Language Teaching Methods and Approaches

Oscar Duncan

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Chapter 1

Audio-lingual and Bilingual 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 given only “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 usedin 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 skills are 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.

Bilingual method

The **bilingual method** of foreign language teaching was developed by C.J. Dodson (1967) as a counterpart of the audiovisual method. In both methods the preferred basic texts are dialogues accompanied by a picture strip. The bilingual method, however, advocates two revolutionary principles based on the results of scientifically controlled experiments in primary and secondary schools. In contrast to the audiovisual method and the direct method, the printed text is made available from the very beginning and presented simultaneously with the spoken sentence to allow learners to see the shape of individual words.

Also, from the outset meanings are conveyed bilingually as utterance equivalents in the manner of the sandwich technique, thus avoiding meaningless and hence tedious parroting of the learning input.

The pictures are seen primarily as an aid to recall and practice of the related dialogue sentences rather than as conveyors of meaning. The mother tongue is again used in the oral manipulation of grammatical structures, i.e. in bilingual pattern drills.

Structure

The architecture of the bilingual method is best understood as a traditional three-phase structure of presentation – practice – production. A lesson cycle starts out with the reproduction of a dialogue, moves on to the oral variation and recombination of the dialogue sentences, and ends up with an extended application stage reserved for message-oriented communication. The method is listed in Eppert's *Lexikon* (1973: 171) under the headword *Konversation*, where its eight teaching steps are described "The eight steps lead from imitation to free conversation," i.e. unlike the grammar-translation method, but like the direct method and the audio-lingual method it focuses on the development of oral skills.

Classroom research

Dodson's experimental data – several modes of presenting dialogues were tested – have been confirmed by subsequent research, for example by a school-year long experiment of teaching French to Dutch learners (Meijer 1974), which compared the bilingual method with an audiovisual approach. A laboratory study with Japanese learners of English also confirmed Dodson's results (Ishii et al. 1979). Similar results were reported by Sastri (1970) and Walatara (1973). Feasibility studies were undertaken by Kaczmarski (1979) in Poland, by Wolfgang Butzkamm (1980) for the teaching of English to German speakers in secondary schools, by Kasjan (1995) for the teaching of German to Japanese learners at university level, and by Moorfield (2008) for the teaching of the Maori language.

History

Although Dodson's work inspired researchers from various countries, the bilingual method has been neglected by the mainstream, as evidenced in the absence of any mother tongue role in recognised overviews of L2 approaches and methods such as Richards & Rodgers (1987). However, Butzkamm & Caldwell (2009) have taken up Dodson's seminal ideas and called for a paradigm shift in foreign language teaching. This call was repeated by Hall & Cook in their state-of-the-art article (2012: 299): "The way is open for a major paradigm shift in language teaching and learning"

Principles of The Bilingual Method

- The understanding of words and sentences in foreign languages can be made easier by the use of mother tongue.
- There is no need to create artificial situations for explaining the meaning of words and sentences of the target language.
- Bilingual method is the combination of the Direct method and the Grammar translation method.

Advantages of The Bilingual Method

Students become functional bilinguals

When the students aim to become fully bilingual in terms of language learning, this method is considered to be the appropriate one. When the students begin with the language

learning process, their success in the learning depends upon the competence and confidence of their language teacher. As she moves from L1 to L2, the students imitate her and learn.

Never miss out on a Lesson

According to this method acquisition of the mother tongue is very important for language learning process. When the mother tongue is firmly established in the minds of the students by the age of 7 or 8, it becomes easy to learn difficult words and grammar. Thus this method helps to save time by not creating artificial situations unnecessarily to explain or convey meanings in English.

Give importance to other languages

In this method, importance is given to the mother tongue and its culture. Thus it does not lead to substitution of one means of communication for another.

Accessibility

This method of language learning ensures accessibility. When students start learning a language using this method, they find a level of familiarity. Through the use of the mother tongue, the teacher ensures that the learning is happening .

Discipline

Many new English language teachers face the difficulty to handle the students and make them feel as comfortable as with the local teacher. Learning the local language is considered as the sure way to improve behavior management skills. It also

helps in delivering the instructions related to lesson activities. If the concepts are explained in students' L1, then the new learners to English language will be able to grasp more knowledge about grammar and vocabulary. Thus it helps the students to be more efficient and faster.

