to 395 points find the revised TOEIC test more difficult, while 69.9% of those who earned 400 to 495 points think this way, as do 59.3% of those who earned 500 to 595 points. Among those who achieved 600 to 695 points 58.9% agree with these findings. 700 to 795 points 48.6%, 800 to 895 points 47.9%, and 900 to 990 points 39.8%.

2006 also saw the addition of TOEIC Speaking & Writing tests. In 2007 there were additional changes to the TOEIC Reading & Listening test that decreased emphasis on knowledge of grammatical rules.

How the TOEIC Listening and Reading test is scored

Scores on the TOEIC Listening and Reading test are determined by the number of correct answers. The number of correct responses on each section is multiplied by five and

converted to a scaled score. Three TOEIC Listening and Reading scaled scores are given for each examinee:

- one for the Listening Section
- one for the Reading Section
- one Total Score that consists of the sum of the Listening Section and Reading Section sub-scores.

Each sub-score can range from 0 to 495 points. The Total Score ranges from 0 to 990. There is no negative scoring. The Total Score consists of the sum of the Listening Section and Reading Section sub-scores.

In 2016, the TOEIC system changed for the first time in 10 years. ETS said that the changes to the TOEIC would reflect the use of online communication in modern society.

In Japan and South Korea, a new version of TOEIC was created that includes chart comprehension questions.

Test accommodations

Below are the types of accommodations commonly given:

- extended testing time
- additional rest breaks
- reader
- scribe
- recorder to mark answers
- headphones
- alternate test formats, e.g. Braille, enlarged print

- alternate response formats, e.g. computer for writing section
- wheelchair access

TOEIC in Japan

The Institute for International Business Communication (財団法人国際ビジネスコミュニケーション協会, *Zaidanhōjin Kokusai BijinesuKomyunikēshonKyōkai*) operates the TOEIC test in Japan, where nearly 2.4 million people (as of 2014) take the test; 1.3M for institutional program (IP) and 1.1M for secure program (SP).

There are two ways to take the TOEIC test properly. One is called the TOEIC SP Test (Secure Program Test; 公開テスト, *KōkaiTesuto*), in which one can take the test individually or in a group on specified dates at a test centre specified by the TOEIC Steering Committee. The other is the TOEIC Institutional Program (IP) Test (団体特別受験制度, *DantaiTokubetsu Juken Seido*), in which an organization can choose the date and administer the test at its convenience in accordance with the TOEIC Steering Committee. The TOEIC SP Test was renewed in May 2006, followed by the TOEIC IP Test in April 2007 in line so that it would be with the SP Test.

More and more companies use TOEIC scores for personnel assessment instead of the homegrown STEP Eiken test organized by the Society for Testing English Proficiency (STEP) (日本英語検定協会主催実用英語技能検定試験「英検」, *Nihon EigoKenteiKyōkaiShusaiJitsuyōEigoGinōKenteiShiken "Eiken"*).

The TOEIC Speaking Test/Writing Test started on January 21, 2007 in addition to the TOEIC SP Test and the TOEIC IP Test.

Scandal

The Institute for International Business Communication (IIBC), the non-profit organization that administers the TOEIC in Japan, was the subject of a scandal in 2009.

In May and June 2009, articles in the Japanese weekly magazine *FRIDAY* accused the IIBC's 92-year-old chairmanYaeji Watanabe of nepotism when he appointed the son of his girlfriend to the position of chairman of the IIBC board of directors. To force the appointment, half of the volunteers serving on the board were driven out by Watanabe. The magazine article also questioned why Watanabe only showed up for work about one day a week.

In his defense, Watanabe claimed that he held a ceremonial title and was chairman in name only. As a result, Watanabe claimed that he had little to do with the decision to appoint the son of his girlfriend to the position. The magazine article concluded by asking why someone who is chairman only in name and only working one day a week should receive an annual salary in excess of 25 million yen (approximately US$300,000).

In August 2009, the online version of the English-language newspaper *The Japan Times* published a two-part series examining the TOEIC's origins and early history as well as the use of test-taker fees by the IIBC on the internet. The August 18 article examined the questionable uses of test fees, including a fivefold increase in utility expenses in one year, 13

million spent annually on research about adapting to Chinese culture, sponsorship of poetry readings by the Chinese Poetry Recitation Association, and membership fees to join the Beautiful Aging Association, for which Watanabe happened to be chairman.

The article also questioned the relationship between the IIBC and its for-profit partner International Communications School with which it shared office space. International Communications School is responsible for selling the TOEIC Institutional Program Test given by companies and schools; publishes IIBC-approved TOEIC preparation textbooks; and administers the TOEIC Japanese language website. One of International Communications School's subsidiaries is E-Communications, which administers the TOEIC's online application system and provides online TOEIC study materials.

In 2009, Watanabe suddenly resigned from the IIBC, leaving the son of his girlfriend in charge of the non-profit. Watanabe received a 25 million yen retirement payment.

The IIBC lowered the price of the TOEIC Secure Program Test from 6,615 yen to 5,985 yen starting with the September 13, 2009 test. The price had to be lowered due to pressure from the Ministry of Trade, which instructed the IIBC to reduce the profits being generated by the test.

In July 2010, the Tokyo Tax Bureau announced that International Communications School, IIBC's for-profit partner, hid 100 million yen in income and had to pay 30 million yen in back taxes and fines.

TOEIC in South Korea

Toward the end of 2005, there was a shift in South Korea, regarded as the second biggest consumer of TOEIC per capita. However, a person's TOEIC score is still a major factor in hiring people for most professional jobs in South Korea. Starting in 2011, Korean universities will no longer be allowed to use TOEIC and TOEFL scores as part of the admission process. However, many universities in Korea still require a minimum score of 900. This is apparently to discourage private English education (there are many private institutions that teach TOEIC-based classes). Another English proficiency test, TEPS (developed by Seoul National University, ChosunIlbo), has been developed and may replace the status of TOEIC.

TOEIC in Europe

In France, some Grandesécoles require a TOEIC score of at least 785 to award the diploma. This policy has been criticized, as it makes state-awarded diplomas dependent on a private institution—despite the fact that it was not the private institution that set the 785 mark but a recommendation from the *Commission des titresd'ingénieur* indicating a B2+ level on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Students that cannot achieve a 785 mark are offered to validate their diploma by other means in most of the schools. Some institutions delay the diploma for 1 year after the end of the studies in that case.

In Greece, TOEIC is accepted by ASEP, the organization responsible for hiring new employees to work for the

government. It is administrated by the Hellenic American Union and it is offered weekly in most major cities in Greece.

TOEIC in the United Kingdom

The TOEIC was a Home Office accredited test for students applying for a UK visa.

In 2014 an undercover investigation by the BBC program *Panorama* exposed systematic cheating and fraud by a number of organizations and individuals involved in running the test. Cheating was found to take place at Eden College International in London, where freelance invigilators used to conduct the exam. The college claimed no prior knowledge of the cheating, and had previously sacked three invigilators. ETS stated out it does not hire the invigilators and that it does everything it can to prevent cheating.

On 17 April 2014, ETS decided not to renew its license as a provider of a Secure English Language Test (SELT). This means that these English language tests are no longer honored for the purpose of being issued a UK visa.

In June 2014, the Home Office undertook its own investigation and claimed to have found 46,000 “invalid and questionable” tests. It suspended the TOEIC exam as being valid for entry to the UK. It also canceled the visas of around 45,000 students, seventy percent of whom were Indian. Some left voluntarily with the majority being deported.

In March 2016, a tribunal ruled that the evidence the Home Office used to deport the students was not strong enough. As

of April 2019, over 300 legal appeals against the government were pending, and the National Audit Office had opened an investigation into the government's handling of the issue, which some Members of Parliament had likened to the Windrush scandal.

TOEIC in the United States

Both the TOEIC Listening & Reading and the TOEIC Speaking & Writing tests are now available in the United States. While the TOEIC Listening & Reading test has been available for decades, the TOEIC Speaking & Writing test was introduced in the United States only in 2009. Registration for the TOEIC Speaking & Writing test is handled by the English4Success division of the nonprofit organization Amideast.

TOEIC in Thailand

The Center for Professional Assessment offers regular institutional testing every Monday through Saturday at 9:00AM and 1:00PM (local time). The TOEIC test is a two-hour multiple-choice test that consists of 200 questions divided into 100 questions each in listening comprehension and reading comprehension. Each candidate receives independent marks for written and oral comprehension on a scale from 0 to 495 points. The total score adds up to a scale from 0 to 990 points.

TOEIC Bridge Test

ETS also administers another version of the TOEIC test called TOEIC Bridge. The TOEIC Bridge test targets beginning and

intermediate learners and consists of 100 multiple-choice questions, requiring about one hour of testing time.

TOEIC Bridge in Chile

The TOEIC Bridge was used in Chile as part of the 2010 SIMCE test.

Test of English as a Foreign Language

Test of English as a Foreign Language (**TOEFL**/ˈtoʊfəl/*TOH-fəl*) is a standardized test to measure the English language ability of non-native speakers wishing to enroll in English-speaking universities. The test is accepted by more than 11,000 universities and other institutions in over 150 countries. TOEFL is one of the two major English-language tests in the world, the other being the IELTS.

TOEFL is a trademark of the Educational Testing Service (ETS), a private non-profit organization, which designs and administers the tests. ETS issues official score reports which are sent independently to institutions and are valid for two years following the test.

History

In 1962, a national council made up of representatives of thirty government and private organizations was formed to address the problem of ensuring English language proficiency for non-native speakers wishing to study at U.S. universities.

This council recommended the development and administration of the TOEFL exam for the 1963-1965 timings .

The test was originally developed at the Center for Applied Linguistics under the direction of Stanford University applied linguistics professor Dr. Charles A. Ferguson.

The TOEFL test was first administered in 1964 by the Modern Language Association financed by grants from the Ford Foundation and Danforth Foundation.

In 1965, The College Board and ETS jointly assumed responsibility for the continuation of the TOEFL testing program.

In 1973, a cooperative arrangement was made between ETS, The College Board, and the Graduate Record Examinations board of advisers to oversee and run the program. ETS was to administer the exam with the guidance of the TOEFL board.

To the present day, college admission criteria for international students who are nationals of some of the Commonwealth nations exempt them from taking the TOEFL exam. Nations which are part of the English-speaking world (from most Commonwealth realms to former British colonies e.g., Hong Kong SAR or former protectorates of the United States (Philippines, Puerto Rico) where English is the de facto official language automatically grants a TOEFL exemption with some restrictions (e.g., residents of Quebec are required to take TOEFL while the rest of Canada is exempt - also inclusive of Commonwealth nations where English is not an official language e.g., Mozambique or Namibia (English is co-official but spoken by 3% of the population)). However, this does not

apply to some Commonwealth nations outside the Anglosphere, due to the IELTS, such as India, Pakistan, Bangladesh etc., even though they may have English as the de facto official language.

Formats and content

Internet-based test

The TOEFL Internet-based test (iBT) measures all four academic English skills- reading, listening, speaking, and writing. Since its introduction in late 2005, the Internet-based Test format has progressively replaced the computer-based tests (CBT) and paper-based tests (PBT), although paper-based testing is still used in select areas.

The TOEFL iBT test has been introduced in phases, with the United States, Canada, France, Germany, and Italy in 2005 and the rest of the world in 2006, with test centers added regularly. It is offered weekly at authorized test centers. The CBT was discontinued in September 2006 and these scores are no longer valid.

Initially, the demand for test seats was higher than availability, and candidates had to wait for months. It is now possible to take the test within one to four weeks in most countries. Now, people who wish to take the test create an account on the official website to find the closest place. In the past this test lasted 4 hours, today people can choose to take the test around 3 hours.The test consists of four sections, each measuring one of the basic language skills (while some tasks require integrating multiple skills), and all tasks focus on

language used in an academic, higher-education environment. Note-taking is allowed during the TOEFL iBT test. The test cannot be taken more than once every 3 days, starting from September 2019.

Countries and territories offering the TOEFL iBT test

- **Reading**
- The Reading section consists of questions on 3-4 passages, each approximately 700 words in length and with 10 questions. The passages are on academic topics; they are the kind of material that might be found in an undergraduate university textbook. Passages require understanding of rhetorical functions such as cause-effect, compare-contrast and argumentation. Students answer questions about main ideas, details, inferences, essential information, sentence insertion, vocabulary, rhetorical purpose and overall ideas. New types of questions in the TOEFL iBT test require filling out tables or completing summaries. Prior knowledge of the subject under discussion is not necessary to come to the correct answer.
- **Listening**
- The Listening section consists of questions on 2-3 conversations with 5 questions each, and 5-7 lectures with 6 questions each. Each conversation is 2.5-3 minutes and lectures are 4.5-5.5 minutes in length. The conversations involve a student and either a professor or a campus service provider. The lectures are a self-contained portion of an academic lecture, which may involve student participation and

does not assume specialized background knowledge in the subject area. Each conversation and lecture passage is heard only once. Test-takers may take notes while they listen and they may refer to their notes when they answer the questions. The listening questions are meant to measure the ability to understand main ideas, important details, implications, relationships between ideas, organization of information, speaker purpose and speaker attitude.

- **Speaking**
- The Speaking section consists of 4 tasks: 1 independent (Task 1) and 3 integrated (Task 2, 3, 4). In task 1, test-takers answer opinion questions on familiar topics. They are evaluated on their ability to speak spontaneously and convey their ideas clearly and coherently. In task 2 and 4, test-takers read a short passage, listen to an academic course lecture or a conversation about campus life and answer a question by combining appropriate information from the text and the talk.

  In task 3, test-takers listen to an academic course lecture and then respond to a question about what they heard. In the integrated tasks, test-takers are evaluated on their ability to appropriately synthesize and effectively convey information from the reading and listening material. Test-takers may take notes as they read and listen and may use their notes to help prepare their responses. Test-takers are given a short preparation time before they have to begin speaking. The responses are digitally recorded, sent

to ETS's Online Scoring Network (OSN), and evaluated by three to six raters.

- **Writing**
- The Writing section measures a test taker's ability to write in an academic setting and consists of two tasks: one integrated and one independent. In the integrated task, test-takers read a passage on an academic topic and then listen to a speaker discuss it. The test-taker then writes a summary about the important points in the listening passage and explains how these relate to the key points of the reading passage. In the independent task, the test-taker must write an essay that states their opinion or choice, and then explain it, rather than simply listing personal preferences or choices. Responses are sent to the ETS OSN and evaluated by at least 3 different raters.

One of the sections of the test will include extra, uncounted material. Educational Testing Service includes extra material to pilot test questions for future test forms. When test-takers are given a longer section, they should give equal effort to all of the questions because they do not know which question will count and which will be considered extra. For example, if there are four reading passages instead of three, then one of the passages will not be counted. Any of the four could be the uncounted one.

Home edition

The TOEFL iBT Home Edition is essentially the same test as the TOEFL iBT. However, it is taken at home while a human

proctor watches through a web-camera (usually built-in to most laptops) and via sharing of the computer screen. The popularity of the Home Edition has grown during the COVID-19 pandemic as it has been the only option during lock-downs. Many students experience technical or security problems during the Home Edition tests. The ETS browser used to administer the test has been unreliable in many cases. Students who have their exams interrupted are not likely to get a refund or the chance to reschedule for a new test as the ETS as technical problems are hard to document and the processing of a complaint is slow due to the popularity of the Home Edition and the number of complaints. If the test runs smoothly, the results are accepted by most companies and universities that accept the TOEFL iBT standard edition.

Paper-delivered Test

The TOEFL Paper-delivered Test is an official test for use where the internet test is unavailable, usually due to internet & computer issues.

It consists of the Listening, Reading, and Writing sections, with scores that are the same scale as the Internet Based Test. There is no total score. Not all centers have the possibility of delivering this type of test, so it will generally be necessary to reschedule the day of the test on another available day.

Paper-based test

The TOEFL paper-based Test (PBT) was still available in limited areas until 2017, when it was replaced by the Paper-delivered

test. Scores are valid for two years after the test date, and test takers can have their scores sent to institutions or face time.

- **Listening** (30 – 40 minutes)
- The Listening section consists of 3 parts. The first one contains 30 questions about short conversations. The second part has 8 questions about longer conversations. The last part asks 12 questions about lectures or talks. Harder questions are worth two scores.
- **Structure and Written Expression** (25 minutes)
- The Structure and Written Expression section has 15 exercises of completing sentences correctly and 25 exercises of identifying errors. Harder questions are worth two scores.
- **Reading Comprehension** (55 minutes)
- The Reading Comprehension sections has 50 questions about reading passages. Harder questions are worth two scores.
- **Writing** (30 minutes)
- The TOEFL PBT administrations include a writing test called the Test of Written English (TWE). This is one essay question with 250–300 words on average.

Accommodations

There are three different categories of accommodations that can be utilized for TOEFL test takers. Some of these accommodations are available for all students and some are only available for those with certain disabilities.

If the accommodation the student requires isn't available then requests can be made through the Testing Accommodations Request Form. For questions, ETS provides Disability Services that can be contacted.

- **Technical Accommodations**
- Screen Magnification
- Selectable background and foreground
- Kensington® Trackball mouse
- IntelliKeys® keyboard
- Ergonomic Keyboard
- Keyboard with touchpad
- **Specialized Assistance**
- Sign language interpreter for spoken directions only
- Oral interpreter for spoken directions only
- Oral interpreter for Listening section only
- Writer/recorder of answers
- Test reader
- **Adaptive Accommodations**
- Audio version of the test
- Reader's script version of the test
- Braille test (in contracted or uncontracted Braille)
- Braille test with reader's script
- Large-print version of the test
- Regular print version of the test
- Listening section omitted
- Speaking section omitted
- Extended testing time
- Additional rest breaks
- Transcripts of audio elements in Speaking and Writing sections.

Test scores

TOEFL iBT Test

- The TOEFL iBT test is scored on a scale of 0 to 120 points.
- Each of the four sections (Reading, Listening, Speaking, and Writing) receives a scaled score from 0 to 30. The scaled scores from the four sections are added together to determine the total score.
- The reading and listening sections are tested first, followed by a ten-minute break. The speaking and writing sections are then completed following the break. A maximum amount of 203 minutes is allowed to complete the whole exam process.
- Each speaking question is initially given a raw score of 0 to 4, with 1-point increment, and each writing question is initially given a raw score of 0.0 to 5.0, with 0.5-point increment. These scores are converted to scaled scores of 0 to 30.

Paper-based Test (PBT)

- The final PBT score ranges between 0 and 677 and is based on three subscores: Listening (0–68), Structure (0–68), and Reading (0–67). The minimum possible score is 310, which corresponds to 31 scores for each section. Unlike the CBT, the score of the Writing component (referred to as the Test of Written English, TWE) is not part of the final score; instead, it is reported separately on a scale of 0–6.

- The score test takers receive on the Listening, Structure and Reading parts of the TOEFL test is not the percentage of correct answers. The score is converted to take into account the fact that some tests are more difficult than others. The converted scores correct these differences. Therefore, the converted score is a more accurate reflection of the ability than the raw score is.

The TOEFL PBT was discontinued at the end of May 2017. Official testing in areas without internet or computers now uses the TOEFL PDT.

Accepted TOEFL Scores

Most colleges use TOEFL scores as only one factor in their admission process, with a college or program within a college often setting a minimum TOEFL score required. The minimum TOEFL iBT scores range from 71 (Bowling Green State University) to 110 (University of Oxford).

ETS has released tables to convert between iBT, CBT and PBT scores.

TOEFL ITP Tests

TOEFL ITP ("ITP" stands for "Institutional Testing Program") tests are paper-based and use academic content to evaluate the English-language proficiency of non-native English speakers. The tests use new and previously administered TOEFL test questions and are used for placement, progress, evaluation, exit testing and other situations. The test scores,

format and content of the test matches the "TOEFL PBT", with the exception of not including the TWE (Test of Written Expression).