It's the teacher's tool

In the bilingual method, as the native language is used in the classroom, it is important to note that it's predominantly the teacher who makes use of L1. The students will not be using their native tongue much in the classroom.

Builds strong foundation for reading, right from the start

The bilingual method uses written form of the language which allows students learn the shapes of the words as they repeat the words orally.

Disadvantages of The Bilingual Method

- If the teacher fails to carry out this method properly, then it can degenerate into pure translation method.
- This method can confuse the learner while contrasting the features of two languages.
- The teacher must be fluent in both the languages in order to make the concepts clear.
- Students may develop dependency on their mother tongue.
- Slows down learning process and takes longer time to learn and be proficient in the target language.

Chapter 2

CLT, CLL and Comprehension Approach

CLT

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 competence was 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.

CLL

Community language learning (**CLL**) is a language-teaching approach focused on group-interest learning.

It is based on the *counselling-approach* in which the teacher acts as a counselor and a paraphraser, while the learner is seen as a client and collaborator.

Background

The CLL approach was developed by Charles Arthur Curran, a Jesuit priest, professor of psychology at Loyola University Chicago, and counseling specialist.

According to Curran, a counselor helps a client understand his or her own problems better by 'capturing the essence of the

clients concern ...[and] relating [the client's] affect to cognition...'; in effect, understanding the client and responding in a detached yet considerate manner.

Methods

Natural approach

Online communities

These types of communities have recently arisen with the explosion of educational resources for language learning on the Web.

Language MOOC

Language MOOCs (**Language Massive Open Online Courses**, or **LMOOCs**) are web-based online courses freely accessible for a limited period of time, created for those interested in developing their skills in a foreign language. As Sokolik (2014) states, enrolment is large, free and not restricted to students by age or geographic location. They have to follow the format of a course, i.e., include a syllabus and schedule and offer the guidance of one or several instructors. The MOOCs are not so new, since courses with such characteristics had been available online for quite a lot of time before Dave Cormier coined the term 'MOOC' in 2008. Furthermore, MOOCs are generally regarded as the natural evolution of OERs (open educational resources), which are freely accessible materials used in Education for teaching, learning and assessment.

Although there seem to be very few examples of LMOOCs offered by MOOC providers, authors, such as Martín-Monje & Barcena (2014), argue that these open online courses can be effectively designed to facilitate the development of communicative language competences in potentially massive and highly heterogeneous groups, whose main shared interest is to learn a foreign language. Scholarly research is equally incipient in the field, with only two monographs published to date on the topic. These volumes, considered milestones of the emerging field, are based upon work taken from the well-established discipline of CALL (computer-assisted language learning), which has long proven the suitability of TELL (technology-enhanced language learning).

History and emergence

The first LMOOCs started to appear in October 2012. Example courses include the three LMOOCs begun by the Spanish National Distance University (UNED). In relation to the English language, we have the LMOOC "Learn the first thousand words" (which had 45,102 students), and "Professional English" (with 33,588 students) and related to the German language, UNED offers the LMOOC "German for Spanish speakers" (with 22,438 students). The British Open University also started their Open Translation MOOC around the same time (they do not use the term "LMOOC" since it did not exist at that time). The course, "SpanishMOOC", integrated social media tools such as Skype and Google Hangouts in order to enhance synchronous oral interaction.

Another early example was Todd Bryant's joint launch of "English MOOC: Open Course for Spanish Speakers learning

English" and "MOOC de Español: Curso abierto para hablantes de inglés que deseen mejorar su español" using his exchange website The Mixxer to connect language learners with native speakers for mutual exchanges. There have been some attempts to compile lists of LMOOC providers and available courses, but it seems like an impossible task to keep abreast of the constant changes in the MOOC panorama. Furthermore, LMOOCs seem to have received recently attention from governmental institutions and there is one European project that specifically focuses on LMOOCs, namely the LangMOOC project, as well as others, such as the ECO project, which include LMOOCs in their catalogue.

Architectonics

In order to be effective, Read (2015) argues that LMOOCs require a set of tools and technologies that are appropriate for students to train the relevant receptive and productive language skills as they would in real world communicative situations. The possibilities for such technological mediation depend on the type of LMOOC proposed. There are several types of courses identified in the literature, but the two most common ones are cMOOCs and xMOOCs. The former, inspired by the notions of open education (techniques and resources), do not run on a single platform (but are distributed across many), promote immersion and interaction. The latter usually represent a continuation of other types of e-Learning courses that institutions have undertaken and, therefore, have a similar course structure, following standard face-to-face educational models.

For LMOOCs based upon an xMOOC platform, the resources and tools available for students typically include: textual materials in the form of Web pages, structured PDF files or URLs to content outside the platform, audiovisual recordings (often developed and stored on social video sites such as YouTube or Vimeo), tasks and exercises such as closed multiple-choice tests that are the basic evaluation mechanism, open answers, for example, based upon free writing, which can be compared to model answers or evaluated using peer-to-peer correction and, lastly, forums that represent a key component for learners to interact and practice mediated communication in the target language, providing a valuable mechanism for students to help each other and answers their peers' questions. For LMOOCs based upon the cMOOC model, a range of online Web 2.0 tools can be used so as to enable students to undertake the remixing, repurpose and co-create content and interaction, promoting the community nature of collaborative and social learning. xMOOC activities are typically highly structured and may not, as such, provide students with the communicative opportunity required to use what has just been seen and/or heard in an open and flexible way, including fine-grained feedback of different and complementary types. However, conversely, the often unstructured and constantly changing nature of cMOOCs together with, as Brennan (2014) notes, the cognitive load related to the sheer volume of information, number of tweets, posts, etc., available; the varying degrees of difficulty of activities (with little if any guidance available); and the need to use different tools and platforms, etc., can offer learners additional difficulties. Current research (Sokolik, 2014) attempts to combine the benefits of both types of model.

New student and instructor profiles and roles

Castrillo de Larreta-Azelain (2014), being one of the first published papers that focuses on the roles, competences and methodological strategies of teachers in LMOOCs, on the basis of empirical research, identifies their main roles from a theoretical and practical standpoint. The proposed framework links to Salmon's theoretical tutoring model (Salmon, 2003) and is based on Hampel & Stickler's skills pyramid, (Hampel & Stickler, 2005) although focusing on Crompton's framework, (Crompton, 2009) which includes the three major sets of online language teaching: technology, pedagogy and evaluation.

The author's proposed model for redefining the teacher's role in this area is designed according to the different stages present in a LMOOC. The main task of the teaching teams in LMOOCs is shifted almost completely to the design and elaboration of the course before it actually takes place. It is argued that the instructional design necessary for the course requires a systematic, sequential plan based on Mastery Learning that consists of four steps. Moreover, the application of heuristic strategies to help present and transmit the contents of the course is suggested.

In LMOOCs, teachers need to become curators, facilitators, leaders and administrators, solving problems, suggesting complementary material, moderating forums, motivating students, and overseeing the whole learning experience during the course. Finally, before, during, and after the LMOOC, instructors are also researchers, collectors, and analyzers of

learners' data. As for students, Anderson et al.(2014) identify five different possible roles that MOOC participants can adopt:

"1. Viewers, who primarily watch lectures, handing in few – if any – assignments. 2. Solvers, who mainly hand in assignments for a grade, viewing few – if any – of the audiovisual materials. 3. All-rounders, those who balance the watching of the videos with the handing in of assignments. 4. Collectors, who mostly download lectures, handing in a few assignments. Unlike the viewers, they may or may not be actually watching the lectures. 5. Bystanders, those who registered for the course but may not even log in at all."

Accessibility

MOOCs are examples of the evolution of e-Learning environments towards a more revolutionary computer and mobile-based scenario along with social technologies that will lead to the emergence of new kinds of learning applications that enhance communication and collaboration processes. These applications should take advantage of the unique conditions of mobility and the ubiquity of Internet access, exploring successful actions for education. However, the access to MOOC platforms still present barriers, there is also a lack of accessibility on the learning resources, the communicating tools, and even less personalized user interfaces. All these issues present definitively barriers that add extra difficulties, such as the need to develop specific digital or even social skills for students with functional diversity.