Unlike the TOEFL iBT and PBT tests, *TOEFL ITP* tests are administered by the institution and for internal use. It should not replace the need for the TOEFL iBT test, which is administered securely and includes Speaking and Writing components. There are two levels of TOEFL ITP: Level 1 (intermediate to advanced) and Level 2 (high beginning to intermediate).*TOEFL ITP* scores are mapped to the CEFR and test takers are provided with a certificate of achievement.

TOEFL Junior Tests

ETS also offers the *TOEFL Junior* tests, a general assessment of middle school-level English-language proficiency. It is intended for students aged 11+.The tests are administered in two formats: *TOEFL Junior* Standard (on paper) and *TOEFL Junior* Comprehensive (via computer). The *TOEFL Junior* Standard test has three sections: Reading Comprehension, Listening Comprehension and Language Form and Meaning. The *TOEFL Junior* Comprehensive test has four: Reading Comprehension, Listening Comprehension, Speaking and Writing. *TOEFL Junior* scores are mappedto the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and test takers are provided with a certificate of achievement.

The test is scored on a scale of 0 to 300 on each section, added up to determine the total score (0 - 900). The minimum passing score is 600, corresponding to 200 scores for each section.

TOEFL Primary Test

The TOEFL family of tests has also created the TOEFL Primary test. It is designed for students between the ages of eight and eleven.

The test is divided into 3 sections: reading and listening - step 1, reading and listening - step 2, and speaking. Depending on the fluency of student's English, they will be expected to take either the step 1 or step 2 test.

Students are expected to take two of the three sections, depending on their communicative skills in English. They will take either the step 1 or step 2 test. The reading and listening tests can be done on paper or digitally, but the speaking test is only available digitally.

While the other TOEFL test scores are valid for two years, this test is only valid for one. This is because of how quickly children grow in their communicative abilities.

Scores for these tests range from 101-115 for the reading and listening, and 1-27 on the speaking portion.

Michigan Language Assessment

Michigan Language Assessment (**MLA**), also known as the **Cambridge–Michigan Language Assessment** (**CaMLA**) and previously the "English Language Institute Testing and Certification Division at the University of Michigan", has been providing English language assessments, learning resources, teacher development, consultancy and research since 1941.

Their range of assessments, which include what are often referred to as the Michigan Tests, is used for university admissions, IEP programs, K-12 ELL programs, professional licensing, and employment.

Michigan Language Assessment is a not-for-profit collaboration between the University of Michigan and the University of Cambridge – two institutions with a long history of research and development in the field of language assessment, teaching and learning.

History

CaMLAwas established in 2010 by two organizations with a long history in English language assessment: Cambridge Assessment English, part of the University of Cambridge, and the English Language Institute Testing and Certificate Division of the University of Michigan. The organizations have a number of similarities – both university-based, not-for-profit exam boards, with a mission to support research and learning.

CaMLAwas created as a joint venture to develop the Michigan tests and services, originally established by the English Language Institute (ELI) of the University of Michigan. It is therefore building on 70 years of research and development in language teaching, learning, assessment, applied linguistics and teacher education throughout the world.

The ELI was established at the University of Michigan in 1941 and was the first of its kind in the United States, with a dual function of teaching and research. In its first year, the ELI introduced an intensive course in English as a foreign

language – the first ever offered on a university campus. This was started as an experimental program, catering for the handful of foreign students in U.S. universities prior to World War II. However, by 1948, there were 25,000 foreign students in U.S. universities and the ELI became a key player in teaching English to international students and a model for programs across the country. From 1946, the ELI English Testing Program began to take shape. In 1953, under contract to the United States Information Agency, the ELI developed the ECPE (Examination for the Certificate of Proficiency in English) exam for use abroad. By the late 1950s, ELI had international language development programs in countries on five continents and by the 1960s -1970s, Michigan tests were being used by increasing numbers of schools, universities and institutes, nationally and internationally.

The ELI also became well known for its research and development work. The Research Club at Michigan established the first journal in the world in applied linguistics: Language Learning: A Journal of Applied Linguistics. The Institute also focused on the practical day-to-day realities of language teaching – experimenting with instructional methods and materials, and developing methodologies for training ESL/EFL teachers. Its teaching methods and materials have been used in programs all over the world and the Michigan Method continues to influence ESL/EFL publishing to this day.

TrackTest

TrackTest Online English Assessment Center or **TrackTest** is an online English language assessment tool launched in November 2012 that measures the English skills of non-native

English speakers. The test is using the scale based on Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. It wants to create a 21st-century alternative to expensive pen&paper tests provided by established companies like ETS. Services for companies and language schools include easy-to-use online management console for managing tests, analysing results and progress of their employees and students. In 2014,

TrackTest English Test was used by students from 173 countries and speaking 136 languages. The organisation is an institutional affiliate member of Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE).

Format and scoring

TrackTest is an Internet-based exam that lasts approximately 45 minutes and tests grammar, reading and listening. TrackTest results are available instantly. For a successful pass, it is required to achieve 65 percent or more correctly answered questions.

In 2013, TrackTest introduced TrackTestScore for better progress tracking of users. It is dynamically calculated numeric score on the range from 0 to 1200 using the algorithm based on the all other user results and reflecting the difficulty difference among the levels.

The English speaking test is an optional module of TrackTest level test. It is enabled for all successfully passed TrackTest English proficiency level tests for an extra fee.

Cambridge Assessment English

Cambridge Assessment English, or Cambridge English, is the biggest of three main exam boards forming Cambridge Assessment, a non-teaching department of the University of Cambridge.

Cambridge Assessment English develops and produces Cambridge English Qualifications and IELTS.

The organisation contributed to the development of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), the standard used around the world to benchmark language skills. Its qualifications and tests are aligned with the levels of the CEFR.

Individual exams

Cambridge English Qualifications provide a path to improving language skills. Each qualification focuses on a level of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).

Multilevel tests

Multi-level tests, such as Linguaskill, BULATS, the Cambridge English Placement Test and the Cambridge English Placement Test for Young Learners, cover multiple levels of the CEFR in one test. They are used to find out the levels of mixed-ability groups of students, and place them on the right English learning programmes or enter them for the right exams.

Cambridge Assessment English is also the producer of the IELTS test. Cambridge Exams Publishing, a joint venture with Cambridge University Press, produces Cambridge-branded IELTS resources and materials to help learners prepare and practice for their tests. IELTS is managed by an international partnership of organisations – the British Council, Cambridge Assessment English and IDP Education.

Discontinued exams

- **Cambridge English: Financial** (ICFE) discontinued in December 2016.
- **Cambridge English: Legal** (ILEC) discontinued in December 2016.
- **Certificates in ESOL Skills for Life (SfL) (UK only) discontinued in June 2017.**
- **CELS** (Certificates in English Language Skills): modular qualifications for English language learners.
- **DTE(E)LLS** (Diploma in Teaching English (ESOL) in the Lifelong Learning Sector) and ADTE(E)LLS (Additional Diploma in Teaching English (ESOL) in the Lifelong Learning Sector): these qualifications for English language teachers in the UK were discontinued in September 2012. CELTA is a recommended alternative for those wanting an English teaching qualification for teaching in the UK.
- **IDLTM** (International Diploma in Language Teaching Management) discontinued in June 2016.
- **PTLLS** (Preparing to Teach in the Lifelong Learning Sector): discontinued in November 2012.
- **Young Learner (YL) Extension to CELTA** discontinued in December 2016.

- **TKT: KAL** and **TKT: Practical** discontinued in December 2016.

Partnerships and acquisitions

In the 1980s, Cambridge Assessment English, the British Council, and IDP Education formed the international IELTSpartnership which delivers the IELTS tests.

In 2010, Cambridge Assessment English and the English Language Institute Testing and Certificate Division of the University of Michigan agreed to form a not-for-profit collaboration known as CaMLA (Cambridge Michigan Language Assessments). Cambridge Assessment English owns 65% of the venture.

Since 2011, Cambridge Assessment English has had a partnership with the English Language Teaching (ELT) business of Cambridge University Press,

Cambridge Exams Publishing, which develops official Cambridge preparation materials for Cambridge English and IELTS exams.

In 2013, Cambridge Assessment English formed a joint venture with the Box Hill Institute to deliver the Occupational English Test, known as OET.

In 2019, Cambridge Assessment English acquired English Language iTutoring (ELiT), an artificial intelligence developed off technology from the University of Cambridge, to support new English language assessment products.

Alignment with the CEFR

Cambridge Assessment English was involved in the early development of the CEFR and all Cambridge English qualifications and tests are aligned with the levels described by the CEFR.

Cambridge English Qualifications target particular levels of the CEFR and candidates are encouraged to take the exam most suitable to their needs and level of ability. While each exam focuses on a particular CEFR level, the exam also contains test material at the adjacent levels (e.g. B2 First is aimed at B2, but there are also test items that cover B1 and C1). This allows for inferences to be drawn about candidates' abilities if they are a level below or above the one targeted.

Research

The Cambridge English EFL Evaluation Unit was established in 1989 and was the first dedicated research unit of its kind. This unit is now called the Research and Validation Group and is the largest dedicated research team of any English language assessment body. Research is published in the Studies in Language Testing (SiLT) series.

Awards

In 2015, Cambridge Assessment English was awarded the Queen's Award for Enterprise in the 'international trade' category.

Qualification development

Cambridge University's examination board (UCLES)

The first Cambridge English exam was produced in 1913 by UCLES (University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate).

UCLES had been set up in 1858 to provide exams to students who were not members of a university. There was a growing concern in Britain with standards of school education and the transition from secondary to tertiary-level education. A number of schools "petitioned the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge [to provide] means of comparing achievements of pupils across schools."

The secondary education sector was still voluntary in nature. Without support from the state, it was logical to seek help from universities that were long established and widely admired. The University of Oxford and University of Cambridge, in particular, were "regarded as viable sources of supervision."

UCLES was invited to set exams and inspect schools with the aim of raising educational standards. The University of Oxford also created its own examination board: the University of Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations (UODLE). UODLE and its partner, the Association of Recognised English Language Schools, merged with UCLES in 1995.

The first UCLES examinations took place on 14 December 1858. The exams were designed to test for university selection and were taken by 370 candidates in British schools, churches

and village halls. Candidates were required to 'satisfy the examiners' in the analysis and parsing of a Shakespeare text; reading aloud; dictation; and composition (on either the recently deceased Duke of Wellington; a well-known book; or a letter of application).

Female candidates were accepted by UCLES on a trial basis in 1864 and on a permanent basis from 1867. Cambridge University itself did not examine female students until 1882 and it was not until 1948 that women were allowed to graduate as full members of the university.

In the mid to late 19th century, UCLES exams were taken by candidates based overseas – in Trinidad (from 1863), South Africa (from 1869), Guyana and New Zealand (from 1874), Jamaica (from 1882) and Malaya (from 1891). Many of these candidates were children of officers of the British colonial service and exams were not yet designed for non-native speakers of English.

The first Cambridge English exam

In 1913 UCLES created the first exam for non-native speakers of English – the Certificate of Proficiency in English (CPE – now known as C2 Proficiency). This may have been prompted by the development of English exams 'for foreigners' by other universities.

CPE was originally a qualification for teachers: 'the Certificate of Proficiency in English is designed for Foreign Students who desire satisfactory proof of their knowledge of the language with a view to teaching it in foreign schools.' The exam was only available for candidates aged 20 or over.

In 1913 the exam could be taken in Cambridge or London, for a fee of £3 (approximately £293 in 2012 prices). The exam lasted 12 hours and included:

- Translation from English into French or German: 2 hours
- Translation from French or German into English, and English Grammar: 2.5 hours
- English Essay: 2 hours
- English Literature: 3 hours
- English Phonetics: 1.5 hours
- Oral test: dictation (30 minutes); reading aloud and conversation (30 minutes)

The main influence behind the design of the exam was the grammar-translation teaching approach, which aims to establish reading knowledge (rather than ability to communicate in the language). In 1913, the first requirement for CPE candidates was to translate texts.

Translation remained prominent in foreign language teaching up until the 1960s. It was a core part of CPE until 1975, and an optional part until 1989.

However, CPE was also influenced by Henry Sweet and his book published in 1900: A Practical Study of Languages: A Guide for Teachers and Learners, which argued that 'the most natural method of teaching languages was through conversation.' Due to this influence, speaking was part of Cambridge English exams from the very beginning.

Exam questions in 1913

Candidates were required to translate from English into French/German, and translate from French/German into English. Here is a short segment from one of the passages candidates were asked to translate from English into German:

- *The sentiments which animated Schiller's poetry were converted into principles of conduct; his actions were as blameless as his writings were pure. With his simple and high predilections, with his strong devotedness to a noble cause, he contrived to steer through life, unsullied by its meanness, unsubdued by any of its difficulties or allurements ...*

In the English Essay paper, candidates were asked to write an essay for two hours, on one of the following subjects: *the effect of political movements upon nineteenth century literature in England; English Pre-Raphaelitism; Elizabethan travel and discovery; the Indian Mutiny; the development of local self-government; or Matthew Arnold.* The exam board provided little or no formal structure. Concepts such as audience and purpose, and the length of the essay, were left for the candidate to decide.

The questions in the English Literature section were borrowed from the University's Language and Literature matriculation exams for native speakers and included questions on Shakespeare's Coriolanus and Milton's Paradise Lost. Here is an example question: *explain fully and comment on the following passages, stating the connexions in which they occur and any difficulties of reading, phraseology or allusion: "Wert thou the Hector, That was the whip of your bragg'd progency,*

Thou should'st not 'scrape me here." It was not until 1930 that a Literature paper was designed specifically for CPE candidates.

The grammar section contained questions about grammar and lexis, e.g. *give the past tense and past participle of each of the following verbs, dividing them into strong and weak ...*, and questions about grammar and lexis usage, e.g. *embody each of the following words into a sentence in such a way as to show that you clearly apprehend its meaning: commence, comment, commend ...* At the time, this mirrored the approach to learning grammar in Latin and Greek (as well as modern languages).

Finally, a Phonetics paper was included as it was thought to be useful in the teaching of pronunciation. The paper required candidates to make phonetic transcriptions of long pieces of continuous text; describe the articulation of particular sounds; explain phonetic terms, and suggest ways of teaching certain sounds.

Here are two example questions: *explain the terms: "glide", "narrow vowel", "semi-vowel" and give two examples of each in both phonetic and ordinary spelling* and *how would you teach a pupil the correct pronunciation of the vowel sounds in: fare, fate, fat, fall, far?*

Revisions to the 1913 exam

The 1913 CPE exam was taken by just three candidates. The candidates "were able to converse fluently, expressing themselves on the whole, with remarkable ease and accuracy." However, all three candidates failed the exam and none of them were awarded a CPE certificate.

In its second year (1914), CPE gained in popularity, with 18 candidates and four passing. However, for the next 15 years candidature remained static. Italian and Spanish were added as languages for the translation paper in 1926. However, CPE still 'teetered along with 14 or 15 candidates a year.' In 1928, CPE had only 14 candidates and by 1929 it was in danger of being discontinued.

Jack Roach, Assistant Secretary to the Syndicate from 1925 to 1945, decided to "save it from the scrapheap" and introduced a number of changes. The Phonetics paper was dropped and the essay questions became more a test of writing proficiency rather than a test of knowledge about British culture. Questions such as "*The best month of the year*" were preferred to the more culture-bound topics set in 1913, such as "*Elizabethan travel and discovery.*"

The target candidature was broadened beyond teachers, to "all foreign students who desire to obtain evidence of their practical knowledge of the languages, both written and spoken, as of their ability to read with comprehension standard works of English literature."

In 1932 it was decided to establish overseas exam centres. The first overseas centres were set up in Hamburg, Paris and San Remo (1933), followed by further centres in Italy (Rome and Naples), the Netherlands, Sweden and Switzerland. Latin America also became an exam area in the 1930s, with centres in Argentina and Uruguay.

In 1935 CPE started providing alternatives to the Literature paper, with an Economic and Commercial Knowledge paper – an early forerunner of English for Specific Purposes.

Then, in 1937–38, the University of Cambridge and University of Oxford decided to accept CPE as representing the standard in English required of all students, British or foreign, before entrance to their university. To this day, CPE still serves as a qualification for entry to higher education. Following these changes CPE candidate numbers instantly began to rise, reaching 752 by the outbreak of World War II.

World War II

From 1939 onwards, thousands of refugees from the Spanish Civil War and occupied Europe started arriving in the UK and began taking UCLES exams while stationed in the UK.

UCLES launched the *Lower Certificate in English (LCE)* to meet the demand for certification at a lower level than CPE. A *Preliminary* exam, at a lower level than LCE, was also offered from 1944 as a special test to meet the contingencies of war. These were the first steps towards developing language assessment at different levels.

Polish servicemen and women made up a large proportion of the candidature. In 1943, over a third of all LCE Certificates were awarded to candidates from the Polish army and air force. This pattern continued throughout the war and into the post-war period. On one single day in 1948, no fewer than 2,500 Polish men and women of the Polish Resettlement Corps took the LCE.

UCLES tests were made available for prisoners of war in Britain and in Germany. In Britain 1,500 prisoners of war took the exams, almost 900 of them Italians. In Germany, the War Organisation of the British Red Cross and Order of St John of

Jerusalem made arrangements for UCLES examinations to be offered at prisoner-of-war camps with many Indian prisoners of war, in particular, taking LCE or School Certificate exams.

Examiners were asked to report on "*disturbance, loss of sleep, etc., caused by air raids, and on any exceptional difficulties ... during the examination period.*" One report noted that the candidates had been spending "*most of each day in the air-raid shelter*"; that candidate 5224, a probationer nurse, had been showing strain caused by helping with "*rescue work*"; and that the house of candidate 5222 had been bombed, whilst she was at school, with fatalities. Such were the circumstances of wartime exam takers and administrators.

Exams were also maintained clandestinely in continental European exam centres, which frequently meant unusual measures, including acts of determination and courage. However, UCLES was unable to fund and support the growing international network of English language examination centres around the world. Meanwhile, the British Council had a brief to disseminate British culture and educational links. In March 1941 a formal 'Joint Agreement' was signed between the two organisations to collaborate on the distribution of UCLES exams around the world. This started a long-lasting relationship, which continues to this day.

Post-war

By 1947, there were over 6,000 UCLES candidates, with LCE double the size of CPE. Exam centres had been set up in Europe (17), Latin America (9), the Middle East (8), Africa (4) and the USA (1). Candidate numbers continued to grow,

reaching over 20,000 by 1955, 44,000 by 1965, and over 66,000 by 1975. However, by the 1970s demand was growing for exams at more clearly defined levels of proficiency. This set the scene for the Council of Europe and the development of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), which was initiated in 1971.

Qualification at different levels

UCLES had a few attempts at developing language assessment at different levels. During the Second World War, there was a three-level system: the Preliminary English Test, LCE and CPE. After the war, a new three-level system was introduced: LCE, CPE and DES (The Diploma of English Studies). However, as an extremely advanced exam, DES candidature never rose beyond a few hundred and was later discontinued.

In the 1980s and 1990s the levels stabilised and the suite of exams we recognise today became established. A five-level system was developed, which characterises Cambridge English's general English exams to the present day and laid the foundations for the levels in the CEFR.

- Level 1: the Key English Test (KET) was launched in 1994. It is now known as A2 Key.
- Level 2: the Preliminary English Test (PET) was originally used during the Second World War years. It reappeared in 1980 under close monitoring, and was fully launched in the 1990s. It is now known as B1 Preliminary.

- Level 3: LCE, operational since the Second World War, continued under a new name: the First Certificate in English. It is now known as B2 First.
- Level 4: the Certificate in Advanced English (CAE) was launched in 1991. It is now known as C1 Advanced.
- Level 5: CPE, operational since 1913, became Cambridge English's highest level qualification. It is now known as C2 Proficiency.

During this period there were also substantial revisions to the existing exams: B2 First and C2 Proficiency. These revisions included improving the authenticity of texts and tasks; increasing the weight on Listening and Speaking; improving the balance between grammar and vocabulary items in the Reading paper; and adding a broader range of texts in the Composition and Use of English papers, (e.g. letter-writing, dialogues, speeches, note-taking, and discursive and descriptive compositions).

With increased weight on Listening and Speaking, UCLES joined forces with the BBC. However, in the BBC recording booths, there was tension between the BBC's approach, which focused on dramatic potential, and UCLES' need for clarity of speech. For example, a man abseiling down a mountain was highly entertaining but unacceptable for test purposes. It was finally agreed that at least 35% of listening tests would comprise an original BBC recording, largely made up of programmes from World Service and *Woman's Hour* broadcasts.

IELTS

With learners increasingly requiring English language certification for their studies, UCLES, along with the British Council and the Australian International Development Programme (IDP), developed a test in the 1980s which focused specifically on English for academic purposes.

An English Language Testing Service (ELTS) test was first launched in 1980 with tasks based on language use in academic and occupational contexts in the 'real world'. However, the ELTS test was very complex to administer and only two full versions were ever produced.

In 1989, a simplified and shortened test became operational under a new name: the International English Language Testing System (IELTS).

It was clear that different forms of the test would need to be equated. All IELTS materials were therefore pretested and calibrated to a common scale on the basis of the Rasch model. This was the first time that UCLES had used the Rasch model, which now forms the cornerstone of the level testing system.

RSA and teaching qualifications

In 1988, the EFL exams developed by The Royal Society of Arts (RSA) Examination Board were merged with those of UCLES. The RSA Examination Board had been established in 1754, long before UCLES, and by taking over the RSA TEFL schemes UCLES became responsible for "*the running of the world's most respected and widely recognised schemes for validating training courses for teachers of English as a Foreign Language.*"

The two sets of qualifications were integrated and syllabuses for the revised qualifications were developed in consultation with the ESL sector, in order to re-integrate the ESL and EFL teacher communities. In 1999 the RSA Certificate in Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults (CTEFLA) and the RSA Diploma in Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults officially became known as the CELTA and Delta qualifications. These qualifications were joined in 2004 by ICELT (a revised version of its predecessor, COTE) – which is a purely in-service professional qualification.

At the start of the 21st century there was growing demand from government ministries and schools for a professional qualification without any in-service (teaching practice) component. This led to the introduction of the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT), which focuses solely on core professional knowledge. Following consultations with worldwide teacher training institutions and trials with 1,500 English language teachers in Europe, Latin America and Asia, TKT went live in 2005. In the first six months thousands of candidates sat the test in 36 different countries. It was also incorporated into government plans, e.g. plans in Chile to retrain all in-service teachers, and was incorporated into state university teacher training programmes.

China and business English

The early 1990s saw China developing its market economy very rapidly. Recognising the importance of English as a language of international business and trade, the Chinese government asked Cambridge Assessment English to develop a suite of Business English Certificates (BEC).

BEC Preliminary (now known as B1 Business Preliminary) examinations were first taken in 1993 by 5,000 candidates from seven cities across China. BEC Vantage (now known as B2 Business Vantage) was launched in 1994 and BEC Higher (now known as C1 Business Higher) in 1996. This was followed in 1997 by the launch of the Business Language Testing Service (BULATS) for companies.

Young learners

In the 1990s, there was growing demand from Cambridge English centres in the Far East, Latin America and Europe for assessment designed specifically for younger learners. At the time, relatively little research had been carried out into the assessment of second language learning in children.

UCLES worked with Homerton College (a teacher training college within the University of Cambridge) to trial test questions with over 3,000 children in Europe, South America and South East Asia.

The feedback was used to construct the first Young Learners English (YLE) tests, targeted at learners aged 6–12, which went live in 1997.

The YLE tests introduced a new level. The addition of the 'breakthrough' level created a six-level system that was mirrored by the CEFR, published in 2001.

Candidates

In 1988, with just two established exams (B2 First and C2 Proficiency), exam candidature was around 180,000. By 2002,

with a more comprehensive range of exams, the exam candidature was over 1 million; by 2007, it was over 2 million, by 2013, it was over 4 million; and by 2017, it was over 5.5 million.

The Cambridge English Scale

In January 2015, a new way of reporting results was introduced – the Cambridge English Scale. The scale aims to provide exam users with more information about their exam performance.

Candidates get more detailed results – receiving an overall score and a score for each skill / paper. In addition, the Cambridge English Scale makes it easier to see progression and compare performance across different Cambridge English exams.

B2 First, C1 Advanced and C2 Proficiency have reported results on the Cambridge English Scale since January 2015. A2 Key and Key for Schools, B1 Preliminary and Preliminary for Schools and Business Certificates have reported results on the scale since February 2016.

Timeline 1209–2017

- 1209 - University of Cambridge founded
- 1534 - Cambridge University Press founded
- 1858 - University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES) founded.
- 1913 - Certificate of Proficiency in English (CPE) introduced. Now known as C2 Proficiency.

- 1939 - Lower Certificate in English (LCE) introduced. Renamed First Certificate in English (FCE) in 1975 and now known as B2 First.
- 1941 - Joint agreement with the British Council – British Council centres established
- 1943–47 - Preliminary English Test (PET) introduced. It was reintroduced in 1980 and is now known as B1 Preliminary.
- 1971 - Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) initiated
- 1988 - The Royal Society of Arts (RSA) Examination Board becomes part of UCLES
- 1989 - Specialist EFL research and evaluation unit established
- 1989 - IELTS launched. A simplified and shortened version of ELTS launched in 1980.
- 1990 - Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE) founded
- 1991 - Certificate in Advanced English (CAE) introduced. Now known as C1 Advanced.
- 1993 - Business English Certificates (BEC) launched.
- 1994 - Key English Test (KET) introduced. Now known as A2 Key.
- 1995 - University of Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations (UODLE) becomes part of UCLES
- 1997 - Young Learner English Tests (YLE) introduced. Now known as Pre-A1 Starter, A1 Movers, and A2 Flyers.
- 1997 - BULATS launched.
- 2001 - CEFR published.
- 2002 - UCLES EFL renamed University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations (Cambridge ESOL).

- 2002 - One million Cambridge ESOL exam candidates.
- 2010 - CaMLA established (Cambridge Michigan Language Assessments).
- 2011 - Cambridge Exams Publishing joint venture with Cambridge University Press established.
- 2013 - Cambridge ESOL renamed Cambridge English Language Assessment.
- 2015 - Cambridge English Scale introduced.
- 2016 - Linguaskill Reading and Listening introduced.
- 2016 - Linguaskill Writing introduced.
- 2017 - Cambridge English Language Assessment renamed Cambridge Assessment English.

Diplômeapprofondi de langue française

The ***Diplômeapprofondi de langue française*** (English: Diploma in Advanced French Language), or **DALF** for short, is a certification of French-language abilities for non-native speakers administered by France's Centre international d'étudespédagogiques, or CIEP, (*International Centre of Pedagogical Studies*) for the country's Ministry of Education.

It is composed of two independent diplomas corresponding to the top two levels, C1 & C2, of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Level C2 is the highest level attainable according to this framework, denoting mastery and proficiency in the French language. The "basic" and "independent" divisions of language proficiency are certified by the DELF levels A1 to B2.

Exams

DALF C1

Language users at DALF C1 are independent. They can express themselves fluently and spontaneously. They have a large vocabulary and can choose the appropriate expression to introduce their comments.

They can produce clear, well-structured discourse without hesitation and which shows controlled use of structures.

The DALF C1 exam consists of four parts. Each part is graded from zero to 25 points, for a total of 100 points. A minimum of 50 points, as well as at least 5 points per part, is required to pass the exam.

- Oral comprehension (40 minutes)
- Written comprehension (50 minutes)
- Written production, consisting of a synthesis and an essay (2 hours 30 minutes)
- Oral production, consisting of a presentation and a discussion with the jury based on a text (30 minutes; 1 hour preparation time)

DALF C2

DALF C2 users' proficiency in the language is illustrated by precision, appropriateness and fluency of expression. C2 candidates are capable of using the language for business, academic and other advanced-level purposes.

The DALF C2 exam consists of two parts. Each part is graded from zero to 50 points, for a total of 100 points. A minimum of 50 points, as well as at least 10 points per part, is required to pass the exam.

- Oral comprehension and production, consisting of a presentation and a discussion with the jury, based on a recording of 15 minutes listened to twice (30 minutes; 1 hour preparation time)
- Written comprehension and production, consisting of the composition of a structured text based on a file of documents of about 2,000 words (3 hours 30 minutes)

TestDaF

Grading

The result of TestDaf is not marked as simply "pass" or "fail". Since the question papers are the same for candidates, and the test needs to separate the examinees into different levels, the results of the examinees are given in three different levels:

- TestDaF-Niveaustufe 3 (TDN 3)
- TestDaF-Niveaustufe 4 (TDN 4)
- TestDaF-Niveaustufe 5 (TDN 5)

If the candidate does not reach the lowest level, "unter TDN 3" (lower than TDN 3) is printed on the certificate.

The test consists of four parts. Each part is separately graded and the sub-grades are also shown on the certificate. Some

universities demand their applicants to get a certain grade in all parts of the exam (the grade is depended on the applied programme and subject), but some count the marks just in total. When a candidate fails to reach the required grade, they can re-take the exam.

The exam is marked centrally by well-trained markers.

The three TestDaF levels are designed in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) as well as the performance descriptions set by the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE).

TDN 3 and the lower half of TDN 4 correspond to the B2 level in CEFR, and the upper half of TDN 4 and TDN 5 correspond to the C1 level.

Certificate

Within six weeks the candidates receive a certificate issued by the Test Centre. The certificate shows the grades of all parts of the examination and the detailed description of the reached level can be read at the back side of the certificate. If the candidate has not reached the lowest level, i.e. TDN 3, then "unter TDN 3" (lower than TDN 3) would be shown on the certificate. The certificate is valid for an unlimited period of time.

University enrollment

In general students must get TDN 4 in all parts of the examinations in order to be admitted into universities in

Germany. But since every university in Germany has its own admissions policy, it is at the discretion of individual universities to admit applicants whose scores are below TDN 4 to their courses of study, depending on factors such as the course subject, type of degree awarded and course duration.

If the candidate gets a score of TDN 5, it shows that they have a very good knowledge of German, above that required at the beginning of their studies.

Test centres

There are approximately 450 test centres in 95 countries worldwide, offering the TestDaf exams six times a year. the officially approved test centres, which are managed by TestDaF-Institut, are usually located at German and foreign universities and other higher education institutes, DAAD editorial offices,

Goethe-Institut, as well as the Adult high schools (*Volkshochschule*) and language schools in Germany. The test centres are responsible for:

- Advice and registration for the interested people,
- Organisational preparation and conduct of the examination,
- Offer of preparation course for the exam,
- Issue of the certificates,
- Advertisement of the TestDaf.

Preparation for TestDaF

There are many preparation courses for TestDaF in Germany as well as foreign countries. These courses are offered by official test centres as well as other language schools. Relevant information can be obtained at the official website of TestDaf.

At the website of TestDaF, tips for the examination are available and sample papers can also be downloaded.

Sometimes, new tests of TestDaF need to be tested, and if possible, there are chances that one can register to do the new test under test in order to be familiar with the test format.

Before registering for the exam, it is also possible to do a placement test at the website of TestDaF, so as to check the level of one's language and decide if it is suitable to register for the examination at that time.

The TestDaF-Institut, however, does not release the test to the public, making it very hard to study alone, and most of the time, acquire a preparation course which could get expensive, considering the already high price of the test.

Advantages and disadvantages of TestDaF

TestDaF-Institut claims that there are many advantages for the candidate to decide to sit for the TestDaF:

- All German universities recognise the TestDaF certificate.

- The TestDaF assesses the language skills necessary for study in Germany. The content and tasks of TestDaF are all academic, scientific and study-relevant topics.
- The four language skills are separately assessed and the certificate shows the results of all the sub-tests, giving the candidate an idea of his strengths and weaknesses in each area.
- The TestDaFcan be taken in the home country of a candidate and the certificate is sent directly to him/her. This saves a trip to Germany and enables the candidate to collect all the required documents for the university application before travelling to Germany.
- The candidates can concentrate on specific preparation by working on model tests and samples tests provided by TestDaF-Institut at its website. And the sub-tests are guaranteed to be of same level of difficulty, regardless of the time and place of taking the exam.
- There is a worldwide network of licensed test centres where further information and advice are available. Informationscould also be obtained from DAAD lecturers, Goethe Institutes, language centres and university departments of German studies or German embassies and consulates in the candidates' home country.
- The TestDaF certificate is valid for an unlimited period of time.
- The examination could be re-taken as often as one wishes, when the candidate is not satisfied with his results.

However, there is also disadvantage of taking the TestDaF, especially when compared with the Deutsche Sprachprüfungfür den Hochschulzugang (DSH), where one could also fulfil the language requirement for entering German universities by getting a pass.

- The result could only be known in approximately six weeks, when compared to a much shorter time of DSH.
- The candidates need to pass all parts of the exam in order to fulfil the language requirement. But one can fulfil the requirement in DSH when his overall grade gets a pass.
- There is no specific grammar test, which is very common in a DSH exam.
- The price for TestDaF is usually higher than DSH.
- The TestDaF oral exam is done via a computer, and for some of the candidates it is strange and may affect their performance.

Examination fee

The fee of the examination varies according to the level of development of the country.

Statistics

The number of TestDaF candidates has increased from 7,498 candidates in 2003 took to 24,261 in 2012. In 2003 there were only 211 test centres but this number had increased to 440 by 2012.

DELE

History

DELE were created by the Spanish Ministry of Education in 1989. The University of Salamanca, having issued its own certifications in Spanish until 1991, agreed with the Ministry of Education of Spain to undertake the development, production and grading of the examinations leading eventually to the DELE Diplomas.

Since 2002, the Instituto Cervantes has been responsible for the entire examination; it also acts as a Central Examinations Board and issues the Diplomas. The Instituto Cervantes has been delegating the tasks of setting up the examinations, designing test papers and grading to the University of Salamanca since then.

Examination centres

The DELE examinations are carried out in a network of Cervantes Centres and in a wide network of DELE examination centres. There are currently more than 800 centres in over 100 countries. For example:universities, teaching centres of Spanish, academies, embassies and consulates could also serve as examination centres.

Any language institution in the world, having satisfied the requirements set by Instituto Cervantes, can apply to become an examination centre. One of the advantages of being an examination centre, as claimed by the Instituto Cervantes, is

that it could diversify the courses available by offering courses to prepare for these examinations and its status as an examination centre could draw a greater number of students.

The examination centres should be responsible for all the organisational preparations of DELE exams, though a centre need not provide the DELE exam at all levels. Examination centres also give academic advice to candidates concerning the level of examinations a candidate should take and how they should prepare for the exam. When possible, they may offer courses to prepare for the examinations at each level. The examination centres are also responsible for helping to promote the DELE examination.

The examination centres must undertake to treat the documentation and the instructions received from the Instituto Cervantes in a confidential way and not to make undue use thereof.

Examiners

The following people may become DELE examiners:

- Teachers employed by Instituto Cervantes.
- Teachers employed by the Education Offices of Spain.
- Language assistants employed by the Spanish Agency for International Cooperation.
- Other teachers who speak Spanish natively.
- Teachers whose mother tongue is not Spanish but who hold a university degree in Spanish or a DELE C2 certificate.

Examiners are trained through specific courses, which are offered in three formats namely online, face-to-face and blended, in order to be familiar with DELE exams and all their duties.

All examiners must avoid possible conflicts of interest with candidates. When the candidates are their students, family members or friends, they must communicate with their corresponding superiors.

Fees

Registration fees for DELE vary. It depends on the level of the test as well as the country where the examination is taken.

Results

The Instituto Cervantes publishes the results approximately three months after the examination, upon the approval of grades by the University of Salamanca. Participants need to pass all parts of the exam in order to pass the entire test. The average passing rate including all levels was 61% in 2012; but the passing rate decreased significantly with the increased difficulty from A1, where the passing rate was higher than 75%, to C2 level, where more than half of the participants failed the test.

The results are permanently valid. The C2 exam is considered by some to be the most difficult official Spanish language exam available.

Preparation

In order to prepare for the examination, sample examination papers and audio material can be obtained at the official website of DELE.

Teachers preparing students for the examination can also find teachers' guides and other teaching materials and resources on the DELE website.

Recognition

DELE is internationally recognised among public and private educational institutions and authorities as well as in the business world and chambers of commerce. In many countries, DELE has been adopted by educational authorities and schools as a complement to their own systems of assessment, such that it is used as an entry requirement for non-native Spanish speakers. They are useful to facilitate promotion at work and access to education, both in Spain and in the other countries where the tests are taken.

While a DELE B2 certificate is normally enough to fulfil the language requirement for admittance to universities in Spain, the Ministry of Health of Spain has modified the requirements for language proficiency in Spanish for those wishing to apply for specialised medical training places. Candidates who are citizens of countries where Spanish is not the official language must prove that they have sufficient competence in Spanish by passing the DELE exam C1 or C2. The DELE B2 is no longer accepted for these medical training places.

Several American universities award course credit for the diplomas or require Spanish majors to acquire them.

Enrollment

Over 100 000 people have taken the DELE exams in eighty countries and two hundred and ninety cities throughout the world.

International affiliation

As the organisers of the DELE examination,Instituto Cervantes and the University of Salamanca are jointly a member of the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE), where they communicate with language testers of other European countries on issues concerning language tests.

Instituto Cervantes, as the organiser of the DELE examination, is also a member of Sistema Internacional de Certificación del EspañolcomoLenguaExtrajera (SICELE), an association aiming at enhancing the cooperation and coordination in language assessment in Spanish, in order to promote the study of Spanish as a foreign language.

Instituto Cervantes, as a member of ALTE and SICELE, endorses the code of ethics and principles of good practice of these associations, which are made extensive to DELE examiners.

Japanese-Language Proficiency Test

The **Japanese-Language Proficiency Test** (日本語能力試験, *Nihongo NōryokuShiken*), or **JLPT**, is a standardized criterion-referenced test to evaluate and certify Japanese language proficiency for non-native speakers, covering language knowledge, reading ability, and listening ability.

The test is held twice a year in Japan and selected countries (on the first Sunday of July and December), and once a year in other regions (on the first Sunday of December).

The JLPT consists of five levels. Until 2009, the test had four levels, with 4 being the lowest and 1 being the highest level of certification. JLPT certificates do not expire nor become invalid over time.

History

The JLPT was first held in 1984 in response to growing demand for standardized Japanese language certification. Initially 7,000 people took the test. Until 2003, the JLPT was one of the requirements for foreigners entering Japanese universities.

Since 2003, the Examination for Japanese University Admission for International Students (EJU) is used by most universities for this purpose; unlike the JLPT, which is solely a multiple-choice exam, the EJU contains sections which require the examinee to write in Japanese.

Statistics

In 2004, the JLPT was offered in 40 countries, including Japan. Of the 302,198 examinees in that year, 47% (around 140,000) were certified for their respective level. The number of candidates continued to rise to 559,056 in 2008, while the percentage of candidates certified has fallen below 36%. In 2009, when a revised system was introduced in which two exams are held each year in East Asia, a total of 768,114 people took the exam. In 2010, 610,000 people took the test.