Students using assistive technologies may have problems while navigating in the MOOC environment, accessing the platform

(registration process), and even using the learning content contained in the platform. A driving force has been precisely the beneficial application of multimedia and audiovisual content in the area of education to favor language learning, the majority of web applications and pages are based on collections of shared visual and audio-visual resources (such as Flickr or YouTube). MOOCs are also full of video-presentations, animations, automatic self-assessment (some of them multimedia-based) integrated into them. This introduction of audiovisual content into e-Learning platforms adds a new difficulty to the accessibility requirements since they include new elements that widen the digital divide and not only for people with disabilities. How MOOCs are designed, how their interfaces work, how communication is handled, how assessments take place (for instance, the way a student has to record his/her audio for a language speaking recording) and what form the learning content takes, all issues impact on the accessibility of these systems. The challenge for any language learning environment is one of accessibility in terms of the community with whom it wishes to engage, ensuring that processes such as enrolling in a course, navigating the system, accessing learning and assessment materials, and peer interacting are achievable through the use of assistive technologies. Moreover, in accessible language learning there are still some challenges to be faced, namely:

- Readability: the precise identification of theoretical concepts should be to provide audio and images through the combination of text (which should be correctly semantically tagged).
- Personalisation: the MOOC platforms must be capable of user's personalization, in terms of: profile

selection, colors, enough contrast, voice-activated assistants) that will help to capture student's attention.

- Means for communication: anxiety is one of the main variables that affect students with disabilities while facing this type of learning. As much communication tools are provided, the disorder is diminished.
- Intelligibility: in speech communication, intelligibility is a measure of how comprehensible speech is in given conditions and is negatively impacted by background noise and reverberation.

A MOOC interface design is often determined by the platform since some of the features – learning and testing tools – cannot be edited or customized by the academic assistants. Its materials and its mode of delivery might adhere to a set of accessibility standards. The majority of learning activities undertaken continues to take place using some hardware/software that was not designed for its specific use with educational applications and, hence, usability issues often arise. Moreover, there are technical problems or incompatibility, when it is not possible to have the required technology, or it is not possible to obtain materials in alternative formats. Moreover, MOOC environments typically contain a variety of components that do not always share a consistency of interface logic or interactive elements, ranging from posts in a forum, making up elements in tests or timed quizzes through playing embedded videos or downloading a variety of document formats. Video lectures are key elements in the MOOC model, and the hurdles of interacting with the platform or content should be minimized. -However, alternative accessible formats, subtitles, and/or sign language

interpreters for audiovisual materials, audio-description recordings are not easily available even though there exist great guidelines, such as Sánchez (2013).

The pedagogical and visual design of the MOOCs, their information architecture, usability and visual and interaction design could be having a negative impact on student engagement, retention and completion rates as it has been previously analyzed in adult learning. Whilst designing a service based on MOOCs to be used by people with functional diversity, it is important to consider the accessibility level of each of the parts of the system and also the role of the meta-information related to functional diversity, for instance, to define specific user profiles.

Although the usual accessibility barriers may remain, the model of large scale participation and social accessibility could be used to support special needs users by providing peer assistance in terms of study skills, content adaption and remote assistance. If enough interaction between users exists, students within the system can learn from their fellow students and make a contribution by helping their fellow students. In the end, resources can be media enriched, achieving a greater level of quality: transcriptions for mind mapping, audio recordings for podcasting, etc. All resources grouped together into learning resource collections that will benefit all of the stakeholders and the variety of the ubiquitous processes.

The flexibility of the language learning service offered by MOOCs to learn at any time, place and pace, enhancing continuous communication and interaction between all

participants in knowledge and community building, especially benefits this disadvantaged group which can, therefore, improve their level of employability and social inclusion, where language learning plays such an important role.

Challenges

The MOOC model, while opening up education to a larger audience, also faces difficulties that will have to be overcome before they can replace other approaches to online teaching and learning. Some of these challenges are general to all MOOCs and others, as claimed by Barcena et al.(2014), are specific to language courses. Regarding the former, given that most courses are essentially xMOOCs, then they are intended to provide the same learning experience to all students who undertake them, thereby limiting possibilities for individual instruction and personalized learning. A further problem is that of student assessment, how to do it and how to prevent cheating, closed tests are typically used but lack the flexibility of open written / oral answers. High dropout rates and the associated lack of participation within the forums also limit the possibilities for collaborative learning, so necessary for the development of many different competences. Finally, the economic issue of how to cover the expenses of preparing, running and managing a course. The former or specific challenges of a Language MOOC reflect the nature of learning a language as a skill acquisition process as well as one of knowledge assimilation, where the students need to actually use and apply the linguistic structures which they are learning in a realistic setting with quality (near-) native feedback.