Acceptance in Japan

- Test takers who pass JLPT N1 receive 15 points, and who pass JLPT N2 receive 10 points under the government's "Point-based Preferential Immigration Treatment System for Highly Skilled Foreign Professionals." Individuals with a total of 70 points or higher receive preferential treatment at immigration.
- N1 is a prerequisite for foreign medical professionals who wish to take examinations to be licensed in Japan, and for certain foreign nationals who wish to attend nursing school in Japan.
- Those who have passed either N1 or N2 (regardless of citizenship) are exempt from the Japanese language section of the middle school equivalency examination, which is required in order to enter a Japanese high school if the applicant did not graduate from a Japanese middle school.

- N1 is sometimes accepted in lieu of the Examination for Japanese University Admission for foreign students who wish to study at Japanese universities.
- One of the requirements for the nurse/caregiver candidates under the EPA. Under the Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA) with Indonesia, the Philippines, and Vietnam, a JLPT certificate is required for Indonesian, Filipino (approximately Level N5 or higher), and Vietnamese (Level N3 or higher) nurse or caregiver candidates who visit Japan.

Administration

- In Japan, the JLPT is administered by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) through the Japan Educational Exchanges and Services (JEES). Overseas, the Japan Foundation co-proctors test administration with local cultural exchange and/or educational institutions, or with committees specially established for this purpose.

Scoring

Passing is based on *scaled* scores calculated using item-response theory—raw scores are not directly used to determine passing, nor are they reported, except in rough form in the "Reference Information" section. Raw scores are converted to a standard scale, so that equivalent performance on tests from different years and different levels of difficulty yields the same

scaled score. The scaled scores are reported, broken down by section, and these are the scores used to determine passing.

In addition, a "Reference Information" section is provided on the report card; this is purely informational – for the examinee's future studies – and is not used in determining if an examinee has passed. The grade given is based on the raw score, and is either A, B, or C, accordingly as the raw score was 67% or above, between 34% and 66%, or below 34%. This reference information is given for vocabulary, grammar, and reading on the N4 and N5, and for vocabulary and grammar (but not reading) on the N1, N2, and N3. In both cases, this breaks down the score on the "Language Knowledge" section into separate skills, but in neither case is performance on the listening section analyzed.

Pass marks

- Passing the test requires both achieving an *overall* pass mark for the total points, and passing each section individually; these are based on the scaled scores. The sectional scores are to ensure that skills are not unbalanced – so one cannot pass by doing well on the written section but poorly on the listening section, for instance. The overall pass mark depends on the level and varies between 100/180 (55.55%) for the N1 and 80/180 (44.44%) for the N5. The pass marks for individual sections are all 19/60 = 31.67% – equivalently, 38/120 = 19/60 for the large section on the N4 and N5. Note that the sectional pass levels are *below* the overall pass level, at 31.67% instead of 44.44%–55.55%: one need not

achieve the overall pass level on each section. These standards were adopted starting in July 2010, and do not vary from year to year, with the scaling instead varying.

Comparison with new format

Two changes in levels of tests were made from the previous four-level format: firstly, a new level was inserted between the old level 3 and level 2, and secondly, the content of the top level exam (old level 1) was changed to test slightly more advanced skills, though the passing level was not changed, possibly through equating of test scores. Vocabulary in particular is said to be taken from an increased pool of 18,000 words.

The addition of the new N3 was done to address the problem of the difficulty gap between level 3 and 2: in the past there had been requests for revisions to address the fact that examinees who had passed the Level 3 test often had trouble with passing the Level 2 test because of the large gap in level of skill needed to pass those two levels.

There was also a desire to measure abilities more advanced than those targeted by the current Level 1 test, hence the top level exam was modified.

The correspondence is as follows:

- **N1**: slightly more advanced than the original level 1, but the same passing level
- **N2**: the same as the original level 2
- **N3**: in between the original level 2 and level 3

- **N4**: the same as the original level 3
- **N5**: the same as the original level 4

The revised test continues to test the same content categories as the original, but the first and third sections of the test have been combined into a single section. Sections on oral and writing skills were not introduced. Further, a requirement to pass individual sections was added, rather than only achieving an overall score.

It has been argued that changes to the exam were connected to the introduction of new language policies instituted by the Ministry of Education regarding the education of minorities in Japan.

Test of Proficiency in Korean

The **Test of Proficiency in Korean** (**TOPIK**) is a Korean language test for nonnative speakers of Korean. The test is offered six times annually (Jan, Apr, May, Jul, Oct, Nov) within Korea and less often to people studying Korean in other countries.

The test is for individuals whose first language is not Korean and is taken by overseas ethnic Koreans, those wishing to study at a Korean university, and for those who want to be employed at Korean companies in and outside of Korea. Since 2011,

TOPIK is administered by the National Institute for International Education [ko] (국립국제교육원, NIIED), a branch of the Ministry of Education in South Korea.

History

The test was first administered in 1997 and taken by 2,274 people. Initially the test was held only once a year. In 2009, 180,000 people took the test. The Korean government introduced a law in 2007 that required Chinese workers of Korean descent with no relatives in Korea to attain more than 200 points (out of 400) in the Business TOPIK (B-TOPIK) so they could be entered into a lottery for work visa.

In 1997 – 1998, TOPIK was administered by Korea Research Foundation (KRF). In 1999 – 2010, TOPIK was administered by the Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation [ko] (KICE).

In 2012, more than 150,000 candidates took the TOPIK, and the total number of people who have taken the test since its date of inception surpassed 1 million.

Format

Old format

In previous years, the test was divided into four parts: vocabulary and grammar, writing, listening, and reading. Two versions of the test were offered: the Standard (S)-TOPIK and the Business (B)-TOPIK.

There were three different levels of S-TOPIK: beginner (초급), intermediate (중급), and advanced (고급). Depending on the average score and minimum marks in each section it was possible to obtain grades 1-2 in beginner, 3-4 in intermediate

and 5-6 in advanced S-TOPIK. In B-TOPIK the scores in each section (out of 100) were added together to give a score out of 400.

New format

A new format of the TOPIK took effect from the 35th TOPIK test, held on 20 July 2014. Instead of the original ternary (Beginner, Intermediate and Advanced) classification, there are now only two test levels – TOPIK I and TOPIK II. TOPIK I has sub-levels 1 and 2, whereas TOPIK II has four sub-levels from 3 to 6. Another important change is that now the TOPIK I has only two sections – Reading and Listening, instead of four sections in the old format. TOPIK II has three sections – Reading, Listening and Writing.

Validity

The test results are valid for two years after the announcement of examination results.

Structure of questions

The test consists of mostly multiple-choice questions; however, the TOPIK II level writing examination will require a short-answer. TOPIK I consists of multiple-choice questions for listening (40 minutes long with 30 questions) and reading (60 minutes long with 40 questions). Both examination areas are worth a score of 100 with a combining score of 200. TOPIK II has two slots. The first slot is the listening examination (60 minutes long with 50 questions) and writing (50 minutes long

with 4 short-answer questions). The second slot is for the reading examination (70 minutes long with 50 questions). All three examinations of TOPIK II are worth a score of 100 with a combining score of 300.

Use of the test result

- Korean university admission for foreigners.
- Obtaining work visas for local Korean companies.
- Recognizing domestic practitioner license for foreigners with medical doctor qualifications.
- For the application of a Korean Language Teaching Qualification test (level 2 and 3) and acquisition of certificate.
- To apply for permanent residency.
- To obtain marriage based immigrant visa.

Testing locations

As of February 2021, there are 314 testing centers, with 54 in South Korea and the remaining are in 87 different countries. In addition to Korea, TOPIK is available in the following countries and districts: Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, Belarus, Brazil, Bulgaria, Cambodia, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Cuba, Czech Republic, Egypt, France, Germany, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Iran, Italy, Japan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Malaysia, Mexico, Mongolia, Morocco, Myanmar, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Pakistan, Paraguay, Philippines, Portugal, Poland, Russia, Romania, Singapore, Spain, Taiwan, Tajikistan, Turkey, UAE, Ukraine, USA, United Kingdom, Uzbekistan, and Vietnam.

Examination times are divided into three time zones: China and marginal states (China, Hong Kong, Mongolia, Philippines, Taiwan, Singapore and Brunei; which shares the same time zone of UTC+8),

Korea and Japan (which shares the same time zone of UTC+9), and other countries (which follows local time of a specific country). In India, TOPIK test is conducted in 5 cities - New Delhi, Chennai, Hyderabad, Ranchi, and Manipur.

HanyuShuipingKaoshi

The ***HanyuShuipingKaoshi*** (**HSK**; Chinese: 汉语水平考试; pinyin: *Hàny□Shu□píngK□oshì*), translated as the **Chinese Proficiency Test**, is the standardized test of Standard Chinese (a type of Mandarin Chinese) language proficiency of Mainland China for non-native speakers such as foreign students and overseas Chinese. The test is administered by the Hanban, an agency of the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China.

The test cannot be taken in Taiwan, where only the Taiwan's TOCFL exam can be taken. The TOCFL exam is not available in Mainland China, vice versa.

Background

Development began in 1984 at Beijing Language and Culture University and in 1992 the HSK was officially made a nationalstandardized test. By 2005, over 120 countries had participated as regular host sites and the tests had been taken around 100 million times (domestic ethnic minority candidates

included). The general count of candidates from outside of China is stated as being around 1.9 million. In 2011, Beijing International Chinese College became the first HSK testing center to conduct the HSK test online.

The HSK test is analogous to the English TOEFL, and an HSK certificate is valid without any limitation in China. The test aims to be a certificate of language proficiency for higher educational and professional purposes.

It is not uncommon to refer to a standard or level of proficiency by the HSK level number, or score. For example, a job description might ask for foreign applicants with "HSK5 or better."

The HSK is administered solely in Mandarin and in simplified Chinese characters; however, if the exam is paper-based, the test-taker can choose to write the writing assignments in simplified or in traditional characters, at their discretion. The test can be either paper-based or Internet-based, depending on what the specific test center offers.

With an Internet-based test, the writing part with characters (from HSK 3 on) is subjectively and slightly easier, as one types the pinyin and selects the right character from the list, while with a paper-based test, one must remember the characters, their strokes and their order, and write them out.

Test takers with outstanding results can win a scholarship for short-term language study in China.

Structure

From 2021

In 2020, an internal Chinese academic paper discussed that the Chinese Proficiency Standards shall usher in a new change: a hybrid paradigm of “Three Stages and Nine Levels” characterized by integration and all-in-one. The Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China announced further details regarding HSK 3.0 on April 1, 2021. Among the information shared was a wordlist for each individual stage, and a date for the introduction of the new test - July 1, 2021.

The new test is meant to follow the latest research in the field of language studies and testing.

The basic levels (roughly corresponding to CEFR A1/A2) should test from 500 to 2245 words, the intermediate levels (roughly corresponding to CEFR B1/B2) from 3245 to 5456 words, the advanced levels (roughly corresponding to CEFR C1/C2) from about 6000 to 11000 words.

The intermediate levels should test the ability to understand slightly modified authentic materials or authentic materials written/spoken in a clear manner and intended for educated mother tongue speakers: materials concerning everyday topics, simple articles, simple commentaries and critiques found in newspapers and magazines.

The advanced levels should test the ability to understand longer, more complicated and abstract materials: extracts from authentic sources such as textbooks for Chinese university

students, Chinese magazine and essays, extracts from modern Chinese literature, interviews and extracts from Chinese media. Moreover, classical Chinese expressions and classical Chinese grammatical structures used in modern formal Chinese should be included too.

The Listening, Reading and Writing tests each have a maximum score of 100. HSK 1 and 2 therefore have a maximum score of 200 with 120 points required to pass. HSK 3 and 4 have a maximum of 300 points with 180 points required to pass. There is no minimum number of points required for each of the sections as long as the sum is over 120 or 180 points respectively.

HSK 5 and 6 also have a maximum of 300 points and originally required a score of 180 points to pass. However, since a decision made in February 2013, there has been no official passing score for either HSK 5 or 6.

Hanban provides examples of the exam for the different levels together with a list of words that need to be known for each level. These examples are also available (together with the audio for the Listening Test) on the websites of the Confucius Institute at QUT and HSK Academy.

Online test

The written version is now available in two forms, a computer and a paper based test. Both tests are still held at test centers, the differences between the two are as follows:

- Not every test center has the facilities for conducting computer based tests

- Computer based tests allow you to input characters using the keyboard
- Results of computer based tests are published 2 weeks after the exam, paper based test results take 1 month

Before 2010

Ranking

Formerly, there were 11 possible ranks (1-11) and 3 test formats (Basic, Elementary/Intermediate, and Advanced). A rank of between 3 and 8 was needed to enroll in a Chinese university, depending on the subject being studied. A score of 9 or higher was a common business standard.

A student taking the **Basic** test (基础HSK) could attain a rank of 1 through 3 (1级-3级), or fail to meet requirements and thus not receive a rank.

The **Elementary/Intermediate** test (初中等HSK) covered ranks 3-8 (3级-8级), with ranks below 3 not considered. Likewise, the **Advanced** test (高等HSK) covered ranks 9-11 (9级-11级), with scores below 9 not considered.

Content

The previous format for both Basic and Elementary/Intermediate HSK included four sections: listening comprehension, grammar structures, reading comprehension, and written expressions. Aside from the written expressions

portion (which requires writing of Chinese characters), these two tests were completely multiple-choice. The Advanced HSK however, added an additional two portions: spoken and written.

Test dates and locations

The HSK is held at designated test centers in China and abroad. A list of test centers can be found at the HSK website. Test dates are published annually and written tests are more frequently held than spoken ones, generally around once a month, depending on the test center. Test registration is usually open until 30 days prior to the actual test date for the paper-based test or around 10 days prior the actual test date for the computer-based test. Results are generally available around 30 days after completion (but no definite date is given for results).

The test cannot be taken in Taiwan (The Republic of China). In Taiwan, only the TOCFL exam can be taken. Conversely, the TOCFL can not be taken in China, Macau, or Hong Kong.

AccademiaItaliana di Lingua

The **AccademiaItaliana di Lingua (AIL)** is a professional association of schools, institutions and experts in the field of teaching Italian as a foreign language. They organise instruction and testing of students interested in having a diploma for Italian language studies. The AIL initiated the first diploma exams for the study of modern Italian.

History

The *AccademiaItaliana di Lingua* ("Italian Academy of Languages") was founded in Florence in 1984 as a non profit association between private and public schools, teaching Italian as a second and a foreign language.

The Association was supported by the European Council's recommendations suggesting a range of diverse levels of competence.

The first exam the Association conceived was the DALI, C1 advanced level (1984) followed by DILI, B1 intermediate level (1993) and the last one was the DELI, A1/A2 basic level (1995).

The DALC, C1 advanced commercial language's diploma was introduced in 1995, while the DILC, B1 intermediate commercial language's diploma dates back 2002.

Starting from 2005, the AIL offer range has grown rich with DILI B2, Intermediate level 2 exam which, being included between DILI B1 and DALI C1, goes to check the candidates' linguistic abilities on B2 level.

Since 2007 the AIL DILC - B1 Examination has been recognized by the UFFT (Swiss Federal Office for professional education and technology) as final Exam of Italian as a second national language for all the professional commercial schools of the Helvetic Confederation.

The AIL organizes preparation courses for every level in their exam centers.

AIL Certificates

AIL offers the following exams:

- DELI A2: The first level examination. By passing this examination, the candidate has shown that he is able to understand the main structures of the Italian language. He is able to read simple texts and he can communicate in elementary everyday situations.
- DILI B1: The Intermediate level 1 of examination. By passing this examination, the candidate has shown that he is able to communicate, both orally and in writing in all everyday situations. He is also able to understand texts that deal with topics of everyday life and can express his own opinions in writing.
- DILI B2: The third level examination, Intermediate level 2, continues increasing in the difficulty of the Italian involved. By passing this examination, the candidate has shown that he is able to interact, both orally and in writing, in Italian about expected complexity subjects he is acquainted with.
- DALI C1: The highest level of examination. By passing this examination, the candidate has proved that his knowledge of Italian language enables him to express himself correctly, both orally and in writing, with the complexity expected of everyday language skills. Additionally, he can understand and compose written texts.
- DILC B1: This is a supplementary examination on Intermediate level 1, specific to Italian language of business and tourism. By passing this examination in Italian business language, the candidate has

shown that he is able to communicate, both orally and in writing, in all everyday situations. He understands conversations that deal with topics of economy and can express his own opinions in writing.

- DALC C1: This is an advanced level examination specific to Italian language of business and tourism. By passing this examination in Italian business language, the candidate has shown the ability to communicate, in any situation requiring a strong knowledge of commercial Italian: correspondence, public relations, specialized literature, secretarial work, business meetings, etc.

All of these exams are offered four times a year.

Diploma examinations "Firenze" in written and spoken Italian for various ability levels are held two or four times a year. Testing centres are located in Italy, Croatia, Serbia, and Switzerland.

The exams are one of a kind, and the correction of the written portions along with final evaluation are carried out in the main Florence office in order to guarantee uniform evaluation for all students.

Qualification Eligibility

The Qualification is open to all foreign applicants wishing to validate their abilities in Italian language once registered.

Procedure

Diploma examinations "Firenze" in written and spoken Italian for the various ability levels are held four times a year in examination centers worldwide. An applicant wishing to obtain an Italian Language diploma “Firenze” must register and pay (prices varying) at least one month before the official sitting of the exam in order to sit the examination that seems suitable for him/her. When an applicant has completed the exam, the AIL evaluates it according to European Union guidelines and awards the official qualification three months after its sitting. The exams are one of a kind and the correction of the written portions as well as the final evaluation are carried out in the main Florence office in order to guarantee a uniform evaluation. Candidates who receive the qualification do so through successfully passing one of the examinations.

The AIL has designed preparation courses which last from one to twelve months depending on the level of Italian that the candidate must have in order to take the examination. Each school or institution affiliated with AIL is an examination center and each examination center regularly offers preparation courses.

Chapter 4

Language Courses

Chinese school

A **Chinese school** (simplified Chinese: 中文学校; traditional Chinese: 中文學校; pinyin: *zhōngwénxuéxiào*; Cantonese Yale: *jūngmánhohk'haauh*) is a school that is established for the purpose of teaching the varieties of Chinese (in particular, Mandarin and Cantonese), though the purpose can vary to teaching different aspects of Chinese culture such as Chinese art, calligraphy, history and martial arts. The programs can either be an independent institution or a part of an existing educational institution. Many Chinese schools are purposed to preserve traditional Chinese language and culture. In 2007, USA Today dubbed Chinese "... is the new English."

A recent trend in 2011 shows that the Chinese government has also provided funding to U.S. school districts with additional funding on top of funding they already receive from the U.S. government. As a result, there has also been concern that the Chinese government may also be infiltrating the education system outside its borders, as some people at a school district in Columbus, Ohio, feel it has done.

Curriculum

A typical Chinese school curriculum can vary depending on the particular school. However, the Standard Chinese language

and various aspects of Chinese culture such as Chinese art, Chinese history and Chinese martial arts are typically included.

Chinese language

The Chinese language is spoken by nearly 1.2 billion people or about 16% of the world's population. Chinese schools typically teach both written and spoken Chinese. With the growing importance and influence of China's economy globally, Mandarin instruction is gaining popularity in schools in the United States, and has become an increasingly popular subject of study amongst the young in the Western world, as in the UK. One of the teaching tools used widely in Chinese schools is the Pinyin system, also known as the official phonetic system for transcribing the Mandarin pronunciations of Chinese characters into the Latin alphabet which was developed in the 1950s based on earlier forms of romanization.

It was published by the Chinese government in 1958 and revised several times. The International Organization for Standardization (ISO) adopted pinyin as an international standard in 1982.