Research on language MOOCs, and related technology and methodology, offer ways to address some of these challenges, motivating students and implicating them more fully in learning activities related to the development of their second language competences. Furthermore, as the nature of society changes, then so to will the way in which online language learning is undertaken. As in other areas of online learning, the role of mobile devices is becoming ever more important here, leading to the notion of mobile-driven or mobile-assisted LMOOCs, or MALMOOCs, where such devices go beyond being just portable course clients to act as mobile sensor-enabled based around extensible app-based devices that can extend language learning into everyday real-world activities. Other emerging educational technologies that will arguably be important for LMOOCs cover areas, such as learning analytics, gamification, personal learning networks, adaptive and automated assessment.

Comprehension approach

The **comprehension approach** is methodologies of language learning that emphasize understanding of language rather than speaking. This is in contrast to the better-known *communicative approach*, under which learning is thought to emerge through language production, i.e. a focus on speech and writing.

Influential linguists

The comprehension approach is most strongly associated with the linguists Harris Winitz, Stephen Krashen, Tracy D. Terrell

and James J. Asher. The comprehension-based methodology most commonly found in classrooms is Asher's *Total Physical Response* approach; Krashen and Terrell's *Natural Approach* has not been widely applied. English as a Second Language Podcast is a more recent application of the comprehension approach grounded in Krashen's theories.

The comprehension approach is based on theories of linguistics, specifically Krashen's theories of second language acquisition, and is also inspired by research on second language acquisition in children, particularly the silent period phenomenon in which many young learners initially tend towards minimal speaking. In contrast, the communicative approach is largely a product of research in language education.

Learning through understanding

Comprehension approach refers to a method of learning a new language through the process of understanding the meaning of words and expressions in the language as opposed to any other form of language learning. Other methods that may be used as part of the progression of language learning include the process of learning the letters, symbols and other representations of the language first before actually understanding the meaning of the words. The difference between the comprehension approach and the other more scientific approach to learning a new language lies in the fact that the comprehension approach is simply another dimension toward learning a new language. The comprehension approach usually involves a silent period when the learner tries to assimilate the various meanings of the words that make up the

target language. How long the silent period lasts depends on the skills of the learner in terms of comprehension ability and general cognitive skills, as someone who is a quick study may be able to quickly grasp the basic concepts of a new language faster than others. During the silent period, the new language learner will try as much as possible to understand what the words mean and how to pronounce them. The disadvantage of this type of approach is that some people who are not very confident might decide to wait until they feel that they have totally grasped the concepts of the language, including the correct pronunciation, before attempting to speak that language. This may be due to a reluctance to mispronounce the words or to misapply the language while attempting to speak it.

Advantages

An advantage of the comprehension approach of language learning is the fact that when the learner eventually understands the meaning and the correct application of the words, the language will sound more effortless when he or she speaks it in contrast to other forms of language learning, which may result in more stilted efforts. Since the comprehension approach requires a deliberate effort to understand the language first, it often leads to situations where the language learner might understand the general gist of the language, but lack the ability to speak it. This phenomenon may be attributed to the fact that the brain is a complex entity that allows for the resources to compartmentalize different cognitive skills, as is clearly evident in the ability to learn the meaning of a language first before speaking it.

Winitz founded the International Linguistics Corporation in 1976 to supply comprehension-based materials known as *The Learnables*; several positive articles have been published testing these picturebooks with their accompanying audio recordings, mostly with Winitz as co-author.

Chapter 3

CBI, Direct Method and Dogme Language Teaching

CBI

Content-based instruction (**CBI**) is a significant approach in language education (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989), designed to provide second-language learners instruction in content and language (hence it is also called *content-based language teaching*; *CBLT*). CBI is considered an empowering approach which encourages learners to learn a language by using it as a real means of communication from the very first day in class. The idea is to make them become independent learners so they can continue the learning process even outside the class.

Historically, the word *content* has changed its meaning in second language teaching. Content used to refer to the methods of grammar-translation, audio-lingual methodology, and vocabulary or sound patterns in dialog form.

Recently, content is interpreted as the use of subject matter as a vehicle for second or foreign language teaching/learning (*linguistic immersion*).

Methodology

CBI is considered more a philosophy than a methodology. There is no single formula for this type of instruction but there

are certain models of CBI which are used worldwide to achieve a holistic and global approach to foreign language learning. In essence, CBI implies integration of language learning and content learning. Hence, in a CBI course the focus of learning is not on learning of a language in isolation, but rather learning of language through the study of subject matter. A CBI curriculum is based on a subject matter core, uses authentic language and texts, and is guided by learner needs. This means that the curriculum is based on a certain subject matter and communicative competence is acquired in the context of learning about certain topics in that subject area. This falls under the top down approach to language learning where, unlike the bottom up approach, a learner first learns the overall meaning of a text and then attends to the language features.

Benefits

- Learners are exposed to a considerable amount of language through stimulating content. Learners explore interesting content and are engaged in appropriate language-dependent activities. Languages are not learned through direct instruction, but rather acquired "naturally" or automatically.
- CBI supports contextualized learning; learners are taught useful language that is embedded within relevant discourse contexts rather than presented as isolated language fragments. Hence students make greater connections with the language and what they already know.

- Complex information is delivered through real life contexts for the students to grasp easily, thereby leading to intrinsic motivation.
- In CBI information is reiterated by strategically delivering information at the right time and through situations compelling the students to learn out of passion.
- Greater flexibility and adaptability in the curriculum can be deployed as per the student's interest.

Comparison to other approaches

The CBI approach is comparable to English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which usually is for vocational or occupational needs, or to English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The goal of CBI is to prepare students to acquire the language while using the context of any subject matter so that students learn the language by using it within that specific context. Rather than learning a language out of context, it is learned within the context of a specific academic subject.

As educators realized that in order to successfully complete an academic task, second language (L2) learners have to master both English as a language form (grammar, vocabulary etc.) and how English is used in core content classes, they started to implement various approaches such as Sheltered instruction and learning to learn in CBI classes. Sheltered instruction is more of a teacher-driven approach that puts the responsibility on the teachers' shoulders. This is the case by stressing several pedagogical needs to help learners achieve their goals, such as teachers having knowledge of the subject matter, knowledge of instructional strategies to comprehensible and

accessible content, knowledge of L2 learning processes and the ability to assess cognitive, linguistic and social strategies that students use to assure content comprehension while promoting English academic development. Learning to learn is more of a student-centered approach that stresses the importance of having the learners share this responsibility with their teachers. Learning to learn emphasizes the significant role that learning strategies play in the process of learning.

Motivating students

Keeping students motivated and interested are two important factors underlying content-based instruction. Motivation and interest are crucial in supporting student success with challenging, informative activities that support success and which help the student learn complex skills (Grabe & Stoller, 1997). When students are motivated and interested in the material they are learning, they make greater connections between topics, elaborations with learning material and can recall information better (Alexander, Kulikowich, & Jetton, 1994: Krapp, Hidi, & Renninger, 1992). In short, when a student is intrinsically motivated the student achieves more. This in turn leads to a perception of success, of gaining positive attributes which will continue a circular learning pattern of success and interest. Krapp, Hidi and Renninger (1992) state that, "situational interest, triggered by environmental factors, may evoke or contribute to the development of long-lasting individual interests" (p. 18). Because CBI is student centered, one of its goals is to keep students interested and motivation high by generating stimulating content instruction and materials.

Active student involvement

Because it falls under the more general rubric of communicative language teaching (CLT), the CBI classroom is learner- rather than teacher-centered (Littlewood, 1981). In such classrooms, students learn through doing and are actively engaged in the learning process. They do not depend on the teacher to direct all learning or to be the source of all information. Central to CBI is the belief that learning occurs not only through exposure to the teacher's input, but also through peer input and interactions. Accordingly, students assume active, social roles in the classroom that involve interactive learning, negotiation, information gathering and the co-construction of meaning (Lee and VanPatten, 1995). William Glasser's "control theory" exemplifies his attempts to empower students and give them voice by focusing on their basic, human needs: Unless students are given power, they may exert what little power they have to thwart learning and achievement through inappropriate behavior and mediocrity.