Chinese calligraphy

Written Chinese as taught in Chinese schools uses methods as defined by the Shūfo (書法) from China, which means "the way/method/law of writing". Curricula in Chinese writing typically focus on stroke order and repetition. Schools also teach the relationship of words based on their Chinese radicals, as many words come from ideas that relate to a

particular topic. Stroke orders of words are also important as they dictate how Chinese words can be found in a Chinese dictionary.

Chinese art

Chinese art is taught in Chinese schools following the techniques as established in Chinese painting. For example:

- Gong-bi (工筆), meaning "meticulous", uses highly detailed brushstrokes that delimits details very precisely. It is often highly coloured and usually depicts figural or narrative subjects. It is often practised by artists working for the royal court or in independent workshops. Bird-and-flower paintings were often in this style.
- Ink and wash painting, in Chinese *Shui-mo* or (水墨) also loosely termed watercolour or brush painting, and also known as "literati painting", as it was one of the "four arts" of the Chinese Scholar-official class. In theory this was an art practised by gentlemen, a distinction that begins to be made in writings on art from the Song dynasty, though in fact the careers of leading exponents could benefit considerably. This style is also referred to as "xieyi" (寫意) or freehand style.

Chinese martial arts

Chinese martial arts, sometimes called "kung fu" are a number of fighting styles that have developed over the centuries in China. Chinese schools often offer such programs as part of

their curriculum as it is one of the fundamental aspects of Chinese culture. Though some martial art styles may have originated in other parts of Asia such as karate and tae kwon do, they are sometimes taught as though it were part of the Chinese heritage.

Major events

Chinese New Year

Many Chinese schools put on a Chinese New Year gala as the festival is an important Chinese festival celebrated at the turn of the Chinese calendar. It is also known as the **Spring Festival**, the literal translation of the modern Chinese name. Chinese New Year celebrations traditionally run from Chinese New Year's Eve, the last day of the last month of the Chinese calendar, to the Lantern Festival on the 15th day of the first month, making the festival the longest in the Chinese calendar. The first day of the New Year falls between January 21 and February 20.

English-language learner

English-Language Learner (often abbreviated as **ELL**) is a term used in some English-speaking countries such as the US and Canada to describe a person who is learning the English language and has a native language that is not English. Some educationaladvocates, especially in the United States, classify theses students as non-native English speakers or emergent bilinguals. Various other terms are also used to refer to students who are not proficient in English, such as English as

a Second Language (ESL), English as an Additional Language (EAL), limited English proficient (LEP), Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD), non-native English speaker, bilingual students, heritage language, emergent bilingual, and language-minority students. The legal term that is used in federal legislation is 'limited English proficient'. The instruction and assessment of students, their cultural background, and the attitudes of classroom teachers towards ELLs have all been found to be factors in the achievement of these students. Several methods have been suggested to effectively teach ELLs, including integrating their home cultures into the classroom, involving them in language-appropriate content-area instruction early on, and integrating literature into their learning programs.

History of English-Language Learners

The term "English Language Learner" was first used by Mark LaCelle-Peterson and Charlene Rivera in their 1994 study. He defined ELL students as students whose first language is not English, including both limited and higher levels of language proficiency. The term ELL emphasizes that students are mastering another language, something many monolingual students in American schools may never attempt outside of the limited proficiency gained from foreign language class requirements. In adopting the term, LaCelle-Peterson and Rivera gave analogies of other conventional educational terms. The authors believed that just as we refer to advanced teaching candidates as "student teachers" rather than "limited teaching proficient individuals," the term ELL underscores what students are *learning* instead of their limitations.

Since 1872, an English-only instruction law had been in place in the United States. It was not until 1967, that the legislation was overturned by SB53, a policy signed for California public schools to allow other languages in instruction. A year later, after SB53 garnered support by the immigrant community, the Bilingual Education Act (Title VII) was passed. Nationally, public schools were then provided funding for programs that met the educational needs of ELL.

Not long after the installment of Title VII, the "taxpayers revolt" came to fruition and California's Proposition 13 was drafted. It proposed funding cuts for large portions of California's public schools, backed by those who disapproved of immigrant progress. In opposition to this, cases like Castaneda v Pickard fought for educational equality and standards focused on developing ELL students, as well as an overall sound plan for school districts. An additional setback occurred in California in 1998 when Proposition 227 passed, banning bilingual education yet again. To combat this, education advocates in the Bay Area began to open all-inclusive schools to promote the acceptance of ELL students.

Methods of Instruction

There are various forms of ELL instruction. Fast-track to English programs encourage students to use English as quickly as possible and offer little to no native language support. In transition-bilingual programs, instruction begins in the student's native language and then switches to English in elementary or middle school. In dual language programs (also known as two-way bilingual or two-way immersion programs), students become fluent simultaneously in their native

language and English. Sheltered instruction is another approach in which integrates language and content instruction in the mainstream classroom environment.

In a five-week study by J. Huang, research showed that "classroom instruction appeared to play an important role in integrating language skills development and academic content learning." This study also highlighted that the "students acquire linguistic/literacy skills and scientific knowledge hand in hand as they assume various communicative and social roles within carefully planned language activities." By tying scientific content in English, the students were able to improve their language development between drafts and build upon their existing knowledge of scientific content as well.

"Push-in" programs versus "Pull-out" programs

Two specific models of instruction include the push-in program and the pull-out program. The push-in program includes the English teacher coming into the classroom to aid the English Language Learner. The benefit of this method is that students remain integrated in the classroom with their native English-speaking peers. This method does not isolate or single out ELL students; However, this method can present challenges in co-teaching, as the educators must work together to collaborate in the classroom. In schools using a push-in style of teaching, educators disagree over whether ELL students should be encouraged or permitted to participate in additional foreign language classes, such as French. Some educators argue that learning another additional language while learning English might be too challenging for ELLs, or that ELLs should focus on their English proficiency before attempting further

languages. Other educators insist that foreign language classes are the only classes that put ELL students on a level playing field with their peers, and furthermore that research may suggest that ELL students perform better in foreign language classes than their peers.

The push-out program entails the ELL student learning in a separate classroom with the English teacher. The benefit of such a method is that ELL students receive individualized, focused training. Unfortunately, this method can isolate ELL students from the rest of their peers, leaving them feeling left out from the community.

Scaffolding

Scaffolding theory was developed in 1976 by Jerome Bruner. Bruner adapts Lev Vygotsky's zone of proximal development theory to child development. In the context of aiding ELL students, scaffolding is seen as a way to offer more support to ELL students initially through additional strategies and approaches, which are gradually removed as the student gains independence and proficiency. Different scaffolding strategies include associating English vocabulary to visuals, drawing back to a student's prior knowledge, pre-teaching difficult vocabulary before assigning readings they appear in, and encouraging questions from students, whether they be content-related or to ensure comprehension. All of these additional areas of support are to be gradually removed, so that students become more independent, even if that means no longer needing some of these associations or seeking them out for themselves.

Labor-Based Grading

In Asao Inoue's work "Labor-Based Grading Contracts," he proposes an alternative to traditional content-based or quality-based methods of assessment in writing classrooms. Inoue outlines his own innovative classroom design, which assigns grades based on set standards for how much work is put into each assignment through quantitative methods such as word counts. High marks are earned by students who go above the baseline requirements, which earn students a "B" on the A-F grading scale. The intent behind Inoue's design is that students are rewarded for their efforts rather than deterred, and students who traditionally score poorly when graded on quality (such as ELL students) are equally capable of receiving a certain grade as any other student, despite any educational setbacks or challenges they endure. A unique aspect to the labor-based grading design is that students collaborate as a class to decide what the terms on conditions of grading scales are. This way, all student's voices are heard and considered when developing a method of evaluation for their work.

Issues in schools

Assessment

The federal No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) requires all ELLs attending public schools from grades K-12 to be assessed in multiple language domains, such as listening, reading, writing, and speaking. The NCLB Act also requires ELL students to partake in statewide standardized testing. However, there is an achievement gap between ELLs and their native English-speaking peers. This achievement gap persists not only in

language-based disciplines, but also in the math, science, and social science subjects. Research in this area suggests that ELL students' content-based assessment outcomes might be confounded by language barriers, since they are not only being exposed to new material, but they are learning this new material in a language that they may still be gaining proficiency in.

Teachers

Attitudes of educators play a major role in the ESL classroom. Estimates suggest that approximately 45% of teachers in America have ELL students in their classrooms; however, it is not uncommon for teachers have negative perceptions of ELL students in their classrooms. These negative perceptions are informed by a bias that ELL students are not adequately trying or that they are personally at fault for their language barrier. Research shows that the negative attitudes of teachers may stem from lack of time to address unique ELL student classroom needs, added teacher workload when working with ELL students in mainstream classrooms, and personal feelings of professional insufficiency to work with ELL students. Research indicates that only 12% of K-12 teachers in United States have training in working with ELL students.

In research conducted by Jenelle R. Reeves, she writes "Teachers' language-acquisition misconceptions may color their attitudes towards ELLs and ELL inclusion, leading educators to misdiagnose learning difficulties or misattribute student failure to lack of intelligence or effort".By providing a positive learning environment, this will have an effect on the students' overall success in terms of linguistic, social, cognitive, and

academic developments. In terms of teacher preparation, Garcia, O. & Menken, K. suggest that it is necessary for the ELL Teacher to engage in inward self-reflection before acting outwardly. In their piece "Moving Forward: Ten Guiding Principles for Teachers", they propose that because Language Teachers often act as informal policymakers, it is imperative that they first understand their own "ways of languaging" and preconceptions about languages and language learners. It could be detrimental, they conclude, for a language teacher to enter the classroom without the necessary reflection and self-awareness, as these teachers could unknowingly impose systems of linguistic discrimination (linguicism).

Culture

A study to examine anti-racist pedagogy within predominantly white versus predominantly Mexican classrooms concluded that Mexican elementary-level students had a firmer grasp on cultural inequalities . According to the findings, the social and cultural maturity of the Mexican students is a direct result of having faced the inequalities themselves. Another study on Caucasian first-grade teachers and their ELL students indicated biases that ultimately affected students' desire to learn. A combination of misinformation, stereotypes, and individual reservations can alter teachers' perception when working with culturally diverse or non-native English speakers. Teachers are placed in the position to teach English-learning students, sometimes without the necessary training, as mentioned above. From a Walden University study, a handful of teachers at an elementary school expressed not having the energy, training, or time to perform for these students.

An ESL teacher, in a study called "Losing Strangeness to Mediate ESL Teaching", "connects culture to religious celebrations and holidays and the fusion invites students to share their knowledge". This has encouraged students to open up and talk about their cultural backgrounds and traditions. "Teachers who encourage CLD students to maintain their cultural or ethnic ties promote their personal and academic success." Students should not feel that they need to lose their identity in the classroom, but rather that they gain knowledge from both their culture and the world around them. It have been proven to be beneficial to bring culture into the ESL classroom in order for the students to feel a sense of worth in school and in their lives. Similarly, the sharing one different cultural backgrounds can benefit other students in the mainstream classroom who may not have the cultural maturity or dual identities that these students are able to shed a light on.

Another reason that an ESL student may be struggling to join discussions and engage in class could be attributed to whether they come from a culture where speaking up to an authority figure (like a teacher or a professor) is discouraged. This makes classes that are graded based on participation especially challenging for these students. Strategies that can mitigate this discomfort or misunderstanding of expectations include offering surveys or reflective writing prompts, that are collected after class, inquiring about student's educational and cultural backgrounds and past learning experiences. Regardless of how much training an instructor has on teaching ELL students, being open to learning about them as an individual rather than a part of a larger group and making

efforts towards tailoring and personalizing their learning experience can contribute to the student's overall success.

Outside of the classroom, ELL students are otherwise institutionally marginalized, as well. They often sit at separate lunch tables and are under-recognized in school assemblies.

Prompts and Expectations

Aside from linguistic gaps, the adjustment to American scholarly expectations, writing genres, and prompts can all be jarring and even contradictory to an ELL individual's academic experiences from their home country. An example of this is how American writing prompts tend to be multiple pages long, with extensive details and examples. Many collegiate ELLs can be overwhelmed and confused by all of the additional information, making it difficult to decipher all of the different parts that their writing needs to address. Another example is found in how students from other countries may be unfamiliar with sharing their opinions, or criticizing the government in any form, even if this is a requirement for an essay or a speech. According to a survey by Lin (2015), “Many [ELL students] indicated that they had problems adjusting their ways of writing in their first language to American thought patterns. Students still thought in their first language and used the rhetorical patterns of their first language to write English essays... Because writing patterns or styles are not only cognitively but also culturally embedded, many ELL writers in this study found it takes a significant amount of time to adapt to different thinking patterns when communicating through written English.”

Enriching the Classroom Environment

In order to maintain an environment that is beneficial for both the teacher and the student, culture, literature, and other disciplines should be integrated systematically into the instruction. Postponing content-area instruction until CLD students gain academic language skills bridges the linguistic achievement gap between the learners and their native-English speaking peers. Relating to culture, teachers need to integrate it into the lesson, in order for the students to feel a sense of appreciation and a feeling of self-worth rather than ostracization. Students will benefit substantially from the use of literature in instruction, as well. "Reading texts that match learner interests and English proficiency provide learners with comprehensible language input—a chance to learn new vocabulary in context and to see the syntax of the language." Students can also gain additional motivation and enjoyment from the addition of literature. By integrating other disciplines into the lesson, it will make the content more significant to the learners and will create higher order thinking skills across the areas. Introducing language in other contexts focuses not only on learning a second language, but using that language as a medium to learn mathematics, science, social studies, or other academic subjects. These varying approaches aid ELL students' awareness "that English is not just an object of academic interest nor merely a key to passing an examination; instead, English becomes a real means of interaction and sharing among people". Therefore, students will be able to communicate across the curriculum, acquire higher level skills, and be successful in their daily lives.

Strategies for Supporting English-Language Learners in the Classroom and Beyond

Incorporating technology is one strategy for supporting English-Language Learners in the classroom. The internet makes it possible for students to view videos of activities, events, and places around the world instantaneously. Viewing these activities can help English-Language Learners develop an understanding of new concepts while at the same time building topic related schema (background knowledge). Introducing students to media literacy and accessible materials can also aid them in their future academic endeavors and establish research skills early on.

Experiential learning is another strategy to support ELL students. The teacher can provide opportunities for English Language Learners to acquire vocabulary and build knowledge through hands-on learning. This can include activities such as science experiments and art projects, which are tactile ways that encourage students to create solutions to proposed problems or tasks.

A strategy that requires more involvement from educators is supporting the students outside of the school setting. To respond to deficiencies in the public school system, educators and student activists have created spaces that work to uplift ELL and their families. Labeled as family-school-community partnerships, these spaces have sought out cultural and linguistic responsiveness through encouraging participation and addressing needs outside of school. It is an interpretation of growth through art and community bonding meant to prime student development.

The Future of English-Language Learners

While there have been several advancements in both the rights and the strategies and support offered in the United States and Canada for English-Language learning students, there is still much work to be done. Despite International students (who often make up the bulk of ELL students in higher education, in addition to immigrants) being sought out as sources of profit and their boosts of collegiate diversity statistics, there are not always additional funding and resources curated to support these students at their respective institutions. With efforts like U.S. President Donald J. Trump's proposed deportation of International students as a result of 2020's COVID-19 pandemic, and the ongoing debate whether to continue to support pathways to citizenship and achievement by the children of undocumented immigrants, such as DACA, there are still many hinderances to this group of students occurring today. Adoption of socially-just classroom pedagogies such as those proposed by Asao Inoue, and the re-examination of the privileges inherent in the existence of "Standard Academic English" are current steps towards a trajectory of inclusion and tolerance for these groups of students in both K-12 and higher education.

Arabic language school

Arabic language schools are language schools specialized in teaching Arabic as a foreign language. There are different types of Arabic language schools based on their focused branch, target audience, methods of instruction delivery, cultural atmosphere, and elective courses available.

Definition and scope

Unlike general language schools that provide Arabic classes and certificates along with other live languages' classes as well, Arabic language schools are those that specialize in Arabic language instruction only, or mainly. Al Diwan Center and the Moroccan Center for Arabic Studies MCAS are examples, whose focus is on Arabic only. Examples of those schools that cannot be referred to as an "Arabic language school" are the British Council, the CFCC, the AMIDEAST, and other cultural exchange bodies in Arab countries. While not very big in number, those specialized schools with this focus made them very effective in teaching this subject matter that are regarded by many as difficult compared to other live languages of today. Provided that most of them are located where Arabic is the native mother tongue, they make it ideal for those who want to practice what they learn in a daily life experience .

Categories

Schools that teach Arabic to speakers of other languages are categorized based on the following:

Size and levels provided

Some schools are large enough to provide graduate-like course curriculum and teaching quality, while others are starting out and provide middle-to-high school level of Arabic teaching.

Profitability

- Business and for-profit Arabic language schools
- Most Arabic language schools fall under this category
- Charitable non-profit Arabic language schools
- Mostly Islamic religious organizations

Specialty

- MSA only.
- Dialect only.
- Mix of MSA and Dialect.

Many schools provide side courses on related subjects like: Islamic religious courses related to language like Quranic recitation, and Arabic calligraphy.

Arabic language schools

- Aldiwan Arabic Language Center
- Episcopal Training Center, Cairo

Hindi language school

Hindi language schools are language schools specialized in teaching Hindi as a foreign language to speakers of other languages. There are different types of Hindi language schools based on their focused branch, target audience, methods of instruction delivery, cultural atmosphere, and elective courses available.

Origins

Modern Standard Hindi (मानकहिन्दी) is the native language of most people living in Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Chhattisgarh, Himachal Pradesh, Chandigarh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Haryana, and Rajasthan. Modern Standard Hindi is one of the official languages of India. Hindi schools promote Hindi by teaching children the importance of Hindi in both an economic and geographic perspective. Since 2008, there has been a demand for Hindi teachers particularly in New Jersey and Connecticut to fill teaching positions aimed at competitiveness. It is said that Hindi "... is the new Mandarin ..." in light of global competitiveness with China. The study found that Arabic, Mandarin, Russian, Persian and Hindi are all important languages in the new millennium.

Major festivals

Hindi schools generally celebrate Hindu festivals as part of their teachings. Some of the major holidays as Diwali and Holi are among holidays that are commonly celebrated with festivities.

Curriculum

In general, most Hindi schools have the general mission to bridge the gap between India and American culture. Most Hindi schools teach general linguistics that includes vocabulary for recognizing basic concepts such as animal names, colors, and body parts. This generally includes functional conversational skills, and reading and writing Sanskrit and Devanagari.

Chapter 5

Language Pedagogy

Language pedagogy is the approach taken towards the methods used to teach and learn languages. There are many methods of teaching languages. Some have fallen into relative obscurity and others are widely used; still others have a small following, but offer useful insights.

There are **three principal views**:

- The **structural** view treats language as a system of structurally related elements to code meaning (e.g. grammar).
- The **functional** view sees language as a vehicle to express or accomplish a certain function, such as requesting something.
- The **interactive** view sees language as a vehicle for the creation and maintenance of social relations, focusing on patterns of moves, acts, negotiation and interaction found in conversational exchanges. This view has been fairly dominant since the 1980s.

Methodology

In the late 1800s and most of the 1900s, language teaching was usually conceived in terms of *method*. In seeking to improve teaching practices, teachers and researchers would typically try to find out which method was the most effective. However, *method* is an ambiguous concept in language

teaching, and has been used in many different ways. According to Bell, this variety in use "offers a challenge for anyone wishing to enter into the analysis or deconstruction of methods".