Thus, it is important for teachers to give students voice, especially in the current educational climate, which is dominated by standardization and testing (Simmons and Page, 2010).

Conclusion

The integration of language and content teaching is perceived by the European Commission as "an excellent way of making progress in a foreign language." CBI effectively increases learners' English language proficiency and teaches them the

skills necessary for the success in various professions. With CBI, learners gradually acquire greater control of the English language, enabling them to participate more fully in an increasingly complex academic & social environment.

Content and language integrated learning

Content and language integrated learning (**CLIL**) is an approach for learning content through an additional language (foreign or second), thus teaching both the subject and the language.

CLIL origin

The term **CLIL** was created in 1994 by David Marsh as a methodology similar to but distinct from language immersion and content-based instruction. The idea of its proponents was to create an "umbrella term" which encompasses different forms of using language as the medium of instruction.

The methodology has been applied in a business context in many countries and widely accepted as an effective approach. In Italy for example, it is being used as an accelerated method to teach management concepts in English to business people. Among CLIL's proponents and practitioners there is Dr Maurizio Morselli, a Human Resources professional and Executive Coach, who believes that "this hybrid immersion approach produces a lot more immediate results and it appeals to self-motivated adult audiences who possess a basic knowledge and understanding of the target language".

CLIL and language immersion

CLIL is fundamentally based on methodological principles established by research on language immersion. This kind of approach has been identified as very important by the European Commission because: "It can provide effective opportunities for pupils to use their new language skills now, rather than learn them now for later use. It opens doors on languages for a broader range of learners, nurturing self-confidence in young learners and those who have not responded well to formal language instruction in general education. It provides exposure to the language without requiring extra time in the curriculum, which can be of particular interest in vocational settings." This approach involves learning subjects such as history, geography, managerial skills/concepts or others, through an additional language. It can be very successful in enhancing the learning of languages and other subjects, and helping children develop a positive attitude towards themselves as language learners.

The European Commission has therefore decided to promote the training of teachers to "...enhancing the language competences in general, in order to promote the teaching of non-linguistic subjects in foreign languages".

CLIL objectives

CLIL objectives are varied, but among the most relevant ones the following can be pointed out (Coyle et al., 2010): To improve the educational system. To establish the necessary conditions that will allow students to achieve the appropriate

level of academic performance in CLIL subjects. To improve students' proficiency in both their mother tongue and the target language, attaching the same importance to each. To develop the intercultural understanding. To develop social and thinking skills.

CLIL advocates claim that this educational approach (Lorenzo et al., 2011): Improves L1 and L2 development. Prepares students for the globalized world. Increases students' motivation to learn foreign languages. Promotes the learning of a more extensive and varied vocabulary.

Enhances students' confidence in the target language. Improves language competence in the target language, CLIL being more beneficial that traditional foreign language teaching courses. Helps develop intercultural competence.

CLIL in English as an international language

The integration of content and language learning in English as an international language (EIL) is found in approaches to bilingual education. These approaches include immersion, content-based instruction (CBI), content-based language teaching (CBLT), and the movement towards English medium instruction (EMI). All of these approaches raise a number of questions that a view of English as an international language has for content-integrated approaches (Thompson & McKinley, 2018).

Multiplicity of terms

The multiplicity of terms used to refer to instructional approaches for the integration of content and language learning (immersion, CBI, CBLT, CLIL, EMI) can be a source of confusion in EIL studies, although they all commonly share the purpose of additive bilingualism via a dual focus on content and language learning. Debate continues about the extent to which immersion, CBLT, CBI, and CLIL are different, similar, or the same.

Some argue that CLIL represents an appropriate umbrella term that can be used to house various approaches towards content integration (e.g., immersion is a type of CLIL), where terms can be used interchangeably (e.g., CLIL and CBI are the same concept with a different name) (Cenoz et al., 2014). However, others argue that CLIL and CBI represent very different concepts, where CLIL represents the intersection between content and language from the content perspective (i.e., CLIL happens in content classes), while CBI is an attempt at responding to the content needs of learners in language classes (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014).

The similarities (and variability) between approaches lead to circular arguments about whether the key features of one approach are also shared by others (e.g., immersion and CLIL), and therefore they are indistinguishable. In some ways, this is an inevitable result of terms being used outside of academia, by educators applying ideas from one context to another, and the lines of demarcation become more unclear as approaches are transported to different countries and contextualized to meet different learning situations.