Approach, method and *technique*

In 1963, University of Michigan Linguistics Professor Edward Mason Anthony Jr. formulated a framework to describe various language teaching methods, which consisted of three levels: *approach*, *method*, and *technique*. According to Anthony, "The arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach." His concept of *approach* was of a set of principles or ideas about the nature of language learning which would be consistent over time; "an approach is axiomatic". His *method* was more procedural; "an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach." Finally, his concept of *technique* referred to the actual implementation in the language classroom; "a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective." He saw techniques as being consistent with a given method and by extension, with a given approach.

A method is a plan for presenting the language material to be learned and should be based upon a selected approach. In order for an approach to be translated into a method, an instructional system must be designed considering the objectives of the teaching/learning, how the content is to be selected and organized, the types of tasks to be performed, the roles of students and the roles of teachers. A technique is a

very specific, concrete stratagem or trick designed to accomplish an immediate objective. Such are derived from the controlling method, and less-directly, with the approach.

Anthony's framework was welcomed by the language teaching community when it was introduced, and it was seen as a useful way of classifying different teaching practices. However, it did not clearly define the difference between *approach*, *method*, and *technique*, and Kumaravadivelu reports that due to this ambiguity there was "widespread dissatisfaction" with it. Anthony himself recognized the limitations of his framework, and was open to the idea of improvements being made to it.

Approach, *design* and *procedure*

Richards and Rogers' 1982 approach expanded on Anthony's three-level framework; however, instead of *approach*, *method* and *technique*, they chose the terms *approach*, *design*, and *procedure*. Their concept of *approach* was similar to Anthony's, but their *design* and *procedure* were of broader scope than Anthony's *method* and *technique*. Their *design* referred to all major practical implications in the classroom, such as syllabus design, types of activities to be used in the classroom, and student and teacher roles; *procedure* referred to different behaviors, practices and techniques observed in the classroom. These new terms were intended to address limitations in Anthony's framework, and also gave them specific criteria by which they could evaluate different "methods". This evaluation process was a key way that their formulation differed from Anthony's, as Anthony's framework was intended as purely descriptive.

Despite Richards and Rogers' efforts to clearly define *approach*, *design*, and *procedure*, their framework has been criticized by Kumaravadivelu for having "an element of artificiality in its conception and an element of subjectivity in its operation". Kumaravadivelu also points to similar objections raised by Pennyworth and by the *Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning*. Brown also questions the suitability of Richards and Rogers' term *design*; he points out that in English teaching *design*is usually used to refer specifically to curriculum design, rather than the broad definition Richards and Rogers used. Most current teacher training manuals favor the terms *approach*, *method*, and *technique*.

Structural methods

Grammar–translation method

The **grammar–translation method** is a method of teaching foreign languages derived from the classical (sometimes called traditional) method of teaching Ancient Greek and Latin. In grammar–translation classes, students learn grammatical rules and then apply those rules by translating sentences between the target language and the native language. Advanced students may be required to translate whole texts word-for-word. The method has two main goals: to enable students to read and translate literature written in the source language, and to further students' general intellectual development. It originated from the practice of teaching Latin; in the early 16th century, students learned Latin for communication, but after the language died out it was studied purely as an academic discipline. When teachers started teaching other foreign languages in the 19th century, they used the same translation-

based approach as had been used for teaching Latin. The method has been criticized for its shortcomings.

Criticism of term

The overall concept of *grammar-translation*has been criticized since few verifiable sources support the existence of such a method until the 19th century.

History and philosophy

The grammar–translation method originated from the practice of teaching Latin. In the early 16th century, Latin was the most widely studied foreign language because of its prominence in government, academia and business. However, the use of Latin then dwindled and was gradually replaced by English, French and Italian. After the decline of Latin, the purpose of learning it in schools changed. Previously, students had learned Latin for the purpose of communication, but it came to be learned as a purely academic subject.

Throughout Europe in the 18th and the 19th centuries, the education system was formed primarily around a concept called faculty psychology. The theory dictated that the body and mind were separate and the mind consisted of three parts: the will, emotion and intellect. It was believed that the intellect could eventually be sharpened enough to control the will and emotions by learning Greek and Roman classical literature and mathematics. Additionally, an adult with such an education was considered mentally prepared for the world and its challenges.

At first, it was believed that teaching modern languages was not useful for the development of mental discipline and so they were left out of the curriculum. When modern languages began to appear in school curricula in the 19th century, teachers taught them with the same grammar–translation method as was used for Classical Latin and Ancient Greek in the 18th century. Textbooks were therefore essentially copied for the modern language classroom. In the United States, the basic foundations of the method were used in most high school and college foreign language classrooms.

Principles and goals

There are two main goals to grammar–translation classes. One is to develop students' reading ability to a level where they can read literature in the target language. The other is to develop students' general mental discipline.

Users of foreign language want to note things of their interest in the literature of foreign languages. Therefore, this method focuses on reading and writing and has developed techniques which facilitate more or less the learning of reading and writing only. As a result, speaking and listening are overlooked.

Method

Grammar–translation classes are usually conducted in the students' native language. Grammatical rules are learneddeductively; students learn grammar rules by rote, and then practice the rules by doing grammar drills and translating sentences to and from the target language. More attention is

paid to the form of the sentences being translated than to their content. When students reach more advanced levels of achievement, they may translate entire texts from the target language. Tests often involve translating classical texts.

There is usually no listening or speaking practice, and very little attention is placed on pronunciation or any communicative aspects of the language. The skill exercised is reading and then only in the context of translation.

Materials

The mainstay of classroom materials for the grammar–translation method is textbooks, which, in the 19th century, attempted to codify the grammar of the target language into discrete rules that students were to learn and memorize. A chapter in typical grammar–translation textbooks would begin with a bilingual vocabulary list and then grammatical rules for students to study and sentences for them to translate. Some typical sentences from 19th-century textbooks are as follows:

The philosopher pulled the lower jaw of the hen.

My sons have bought the mirrors of the Duke.

The cat of my aunt is more treacherous than the dog of your uncle.

Reception

The method by definition has a very limited scope. Because speaking and any kind of spontaneous creative output were

excluded from the curriculum, students would often fail at speaking or even letter-writing in the target language. A noteworthy quote describing the effect of the method comes from Bahlsen, a student of Plötz, a major proponent of this method in the 19th century. In commenting about writing letters or speaking he said he would be overcome with "a veritable forest of paragraphs, and an impenetrable thicket of grammatical rules".

According to Richards and Rodgers, the grammar–translation has been rejected as a legitimate language teaching method by modern scholars:

[T]hough it may be true to say that the Grammar-Translation Method is still widely practiced, it has no advocates. It is a method for which there is no theory. There is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it or that attempts to relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory.

Influence

The grammar–translation method was the standard way languages were taught in schools from the 17th to the 19th centuries. Despite attempts at reform from Roger Ascham, Montaigne, Comenius and John Locke, no other methods then gained any significant popularity.

Later, theorists such as Viëtor, Passy, Berlitz, and Jespersen began to talk about what a new kind of foreign language instruction needed, shedding light on what the grammar–translation was missing. They supported teaching the

language, not about the language, and teaching in the target language, emphasizing speech as well as text. Through grammar–translation, students lacked an active role in the classroom, often correcting their own work and strictly following the textbook.

Despite all of these drawbacks, the grammar–translation method is still the most used method all over the world in language teaching. That is unsurprising since most language proficiency books and tests are in the format of grammar–translation method.

Audio-lingual method

The **audio-lingual method**, **Army Method**, or **New Key**, is a method used in teaching foreign languages. It is based on behaviorist theory, which postulates that certain traits of living things, and in this case humans, could be trained through a system of reinforcement. The correct use of a trait would receive positive feedback while incorrect use of that trait would receive negative feedback.

This approach to language learning was similar to another, earlier method called the direct method. Like the direct method, the audio-lingual method advised that students should be taught a language directly, without using the students' native language to explain new words or grammar in target language. However, unlike the direct method, the audio-lingual method did not focus on teaching vocabulary. Rather, the teacher drilled students in the use of grammar.

Applied to language instruction, and often within the context of the language lab, it means that the instructor would present the correct model of a sentence and the students would have to repeat it. The teacher would then continue by presenting new words for the students to sample in the same structure. In audio-lingualism, there is no explicit grammar instruction: everything is simply memorized in form.

The idea is for the students to practice the particular construct until they can use it spontaneously. The lessons are built on static drills in which the students have little or no control on their own output; the teacher is expecting a particular response and not providing the desired response will result in a student receiving negative feedback. This type of activity, for the foundation of language learning, is in direct opposition with communicative language teaching.

Charles Carpenter Fries, the director of the English Language Institute at the University of Michigan, the first of its kind in the United States, believed that learning structure or grammar was the starting point for the student. In other words, it was the students' job to recite the basic sentence patterns and grammatical structures. The students were givenonly “enough vocabulary to make such drills possible.” (Richards, J.C. et-al. 1986). Fries later included principles of behavioural psychology, as developed by B.F. Skinner, into this method.

Oral drills

Drills and pattern practice are typical (Richards, J.C. et al., 1986):

- Repetition: the student repeats an utterance as soon as he hears it.
- Inflection: one word in a sentence appears in another form when repeated.
- Replacement: one word is replaced by another.
- Restatement: the student rephrases an utterance.

Examples

Inflection: Teacher: I ate the *sandwich.* Student: I ate the *sandwiches.*

Replacement: Teacher: He bought the *car* for half-price. Student: He bought *it* for half-price.

Restatement: Teacher: *Tell me not to* smoke so often. Student: *Don't* smoke so often!

The following example illustrates how more than one sort of drill can be incorporated into one practice session:

"Teacher: There's a cup on the table ... repeat

Students: There's a cup on the table

Teacher: Spoon

Students: There's a spoon on the table

Teacher: Book

Students: There's a book on the table

Teacher: On the chair

Students: There's a book on the chair

etc."

Historical roots

The method is the product of three historical circumstances. For its views on language, it drew on the work of American linguists such as Leonard Bloomfield. The prime concern of American linguists in the early decades of the 20th century had been to document all the indigenous languages spoken in the US. However, because of the dearth of trained native teachers who would provide a theoretical description of the native languages, linguists had to rely on observation. For the same reason, a strong focus on oral language was developed.

At the same time, behaviourist psychologists such as B.F. Skinner were forming the belief that all behaviour (including language) was learnt through repetition and positive or negative reinforcement. The third factor was the outbreak of World War II, which created the need to post large number of American servicemen all over the world. It was, therefore, necessary to provide these soldiers with at least basic verbal communication skills. Unsurprisingly, the new method relied on the prevailing scientific methods of the time, observation and repetition, which were also admirably suited to teaching *en masse*. Because of the influence of the military, early versions of the audio-lingualism came to be known as the "army method."

In practice

As mentioned, lessons in the classroom focus on the correct imitation of the teacher by the students. The students expected to produce the correct output, but attention is also paid to correct pronunciation. Although correct grammar is expected in usage, no explicit grammatical instruction is given. Furthermore, the target language is the only language to be used in the classroom. Modern implementations are more lax on this last requirement.

Fall from popularity

In the late 1950s, the theoretical underpinnings of the method were questioned by linguists such as Noam Chomsky, who pointed out the limitations of structural linguistics. The relevance of behaviorist psychology to language learning was also questioned, most famously by Chomsky's review of B.F. Skinner's *Verbal Behavior* in 1959. The audio-lingual method was thus deprived of its scientific credibility and it was only a matter of time before the effectiveness of the method itself was questioned.

In 1964, Wilga Rivers released a critique of the method in her book, *The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher*. Subsequent research by others, inspired by her book, produced results which showed explicit grammatical instruction in the mother language to be more productive. These developments, coupled with the emergence of humanist pedagogy led to a rapid decline in the popularity of audiolingualism.

Philip Smith's study from 1965-1969, termed the Pennsylvania Project, provided significant proof that audio-lingual methods were less effective than a more traditional cognitive approach involving the learner's first language.

In recent years

Despite being discredited as an effective teaching methodology in 1970, audio-lingualism continues to be used today although it is typically not used as the foundation of a course but rather has been relegated to use in individual lessons. As it continues to be used, it also continues to be criticized. As Jeremy Harmer notes, “Audio-lingual methodology seems to banish all forms of language processing that help students sort out new language information in their own minds.”

As this type of lesson is very teacher-centered, it is a popular methodology for both teachers and students, perhaps for several reasons but especially because the input and output is restricted and both parties know what to expect. Some hybrid approaches have been developed, as can be seen in the textbook *Japanese: The Spoken Language* (1987–90), which uses repetition and drills extensively but supplements them with detailed grammar explanations in English.

Butzkamm and Caldwell have tried to revive traditional pattern practice in the form of bilingual semi-communicative drills. For them, the theoretical basis, and sufficient justification, of pattern drills is the generative principle, which refers to the human capacity to generate an infinite number of sentences from a finite grammatical competence.

Main features

- Each skill (listening, speaking, reading, writing) is treated and taught separately.
- The skills of writing and reading are not neglected, but the focus throughout remains on listening and speaking.
- Dialogue is the main feature of the audio-lingual syllabus.
- Dialogues are the chief means of presenting language items. They provide learners an opportunity to practice, mimic and memorize bits of language.
- Patterns drills are used as an important technique and essential part of this method for language teaching and learning.
- The language laboratory was introduced as an important teaching aid.
- Mother tongue was not given much importance, similar to the direct method, but it was not deemphasized so rigidly..

Techniques

Skills are taught in the following order: listening, speaking, reading, writing. Language is taught through dialogues with useful vocabulary and common structures of communication. Students are made to memorize the dialogue line by line. Learners mimic the teacher or a tape listening carefully to all features of the spoken target language. Pronunciation like that of native speaker is important in presenting the model.

Through repetition of phrases and sentences, a dialogue is learned by the first whole class, then smaller groups and finally individual learners.

Reading and writing are introduced in the next stage. The oral lesson learned in previous class is the reading material to establish a relationship between speech and writing. All reading material is introduced as orally first. Writing, in the early stages, is confined to transcriptions of the structures and dialogues learned earlier. Once learners mastered the basic structure, they were asked to write composition reports based on the oral lesson.

Emphasizing the audio

The theory emphasizes the listening-speaking-reading-writing order.

Listening is important in developing speaking proficiency and so receives particular emphasis. There are strong arguments, both physiological and psychological, for combining speaking practice with training in listening comprehension.

Speaking is effective through listening. By hearing the sounds, articulation is more accurate, with differentiation of sounds, memorization and internalization of proper auditory sounds images. Development of a feel for the new language gains interest for the language.

There has been practically no study or experiments to determine how much time should be taken between listening experience and speaking practice.

Listening comprehension is most neglected in language learning. It is generally treated as incidental to speaking rather than as a foundation for it. Texts, guides and course of study contain tests for evaluating progress in listening comprehension, but they rarely contain specific learning materials designed for the systematic development of this skill.

Here are some materials that can be adapted for improving listening comprehension:

- The dialogue should be presented as a story, in the foreign language, using simple language.
- The meaning of some of the new words and expressions that will appear in the dialogue should be explained through gestures, visual aids, synonyms, etc. The idea is to teach the content in the story.
- Different role-plays can be used to present the dialogue.
- Without stopping, the dialogue can be gone through to hear how the entire conversation sounds at normal speed.
- True and false activity can improve comprehension.
- The entire dialogue can be repeated at normal rate speed. The student can close his eyes to eliminate distractions and increase his listening concentration.
- A listening comprehension test can be given.
- Listening comprehension practice can be given using dialogues from other courses of

study or recorded materials that contain most of the language that has previously been learned by the students. The speaking

practice would begin after listening comprehension. The students will be ready to speak at this time. Speaking practice can proceed according to sequence.

- Pattern practice can be based on material taken from the dialogue.
- Mimicking can practice the dialogue itself.
- Performance of the dialogue in front of class and at the seats with the students changing roles and partners from time to time.
- Dialogue can be adapted.

Memorization of techniques suggested represent an approach that will enable student to memorize larger segments at a time and perform dialogues as a whole with more confidence. In the meantime, if teachers are willing to use their imagination and experiment with new techniques, many ways can be found to emphasize the audio in the method.

Aims

- Oral skillsare used systematically to emphasize communication. The foreign language is taught for communication, with a view to achieve development of communication skills.
- Practice is how the learning of the language takes place. Every language skill is the total of the sets of habits that the learner is expected to acquire. Practice is central to all the contemporary foreign language teaching methods. With audio-lingual method, it is emphasized even more.

- Oral learning is emphasized. Stress is put on oral skills at the early year of the foreign language course and is continued during the later years. Oral skills remain central even when, later, reading and writing are introduced. Learners are asked to speak only what they have had a chance to listen to sufficiently. They read only the material used as part of their practice. They have to write only that which they have read. Strict order of material, in terms of the four skills, is followed.

Advantages

- Listening and speaking skills are emphasized and, especially the former, rigorously developed.
- The use of visual aids is effective in vocabulary teaching.
- The method is just as functional and easy to execute for larger groups.
- Correct pronunciation and structure are emphasized and acquired.
- It is a teacher-dominated method.
- The learner is in a directed role; the learner has little control over the material studied or the method of study.

Disadvantages

- The behaviorist approach to learning is now discredited. Many scholars have proven its weakness.

- It does not pay sufficient attention to communicative competence.
- Only language form is considered while meaning is neglected.
- Equal importance is not given to all four skills.
- It is a teacher-dominated method.
- It is a mechanical method since it demands pattern practice, drilling, and memorization over functional learning and organic usage.
- The learner is in a passive role; the learner has little control over their learning.

Functional methods

The oral approach and situational language teaching

The oral approach was developed from the 1930s to the 1960s by British applied linguists such as Harold Palmer and A.S. Hornsby. They were familiar with the direct method as well as the work of 19th-century applied linguists such as Otto Jespersen and Daniel Jones but attempted to formally develop a more scientifically founded approach to teaching English than was evidenced by the direct method.

A number of large-scale investigations about language learning and the increased emphasis on reading skills in the 1920s led to the notion of "vocabulary control". It was discovered that languages have a core basic vocabulary of about 2,000 words that occur frequently in written texts, and it was assumed that mastery of these would greatly aid reading comprehension. Parallel to this was the notion of "grammar control", emphasizing the sentence patterns most-commonly found in

spoken conversation. Such patterns were incorporated into dictionaries and handbooks for students. The principal difference between the oral approach and the direct method was that methods devised under this approach would have theoretical principles guiding the selection of content, gradation of difficulty of exercises and the presentation of such material and exercises. The main proposed benefit was that such theoretically based organization of content would result in a less-confusing sequence of learning events with better contextualization of the vocabulary and grammatical patterns presented. Last but not least, all language points were to be presented in "situations". Emphasis on this point led to the approach's second name. Proponents claim that this approach leads to students' acquiring good habits to be repeated in their corresponding situations. These teaching methods stress PPP: presentation (introduction of new material in context), practice (a controlled practice phase) and production (activities designed for less-controlled practice).

Although this approach is all but unknown among language teachers today, elements of it have had long-lasting effects on language teaching, being the basis of many widely used English as a Second/Foreign Language textbooks as late as the 1980s and elements of it still appear in current texts. Many of the structural elements of this approach were called into question in the 1960s, causing modifications of this method that led to communicative language teaching. However, its emphasis on oral practice, grammar and sentence patterns still finds widespread support among language teachers and remains popular in countries where foreign language syllabuses are still heavily based on grammar.

Directed practice

Directed practice has students repeat phrases. This method is used by U.S. diplomatic courses. It can quickly provide a phrasebook-type knowledge of the language. Within these limits, the student's usage is accurate and precise. However the student's choice of what to say is not flexible.

Interactive methods

Direct method

The **direct method** of teaching, which is sometimes called the **natural method**, and is often (but not exclusively) used in teaching foreign languages, refrains from using the learners' native language and uses only the target language. It was established in England around 1900 and contrasts with the grammar–translation method and other traditional approaches, as well as with C.J. Dodson's bilingual method.

It was adopted by key international language schools such as Berlitz and Inlingua in the 1970s and many of the language departments of the Foreign Service Institute of the U.S. State Department in 2012.

In general, teaching focuses on the development of oral skills. Characteristic features of the direct method are:

- teaching concepts and vocabulary through pantomiming, real-life objects and other visual materials

- teaching grammar by using an inductive approach (i.e. having learners find out rules through the presentation of adequate linguistic forms in the target language)
- centrality of spoken language (including a native-like pronunciation)
- focus on question-answer patterns

Definition

Direct method in teaching a language is directly establishing an immediate and audio visual association between experience and expression, words and phrases, idioms and meanings, rules and performances through the teachers' body and mental skills, without any help of the learners' mother tongue.

- Direct method of teaching languages aims to build a direct way into the world of the target language making a relation between experience and language, word and idea, thought and expression rule and performance.
- This method intends for students to learn how to communicate in the target language
- This method is based on the assumption that the learner should experience the new language in the same way as he/she experienced his/her mother tongue without considering the existence of his/her mother tongue.

Essentials

- No translation
- Concepts are taught by means of objects or by natural contexts through the mental and physical skills of the teacher only.
- Oral training helps in reading and writing listening and speaking simultaneously.
- Grammar is taught indirectly through the implication of the situation creation.

Techniques

- Question/answer exercise – the teacher asks questions of any type and the student answers.
- Dictation – the teacher chooses a grade-appropriate passage and reads it aloud.
- Reading aloud – the students take turn reading sections of a passage, play or a dialogue aloud.
- Student self-correction – when a student makes a mistake the teacher offers him/her a second chance by giving a choice.
- Conversation practice – the students are given an opportunity to ask their own questions to the other students or to the teacher. This enables both a teacher-learner interaction as well as a learner-learner interaction.
- Paragraph writing – the students are asked to write a passage in their own words.

Nature

- The direct method is also known as natural method. It was developed as a reaction to the grammar translation method and is designed to take the learner into the domain of the target language in the most natural manner.
- The main objective is to impart a perfect command of a foreign language. The main focus being to make the learner think in the targeted language in the same manner as the learning of his/her mother-tongue in the most natural way.
- In traditional language-learning, pupil participation was found to be diminished as the teaching is perceived to be long and monotonous.

Merits

- Facilitates understanding of language – understanding of the target language becomes easier due to the inhibition of the linguistic interferences from the mother tongue, it establishes a direct bond between contexts, and helps in understanding directly what is heard and read
- Improves fluency of speech – fluency of speech results in easier writing, it tends to improve expression, expression in writing, and it is a quick way of learning and expanding vocabulary
- Aids reading – reading becomes easier and more pleasant, and it also promotes a habit of critical studying

- Improves the development of language sense
- Full of activities, which make it interesting and exciting
- Emphasizes the target language by helping the pupil express their thoughts and feelings directly in target language without using their mother tongue
- Develops listening, speaking, reading.
- Increased employment opportunities
- Helps in bringing words from passive vocabulary into active vocabulary
- Helps in proceeding the English language from particular to general, it bridges the gap between practice and theory
- Makes use of audio-visual aids and also facilitates reading and writing
- Facilitates alertness and participation of students

Demerits

- Ignores systematic written work and reading activities
- May not hold well in higher-level classes where the translation method may be more suitable
- Supports only limited vocabulary – it restricts the scope of vocabulary as not all words can be directly associated with their meanings
- Needs skilled teachers; e.g., less effective if teachers have a poor command of English
- Ignores reading and writing aspects of language learning
- Does not teach grammar systematically

- Time-consuming in creating real life situations
- Less suitable for slow learners, who struggle with this method

Principles

- Classroom instruction is conducted exclusively in the target language.
- Only everyday vocabulary and sentences are taught during the initial phase; grammar, reading, and writing are introduced in the intermediate phase.
- Oral communication skills are built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.
- Grammar is taught inductively.
- New teaching points are introduced orally.
- Concrete vocabulary is taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary is taught by association of ideas.
- Both speech and listening comprehension is taught.
- Correct pronunciation and grammar are emphasized.
- Students should be speaking approximately 80% of the time during the lesson.
- Students are taught from inception to ask questions as well as answer them.

Pedagogy

The key *Aspects* of this method are:

I. Introduction of new word, number, alphabet character, sentence or concept (referred to as an *Element*) :

- **SHOW**...Point to Visual Aid or Gestures (for verbs), to ensure student clearly understands what is being taught.
- **SAY**...Teacher verbally introduces *Element*, with care and enunciation.
- **TRY**...Student makes various attempts to pronounce new *Element*.
- **MOULD**...Teacher corrects student if necessary, pointing to mouth to show proper shaping of lips, tongue and relationship to teeth.
- **REPEAT**...Student repeats each *Element* 5-20 times.

NOTE: Teacher should be aware of "high frequency words and verbs" and prioritize teaching for this. (i.e. Teach key verbs such as "To Go" and "To Be" before unusual verbs like "To Trim" or "To Sail"; likewise, teach Apple and Orange before Prune and Cranberry.)

II. Syntax, the correct location of new *Element* in sentence:

- **SAY & REPEAT**...Teacher states a phrase or sentence to student; Student repeats such 5-20 times.
- **ASK & REPLY IN NEGATIVE**...Teacher uses *Element* in negative situations (e.g. "Are you the President of the United States?" or "Are you the teacher?"); Students says "No". If more advanced, may use the negative with "Not".

- **INTERROGATIVES** Teacher provides intuitive examples using 5 "w"s (Who, What, Where, Why, When) or How". Use random variations to practice.
- **PRONOUNS WITH VERBS** Using visuals (such as photos or illustrations) or gestures, Teacher covers all pronouns. Use many random variations such as "Is Ana a woman?" or "Are they from France?" to practice.
- **USE AND QUESTIONS**...Student must choose and utilize the correct *Element*, as well as posing appropriate questions as Teacher did.

III. Progress, from new *Element* to new *Element* (within same lesson):

- **A. Random Sequencing:**
- 1. After new *Element* (X) is taught and learned, go to next *Element* (Y).
- 2. After next *Element* (Y) is taught and learned, return to practice with *Element* (X).
- 3. After these two are alternated (X-Y; Y-X; Y-Y, etc), go to 3rd*Element* (Z).
- 4. Go back to 1 and 2, mix in 3, practice (X-Y-Z; Z-Y-X; Y-Y-Z, etc.) and continue building up to appropriate number of Elements (may be as many as 20 per lesson, depending on student, see B.1), practicing all possible combinations and repeating 5-20 times each combination.
- **B. Student-Led Limits:**

- 1. Observe student carefully, to know when mental "saturation" point is reached, indicating student should not be taught more Elements until another time.
- 2. At this point, stop imparting new information, and simply do Review as follows:
- **C. Review:** Keep random, arbitrary sequencing. If appropriate, use visuals, pointing quickly to each. Employ different examples of *Element* that are easy to understand, changing country/city names, people names, and words student already knows. *Keep a list of everything taught, so proper testing may be done.*
- **D. Observation and Notation:** Teacher should maintain a student list of words/phrases that are most difficult for that student. The list is called "Special Attention List"

IV. Progress, from Lesson to Lesson:

- **LESSON REVIEW** The first few minutes of each lesson are to review prior lesson(s).
- **GLOBAL REVIEW** Transition from Lesson Review to a comprehensive review, which should always include items from the Special Attention List.

V. Advanced Concepts:

- **Intermediate and Advanced Students** may skip some *Element* introduction as appropriate; become aware of student's language abilities, so they are not frustrated by too much review. If Student immediately shows recognition and knowledge, move to next Element.

- **Non-Standard Alphabets**: Teaching Student to recognize letters/characters and reading words should employ same steps as in above Aspect I, and alphabet variations may be taught using Aspect III. Writing characters and words should initially be done manually, either on paper or whiteboard.
- **Country Accents**: Any student at intermediate stages or higher should be made aware of subtle variations in pronunciation, which depend on geography within a country or from country to country.

An integral aspect of the Direct Method is varying the **setting** of teaching; instructors try different scenarios using the same *Element*. This makes the lessons more "real world," and it allows for some confusing distractions to the student and employs organic variables common in the culture and locale of language use.

Historical context

The direct method was an answer to the dissatisfaction with the older grammar translation method, which teaches students grammar and vocabulary through direct translations and thus focuses on the written language. There was an attempt to set up conditions that imitate mother tongue acquisition, which is why the beginnings of these attempts were called the *natural method*. At the turn of the 18th and 19th centuries, Sauveur and Franke proposed that language teaching should be undertaken within the target-language system, which was the first stimulus for the rise of the direct method.

The audio-lingual methodwas developed in an attempt to address some of the perceived weaknesses of the direct method.

The series method

In the 19th century, François Gouin went to Hamburg to learn German. Based on his experience as a Latin teacher, he thought the best way to do this would be memorize a German grammar book and a table of its 248 irregular verbs. However, when he went to the academy to test his new language skills, he was disappointed to find out that he could not understand anything. Trying again, he similarly memorized the 800 root words of the language as well as re-memorizing the grammar and verb forms. However, the results were the same. During this time, he had isolated himself from people around him, so he tried to learn by listening, imitating and conversing with the Germans around him, but found that his carefully constructed sentences often caused native German speakers to laugh. Again he tried a more classical approach, translation, and even memorizing the entire dictionary but had no better luck.

When he returned home, he found that his three-year-old nephew had learned to speak French. He noticed the boy was very curious and upon his first visit to a mill, he wanted to see everything and be told the name of everything. After digesting the experience silently, he then reenacted his experiences in play, talking about what he learned to whoever would listen or to himself. Gouin decided that language learning was a matter of transforming perceptions into conceptions, using language to represent what one experiences. Language is not an arbitrary set of conventions but a way of thinking and

representing the world to oneself. It is not a conditioning process, but one in which the learner actively organizes his perceptions into linguistics concepts.

The series method is a variety of the direct method in that experiences are directly connected to the target language. Gouin felt that such direct "translation" of experience into words, makes for a "living language". (p59) Gouin also noticed that children organize concepts in succession of time, relating a sequence of concepts in the same order. Gouin suggested that students learn a language more quickly and retain it better if it is presented through a chronological sequence of events. Students learn sentences based on an action such as leaving a house in the order in which such would be performed. Gouin found that if the series of sentences are shuffled, their memorization becomes nearly impossible. For this,

Gouin preceded psycholinguistic theory of the 20th century. He found that people will memorize events in a logical sequence, even if they are not presented in that order. He also discovered a second insight into memory called "incubation". Linguistic concepts take time to settle in the memory. The learner must use the new concepts frequently after presentation, either by thinking or by speaking, in order to master them. His last crucial observation was that language was learned in sentences with the verb as the most crucial component. Gouin would write a series in two columns: one with the complete sentences and the other with only the verb. With only the verb elements visible, he would have students recite the sequence of actions in full sentences of no more than twenty-five sentences. Another exercise involved having the teacher solicit a sequence

of sentences by basically ask him/her what s/he would do next. While Gouin believed that language was rule-governed, he did not believe it should be explicitly taught.

His course was organized on elements of human society and the natural world. He estimated that a language could be learned with 800 to 900 hours of instruction over a series of 4000 exercises and no homework. The idea was that each of the exercises would force the student to think about the vocabulary in terms of its relationship with the natural world. While there is evidence that the method can work extremely well, it has some serious flaws. One of which is the teaching of subjective language, where the students must make judgments about what is experienced in the world (e.g. "bad" and "good") as such do not relate easily to one single common experience. However, the real weakness is that the method is entirely based on one experience of a three-year-old. Gouin did not observe the child's earlier language development such as naming (where only nouns are learned) or the role that stories have in human language development. What distinguishes the series method from the direct method is that vocabulary must be learned by translation from the native language, at least in the beginning.

Communicative language teaching

Communicative language teaching (**CLT**), or the **communicative approach**, is an approach to language teaching that emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of study.

Learners in environments using CLT techniques learn and practice the target language by interactions with one another and the instructor, the study of "authentic texts" (those written in the target language for purposes other than language learning), and the use of the language both in class and outside of class.

Learners converse about personal experiences with partners, and instructors teach topics outside of the realm of traditional grammar to promote language skills in all types of situations. That method also claims to encourage learners to incorporate their personal experiences into their language learning environment and to focus on the learning experience, in addition to the learning of the target language.

According to CLT, the goal of language education is the ability to communicate in the target language. This is in contrast to previous views in which grammatical competencewas commonly given top priority.

CLT also focuses on the teacher being a facilitator, rather than an instructor. Furthermore, the approach is a non-methodical system that does not use a textbook series to teach the target language but works on developing sound oral and verbal skills prior to reading and writing.

Background

Societal influences

Language teaching was originally considered a cognitive matter that mainly involved memorization. It was later thought

instead to be socio-cognitive: language can be learned through the process of social interaction. Today, however, the dominant technique in teaching any language is communicative language teaching (CLT).

It was Noam Chomsky's theories in the 1960s, focusing on competence and performance in language learning, that gave rise to communicative language teaching, but the conceptual basis for CLT was laid in the 1970s by the linguists Michael Halliday, who studied how language functions are expressed through grammar, and Dell Hymes, who introduced the idea of a wider communicative competence instead of Chomsky's narrower linguistic competence. The rise of CLT in the 1970s and the early 1980s was partly in response to the lack of success with traditional language teaching methods and partly by the increase in demand for language learning. In Europe, the advent of the European Common Market, an economic predecessor to the European Union, led to migration in Europe and an increased number of people who needed to learn a foreign language for work or personal reasons. Meanwhile, more children were given the opportunity to learn foreign languages in school, as the number of secondary schools offering languages rose worldwide as part of a general trend of curriculum-broadening and modernization, with foreign-language study no longer confined to the elite academies. In Britain, the introduction of comprehensive schools, which offered foreign-language study to all children, rather than to the select few of the elite grammar schools, greatly increased the demand for language learning.

The increased demand included many learners who struggled with traditional methods such as grammar translation, which

involves the direct translation of sentence after sentence as a way to learn language. Those methods assumed that students aimed to master the target language and were willing to study for years before expecting to use the language in real life. However, those assumptions were challenged by adult learners, who were busy with work, and by schoolchildren who were less academically gifted and so could not devote years to learning before they could use the language. Educators realized that to motivate those students an approach with a more immediate reward was necessary, and they began to use CLT, an approach that emphasizes communicative ability and yielded better results.

Additionally, the trend of progressivism in education provided further pressure for educators to change their methods. Progressivism holds that active learning is more effective than passive learning. As that idea gained traction, in schools there was a general shift towards using techniques where students were more actively involved, such as group work. Foreign-language education was no exception to thar trend, and teachers sought to find new methods, such as CLT, that could better embody the shift in thinking.

Academic influences

The development of communicative language teaching was bolstered by new academic ideas. Before the growth of communicative language teaching, the primary method of language teaching was situational language teaching, a method that was much more clinical in nature and relied less on direct communication. In Britain, applied linguists began to doubt the efficacy of situational language teaching, partly in

response to Chomsky's insights into the nature of language. Chomsky had shown that the structural theories of language then prevalent could not explain the variety that is found in real communication. In addition, applied linguists like Christopher Candlin and Henry Widdowson observed that the current model of language learning was ineffective in classrooms. They saw a need for students to develop communicative skill and functional competence in addition to mastering language structures.

In 1966, the linguist and anthropologist Dell Hymes developed the concept of communicative competence, which redefined what it meant to "know" a language. In addition to speakers having mastery over the structural elements of language, they must also be able to use those structural elements appropriately in a variety of speech domains. That can be neatly summed up by Hymes's statement: "There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless." The idea of communicative competence stemmed from Chomsky's concept of the linguistic competence of an ideal native speaker. Hymes did not make a concrete formulation of communicative competence, but subsequent authors, notably Michael Canale, have tied the concept to language teaching. Canale and Swain (1980) defined communicative competence in terms of three components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Canale (1983) refined the model by adding discourse competence, which contains the concepts of cohesion and coherence.

An influential development in the history of communicative language teaching was the work of the Council of Europe in creating new language syllabi. When communicative language

teaching had effectively replaced situational language teaching as the standard by leading linguists, the Council of Europe made an effort to once again bolster the growth of the new method, which led to the Council of Europe creating a new language syllabus. Education was a high priority for the Council of Europe, which set out to provide a syllabus that would meet the needs of European immigrants. Among the studies that it used in designing the course was one by a British linguist, D. A. Wilkins, that defined language using "notions" and "functions," rather than more traditional categories of grammar and vocabulary. The new syllabus reinforced the idea that language could not be adequately explained by grammar and syntax but instead relied on real interaction.

In the mid-1990s, the Dogme 95 manifesto influenced language teaching through the Dogme language teaching movement. It proposed that published materials stifle the communicative approach.

As such, the aim of the Dogme approach to language teaching is to focus on real conversations about practical subjects in which communication is the engine of learning. The idea behind the Dogme approach is that communication can lead to explanation, which leads to further learning. That approach is the antithesis of situational language teaching, which emphasizes learning by text and prioritizes grammar over communication.

A survey of communicative competence by Bachman (1990) divides competency into the broad headings of "organizational competence," which includes both grammatical and discourse

(or textual) competence, and "pragmatic competence," which includes both sociolinguistic and "illocutionary" competence. Strategic competence is associated with the interlocutors' ability in using communication strategies.

Classroom activities

CLT teachers choose classroom activities based on what they believe is going to be most effective for students developing communicative abilities in the target language (TL). Oral activities are popular among CLT teachers, as opposed to grammar drills or reading and writing activities, because they include active conversation and creative, unpredicted responses from students. Activities vary based on the level of language class they are being used in.

They promote collaboration, fluency, and comfort in the TL. The six activities listed and explained below are commonly used in CLT classrooms.

Role-play

Role-play is an oral activity usually done in pairs, whose main goal is to develop students' communicative abilities in a certain setting.

Example:

- The instructor sets the scene: where is the conversation taking place? (E.g., in a café, in a park, etc.)

- The instructor defines the goal of the students' conversation. (E.g., the speaker is asking for directions, the speaker is ordering coffee, the speaker is talking about a movie they recently saw, etc.)
- The students converse in pairs for a designated amount of time.

This activity gives students the chance to improve their communication skills in the TL in a low-pressure situation. Most students are more comfortable speaking in pairs rather than in front of the entire class.

Instructors need to be aware of the differences between a conversation and an utterance. Students may use the same utterances repeatedly when doing this activity and not actually have a creative conversation. If instructors do not regulate what kinds of conversations students are having, then the students might not be truly improving their communication skills.

Interviews

An interview is an oral activity done in pairs, whose main goal is to develop students' interpersonal skills in the TL.

Example:

- The instructor gives each student the same set of questions to ask a partner.
- Students take turns asking and answering the questions in pairs.

This activity, since it is highly structured, allows for the instructor to more closely monitor students' responses. It can zone in on one specific aspect of grammar or vocabulary, while still being a primarily communicative activity and giving the students communicative benefits.

This is an activity that should be used primarily in the lower levels of language classes, because it will be most beneficial to lower-level speakers. Higher-level speakers should be having unpredictable conversations in the TL, where neither the questions nor the answers are scripted or expected. If this activity were used with higher-level speakers it wouldn't have many benefits.

Group work

Group work is a collaborative activity whose purpose is to foster communication in the TL, in a larger group setting.

Example:

- Students are assigned a group of no more than six people.
- Students are assigned a specific role within the group. (E.g., member A, member B, etc.)
- The instructor gives each group the same task to complete.
- Each member of the group takes a designated amount of time to work on the part of the task to which they are assigned.
- The members of the group discuss the information they have found, with each other and put it all together to complete the task.

Students can feel overwhelmed in language classes, but this activity can take away from that feeling. Students are asked to focus on one piece of information only, which increases their comprehension of that information. Better comprehension leads to better communication with the rest of the group, which improves students' communicative abilities in the TL.

Instructors should be sure to monitor that each student is contributing equally to the group effort. It takes a good instructor to design the activity well, so that students will contribute equally, and benefit equally from the activity.

Information gap

Information gap is a collaborative activity, whose purpose is for students to effectively obtain information that was previously unknown to them, in the TL.

Example:

- The class is paired up. One partner in each pair is Partner A, and the other is Partner B.
- All the students that are Partner A are given a sheet of paper with a time-table on it. The time-table is filled in half-way, but some of the boxes are empty.
- All the students that are Partner B are given a sheet of paper with a time-table on it. The boxes that are empty on Partner A's time-table are filled in on Partner B's. There are also empty boxes on Partner B's time-table, but they are filled in on Partner A's.
- The partners must work together to ask about and supply each other with the information they are both missing, to complete each other's time-tables.

Completing information gap activities improves students' abilities to communicate about unknown information in the TL. These abilities are directly applicable to many real-world conversations, where the goal is to find out some new piece of information, or simply to exchange information.

Instructors should not overlook the fact that their students need to be prepared to communicate effectively for this activity. They need to know certain vocabulary words, certain structures of grammar, etc. If the students have not been well prepared for the task at hand, then they will not communicate effectively.

Opinion sharing

Opinion sharing is a content-based activity, whose purpose is to engage students' conversational skills, while talking about something they care about.

Example:

- The instructor introduces a topic and asks students to contemplate their opinions about it. (E.g., dating, school dress codes, global warming)
- The students talk in pairs or small groups, debating their opinions on the topic.

Opinion sharing is a great way to get more introverted students to open up and share their opinions. If a student has a strong opinion about a certain topic, then they will speak up and share.

Respect is key with this activity. If a student does not feel like their opinion is respected by the instructor or their peers, then they will not feel comfortable sharing, and they will not receive the communicative benefits of this activity.

Scavenger hunt

A scavenger hunt is a mingling activity that promotes open interaction between students.

Example:

- The instructor gives students a sheet with instructions on it. (e.g. Find someone who has a birthday in the same month as yours.)
- Students go around the classroom asking and answering questions about each other.
- The students wish to find all of the answers they need to complete the scavenger hunt.

In doing this activity, students have the opportunity to speak with a number of classmates, while still being in a low-pressure situation, and talking to only one person at a time. After learning more about each other, and getting to share about themselves, students will feel more comfortable talking and sharing during other communicative activities.

Since this activity is not as structured as some of the others, it is important for instructors to add structure. If certain vocabulary should be used in students' conversations, or a certain grammar is necessary to complete the activity, then instructors should incorporate that into the scavenger hunt.

Criticism

Although CLT has been extremely influential in the field of language teaching, it is not universally accepted and has been subject to significant critique.

In his critique of CLT, Michael Swan addresses both the theoretical and practical problems with CLT. He mentions that CLT is not an altogether cohesive subject but one in which theoretical understandings (by linguists) and practical understandings (by language teachers) differ greatly. Criticism of the theory of CLT includes that it makes broad claims regarding the usefulness of CLT while citing little data, it uses a large amount of confusing vocabulary, and it assumes knowledge that is predominately not language-specific (such as the ability to make educated guesses) to be language-pecific. Swan suggests that those theoretical issues to lead to confusion in the application of CLT techniques.

Where confusion in the application of CLT techniques is readily apparent is in classroom settings. Swan suggests that CLT techniques often suggest prioritizing the "function" of a language (what one can do with the language knowledge one has) over the "structure" of a language (the grammatical systems of the language). That priority can leave learners with serious gaps in their knowledge of the formal aspects of their target language. Swan also suggests that in CLT techniques, the languages that a student might already know are not valued or employed in instructional techniques.

Further critique of CLT techniques in classroom teaching can be attributed to Elaine Ridge. One of her criticisms of CLT is

that it falsely implies that there is a general consensus regarding the definition of "communicative competence," which CLT claims to facilitate. Because there is not such agreement, students may be seen to be in possession of "communicative competence" without being able to make full or even adequate use of the language. That individuals are proficient in a language does not necessarily entail that they can make full use of that language, which can limit an individual's potential with that language, especially if that language is an endangered language. That criticism largely has to do with the fact that CLT is often highly praised and is popular though it may not necessarily be the best method of language teaching.

Ridge also notes that CLT has nonspecific requirements of its teachers, as there is no completely standard definition of what CLT is, which is especially true for the teaching of grammar, the formal rules governing the standardized version of the language in question. Some critics of CLT suggest that the method does not put enough emphasis on the teaching of grammar and instead allows students to produce utterances, despite being grammatically incorrect, as long as the interlocutor can get some meaning from them.

Stephen Bax's critique of CLT has to do with the context of its implementation. Bax asserts that many researchers associate the use of CLT techniques with modernity and so the lack of CLT techniques as a lack of modernism. That way, those researchers consider teachers or school systems that fail to use CLT techniques as outdated and suggest that their students learn the target language "in spite of" the absence of CLT techniques, as if CLT were the only way to learn a

language, and everyone who fails to implement its techniques is ignorant and cannot teach the target language.

Language immersion

Language immersion, or simply **immersion**, is a technique used in bilingual language education in which two languages are used for instruction in a variety of topics, including math, science, or social studies.

The languages used for instruction are referred to as the L1 and the L2 for each student, with L1 being the student's native language and L2 being the second language to be acquired through immersion programs and techniques. There are different types of language immersion that depend on the age of the students, the classtime spent in L2, the subjects that are taught, and the level of participation by the speakers of L1.

Although programs differ by country and context, most language immersion programs have the overall goal of promoting bilingualism between the two different sets of language-speakers. In many cases, biculturalism is also a goal for speakers of the majority language (the language spoken by the majority of the surrounding population) and the minority language (the language that is not the majority language). Research has shown that such forms of bilingual education provide students with overall greater language comprehension and production of the L2 in a native-like manner, especially greater exposure to other cultures and the preservation of languages, particularly heritage languages.

Background

Bilingual education has taken on a variety of different approaches outside of the traditional *sink-or-swim* model of full submersion in an L2 without assistance in the L1. According to the Center for Applied Linguistics, in 1971, there were only three immersion programs within the United States. As of 2011, there were 448 language immersion schools in the U.S., with the three main immersion languages of instruction being Spanish (45%), French (22%), and Mandarin (13%).

The first French-language immersion program in Canada, with the target language being taught as an instructional language, started in Quebec in 1965. Since the majority language in Quebec is French, English-speaking parents wanted to ensure that their children could achieve a high level of French as well as English in Quebec. Since then, French immersion has spread across the country and has led to the situation of French immersion becoming the most common form of language immersion in Canada so far. According to the survey by CAL (the Center for Applied Linguistics) in 2011, there are over 528 immersion schools in the US. Besides, language immersion programs have spread to Australia, Mainland China, Saudi Arabia, Japan and Hong Kong, which altogether offer more than 20 languages. The survey by CAL in 2011 showed that Spanish is the most common immersion language in language immersion programs. There are over 239 Spanish-language immersion programs in the US because of immigration from Spanish-speaking countries. The other two common immersion language programs in the US are French and Mandarin, which have 114 and 71 language immersion programs, respectively.

Types of learners

Types of language immersion can be characterized by the total time students spend in the program and also by the students' age.

Types that are characterized by learning time:

- Total immersion: In total immersion, the language of instruction is the students' L2, meaning that students spent 100% of the school day in their L2. However, the problem with this type of language immersion is that students find it difficult to understand more abstract and complex concepts if they are taught only via their L2.
- Partial immersion: In partial immersion programs, classtimeis shared between the students' L1 and L2. In most cases, it is an even split of time between the languages. This type of language immersion is preferred by students.
- Two-way immersion: This type, which is also called bilingual immersion, is a way to integrate both students of the minority language and students of the majority language into the same classroom with the goal of academic excellence and bilingual proficiency for both student groups. In this type of language immersion, the instructional languages can be two languages, but only one language is used at a time. Students learn languages by the interaction with their peers and teachers. This method of language immersion is popular language in America.

Types that are characterized by age:

- Early immersion: Students start learning their second language at the age of 5 or 6.
- Middle immersion: Students start learning their second language at the age of around 9 or 10.
- Late immersion: Students start learning their second language after the age of 11.

The stages of immersion can also be divided into:

- Early total immersion: education in L2 at 90-100%, usually beginning in kindergarten or on first grade.
- Early partial immersion: education in L2 at 50%, usually beginning in kindergarten or on first grade.
- Middle (or delayed) total immersion: education in L2 at 90%, usually beginning on fourth grade.
- Middle (or delayed) partial immersion: education in L2 at 50%, usually beginning on fourth grade.
- Late total immersion: education in L2 at 80%, usually beginning on sixth or seventh grade.
- Late partial immersion: education in L2 at 50%, usually beginning on sixth or seventh grade.

Types of instruction

- In *foreign language experience or exploratory* (FLEX) programs, students are exposed to a different language(s) and culture(s) in the classroom. A small percentage of class time is spent sampling one or more languages and/or learning about language and so proficiency in the target language is not the

primary goal. The goals of the program are to develop careful listening skills, cultural and linguistic awareness, and interest in foreign languages for future language study, as well as to learn basic words and phrases in one or more foreign languages.

- In *foreign language in the elementary schools* (FLES) programs, students focus on listening, reading, writing and speaking in the target language. In contrast to FLEX programs, proficiency in the target language is the primary goal, but a secondary goal is to expose students to the foreign language's culture.
- In *submersion* programs, bilingual students generally receive all of their instruction in their L2. Such programs are often referred to *sink-or-swim* programs because there is little support for the students' L1.
- In *two-way immersion* programs, also called dual- or bilingual immersion, the student population consists of speakers of two or more languages. Two-way immersion programs in the US promote L1 speakers of a language other than English to maintain that language as well as to teach English as a second language (ESL). In addition, such programs allow L1 speakers of English to be immersed in a "foreign language acquisition environment."
- In *early-exit* programs, bilingual students transition from a bilingual program to a mainstream classroom at an early age (around 7 or 8). Such programs are supported by the belief that bilingual children will benefit the most from transitioning into a mainstream classroom as early as possible.
- In *late-exit* programs, bilingual students transition from a bilingual program to a mainstream classroom

at a later age (around 10 or 11). Such programs are supported by the belief that bilingual children will do better academically from being supported in both languages.

Location

People may also relocate temporarily to receive language immersion, which occurs when they move to a place within their native country or abroad that their native language is not the majority language of that community. For example, Canadian anglophones go to Quebec (see Explore and Katimavik), and Irish anglophones go to the Gaeltacht. Often, that involves a homestay with a family that speaks only the target language. Children whose parents emigrate to a new country also find themselves in an immersion environment with respect to their new language. Another method is to create a temporary environment in which the target language predominates, as in linguistic summer camps like the "English villages" in South Korea and parts of Europe.

Study abroad can also provide a strong immersion environment to increase language skills. However, many factors may affect immersion during study abroad, including the amount of foreign-language contact during the program. To impact competence in the target language positively, Celeste Kinginger notes, research about language learning during study abroad suggests "a need for language learners' broader engagement in local communicative practices, for mindfulness of their situation as peripheral participants, and for more nuanced awareness of language itself."

Implementation

The task of organizing and creating such a program can be daunting and problematic, with everything from planning to district budget posing issues. One method of implementation proposed by the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition is a phase-in method, which starts with the lowest year participating in the program as the only year and adds a new grade of students into the program each year, working up towards high school. This slow incorporation of an immersion program is useful for schools with limited funding and those who are skeptical about the benefits of such a program because it allows for yearly evaluation and, if it were to fail from the beginning, the impact of the loss is less significant.

The method of implementation is crucial to the success of the program, as the RAND Institute has concluded that the final result of these programs is positive, but only so long as implemented correctly, meaning consistency and strict adherence to the curriculum in the classroom.

Stages of language acquisition

- Pre-production: also called "the silent period," this period lasts 10 hours to 6 months in language immersion environment. Students may have about 500 receptive words in their mind but cannot speak the language yet. During this mimicking period, students are likely to repeat everything that they heard in class and can respond to pictures and yes-or-no questions by using their gestures like nodding

or shaking their head. The class must integrate pictures and physical response methods.

- Early Production, in which students can master about 1000 receptive and active words, lasts six months after the pre-production stage. Students can answer simple questions, like yes-or-no questions. They also can repeat and use two-word phrases. They might not use patterns correctly, but they can discover the problem. This is a self-discovery period.
- Speech Emergence, in which students will have about 3000 active words, lasts one year after the early production stage. Students can answer simple questions and use three or more words in simple phrase and patterns. Students can understand the general idea of a story with pictures and may not be able to use the patterns correctly, but they can correct some of them by themselves. This is also called a self-correcting period. Teachers focus on conversations in class during this stage.
- Intermediate Fluency, in which students have nearly 6000 words in their active vocabulary. This stage last one year after speech emergence. Students start to use complex sentences in their speaking and writing and also know how to respond to other people's questions. It is not hard for them to use the target language to learn math and science. Students are beginning to use more complex sentences when they speak and write, and they are willing to express opinions and share their thoughts. They ask questions to clarify what they are learning in class. More culture and literature is taught in this stage.

- Advanced Fluency (also called Continued Language Development), which requires students to know most content area vocabulary, lasts from 4 to 10 years. It is an achievement of cognitive academic language proficiency in the target language. Students' second-language ability has arrived to become near the native level.

Outcomes

Studies have shown that students who study a foreign language in school, especially those who start in elementary school, tend to receive higher standardized test scores than students who have not studied a foreign language in school. According to additional research, learning another language can also help students do better in math, focusing, and remembering. Students who study foreign languages also tend to have increased mental capabilities, such as creativity and higher-order thinking skills (see cognitive advantages of bilingualism) and have advantages in the workplace, such as higher salary and a wider range of opportunities, since employers are increasingly seeking workers with knowledge of different languages and cultures. Bilingual immersion programs are intended to foster proficiency or fluency in multiple languages and therefore maximize these benefits. Even if fluency in the desired language is not fully attained, bilingual immersion programs provide a strong foundation for fluency later in life and help students gain appreciation of languages and cultures other than their own.

There are no long-term adverse effects of bilingual education on the learning of the majority language, regardless of whether

the students' first language (L1) is a majority or a minority language or of the organization of the educational program. Several observed outcomes of bilingual education are the transfer of academic and conceptual knowledge across both languages, greater success in programs that emphasize biliteracy as well as bilingualism, and better developed second-language (L2) literary skills for minority students than if they received a monolingual education in the majority language.

Language immersion programs with the goal of fostering bilingualism, Canada's French-English bilingual immersion program being one of the first, initially reported that students receive standardized test scores that are slightly below average. That was true in Canada's program, but by Grade 5, there was no difference between their scores and the scores of students who were instructed only in English. The English spelling abilities soon matched those of the English-only students. Ultimately, students did not lose any proficiency in English and were able to develop native-like proficiency in French reading and comprehension but they did not quite reach native-like proficiency in spoken and written French. However, the immersion program is seen as providing a strong foundation for oral French fluency later in life, and other similar programs that might not fully reach their projected goals may also be seen in the same light.

Programs with the goal of preserving heritage languages, such as Hawaii's language immersion program, have also reported initial outcomes of below-average test scores on standardized tests. However, the low test scores may not have been caused by purely language-related factors. For example, there was initially a lack of curriculum material written in Hawaiian, and

many of the teachers were inexperienced or unaccustomed to teaching in Hawaiian. Despite the initial drawbacks, the Hawaiian program was overall successful in preserving Hawaiian as a heritage language, with students in the program being able to speak Hawaiian fluently while they learned reading, writing, and math, which were taught in Hawaiian.

Partial immersion programs do not have the initial lag in achievement of the programs of Canada and Hawaii but are less effective than full immersion programs, and students generally do not achieve native-like L2 proficiency.

Issues

- The design of exposure time for each language

The first issue is the allocation of time given to each language. Educators have thought that more exposure to the students' L2 will lead to greater L2 proficiency, but it is difficult for students to learn abstract and complex concepts only by L2. Different types of language immersion schools allocate different time to each language, but there is still no evidence to prove that any particular way is best.

- The challenges of curriculum, instruction, and instructors

In the United States, state and local government only provide curriculum for teaching students in only one language. There is no standard curriculum for language-immersion schools.

Besides, the states do not provide assistance in how to promote biliteracy. Bilingual teaching has been too little researched. The report of the Council of the Great City Schools in 2013 has shown that half of the city schools lack professional bilingual teaching instructors.

- Bilingual proficiency

There are challenges to developing high proficiency in two languages or balance in bilingual skills, especially for early immersion students. Children complete the development of their first language by the age 7, and L1 and L2 affect each other during language development. High levels of bilingual proficiency are hard to achieve.

Students with more exposure are better. For second-language immersion schools, immersion too early in a second language leads students to fail to be proficient in their first language.

By country

Canada

As of 2009, about 300,000 Canadian students (roughly 6% of the school population) were enrolled in immersion programs. In early immersion, L1 English-speakers are immersed in French in their education for 2 to 3 years prior to formal English education. This early exposure prepares Canadian L1 English speakers for the 4th grade, when they begin to be instructed in English 50% of the time and French the other 50%.

United States

In the United States and since the 1980s, dual immersion programs have grown for a number of reasons: competition in a global economy, a growing population of second-language learners, and the successes of previous programs. Language immersion classes can now be found throughout the US, in urban and suburban areas, in dual-immersion and single-language immersion, and in an array of languages. As of May 2005, there were 317 dual immersion programs in US elementary schools, providing instruction in 10 languages, and 96% of those programs were in Spanish.

Hawaii

The 1970s marked the beginning of bilingual education programs in Hawaii. The Hawaiian Language Program was geared to promote cultural integrity by emphasizing native-language proficiency through heritage language bilingual immersion instruction. By 1995, there were 756 students enrolled in the Hawaiian Language Immersion Program from K to 8. The program was taught strictly in Hawaiian until Grades 5 and 6, when English was introduced as the language of instruction for one hour per day.

The Hawaiian Language immersion Program is still in effect today for K-12. With an emphasis on language revival, Hawaiian is the main medium of instruction until Grade 5, when English is introduced but does not usurp Hawaiian as the main medium of instruction.

Mexico

A study by Hamel (1995) highlights a school in Michoacan, Mexico, which focuses on two bilingual elementary schools in which teachers built a curriculum that taught all subjects, including literature and math, in the children's L1: P'urhepecha. Years after the curriculum was implemented in 1995, researchers conducted a study comparing L1 P'urhepecha students with L1 Spanish students. Results found that students who had acquired L1 P'urhepecha literacy performed better in both languages (P'urhepecha and Spanish) than students who were L1 Spanish literate.

New Zealand

New Zealand shows another instance of heritage bilingual immersion programs. Established in 1982, full Māori-language immersion education strictly forbids the use of English in classroom instruction even though English is typically the students' L1. That has created challenges for educators because of the lack of tools and underdeveloped bilingual teaching strategy for Māori.

Malawi and Zambia

A study by Williams (1996) looked at the effects bilingual education had on two different communities in Malawi and Zambia. In Malawi, Chichewa is the main language of instruction, and English is taught as a separate course. In Zambia, English is the main language of instruction, and the local language, Nyanja, is taught as a separate course. Williams's study took children from six schools in each country

in Grade 5. He administered two tests: an English-language reading test, and a mother-tongue reading test. One result showed that there was no significant difference in the English reading ability between the Zambian and Malawian school children. However, there were significant differences in the proficiency of mother tongue reading ability. The results of the study showed that the Malawian students did better in their mother tongue, Chichewa, than Zambian children did in their mother tongue, Nyanja.