In EIL studies, different terms have been associated with different regions, such as CLIL, which is associated with Europe, and was “purposefully coined” by European educators and researchers attempting to influence language policy and ideology (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014:214). CLIL represented a deliberate attempt to develop a European model for additive bilingual education.

However, policy makers, educators, and researchers from international contexts have started to apply and develop CLIL approaches in distinctly non-European situations, and the term is now widely used within the wider international foreign language learning community.

Second language

- A person's **second language**, or **L2**, is a language that is not the native language (first language or **L1**) of the speaker, but is learned later (usually as a foreign language, but it can be another language used in the speaker's home country). A speaker's dominant language, which is the language a speaker uses most or is most comfortable with, is not necessarily the speaker's first language. The second language can also be the dominant one. For example, the Canadian census defines first language for its purposes as "the first language learned in childhood and still spoken", recognizing that for some, the earliest language may be lost, a process known as language attrition. This can happen when young children move to a new language environment.

Second-language acquisition

The distinction between **acquiring** and **learning** was made by Stephen Krashen (1982) as part of his Monitor Theory. According to Krashen, the *acquisition* of a language is a **natural** process; whereas *learning* a language is a **conscious** one. In the former, the student needs to partake in natural communicative situations. In the latter, error correction is present, as is the study of grammatical rules isolated from natural language. Not all educators in second language agree to this distinction; however, the study of how a second language is *learned/acquired*is referred to as *second-language acquisition* (SLA).

Research in SLA "...focuses on the developing knowledge and use of a language by children and adults who already know at least one other language... [and] a knowledge of second-language acquisition may help educational policy makers set more realistic goals for programmes for both foreign language courses and the learning of the majority language by minority language children and adults." (Spada & Lightbown, p. 115).

SLA has been influenced by both linguistic and psychological theories. One of the dominant linguistic theories hypothesizes that a *device* or *module* of sorts in the brain contains innate knowledge. Many psychological theories, on the other hand, hypothesize that cognitive mechanisms, responsible for much of human learning, process language.

Other dominant theories and points of research include 2nd language acquisition studies (which examine if L1 findings can be transferred to L2 learning), verbal behaviour (the view that

constructed linguistic stimuli can create a desired speech response), morpheme studies, behaviourism, error analysis, stages and order of acquisition, structuralism (approach that looks at how the basic units of language relate to each other according to their common characteristics), 1st language acquisition studies, contrastive analysis (approach where languages are examined in terms of differences and similarities) and inter-language (which describes the L2 learner's language as a rule-governed, dynamic system) (Mitchell, Myles, 2004).

These theories have all influenced second-language teaching and pedagogy. There are many different methods of second-language teaching, many of which stem directly from a particular theory. Common methods are the grammar-translation method, the direct method, the audio-lingual method (clearly influenced by audio-lingual research and the behaviourist approach), the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, community language learning, the Total Physical Response method, and the communicative approach (highly influenced by Krashen's theories) (Doggett, 1994). Some of these approaches are more popular than others, and are viewed to be more effective. Most language teachers do not use one singular style, but will use a mix in their teaching. This provides a more balanced approach to teaching and helps students of a variety of learning styles succeed.

Effect of age

The defining difference between a first language (L1) and a second language (L2) is the age the person learned the language. For example, linguist Eric Lenneberg used *second*

language to mean a language consciously acquired or used by its speaker after puberty. In most cases, people never achieve the same level of fluency and comprehension in their second languages as in their first language. These views are closely associated with the critical period hypothesis.

In acquiring an L2, Hyltenstam (1992) found that around the age of six or seven seemed to be a cut-off point for bilinguals to achieve native-like proficiency. After that age, L2 learners could get *near-native-like-ness* but their language would, while consisting of few actual errors, have enough errors to set them apart from the L1 group. The inability of some subjects to achieve native-like proficiency must be seen in relation to the *age of onset* (AO). Later, Hyltenstam & Abrahamsson (2003) modified their age cut-offs to argue that after childhood, in general, it becomes more and more difficult to acquire native-like-ness, but that there is no cut-off point in particular.

As we are learning more and more about the brain, there is a hypothesis that when a child is going through puberty, that is the time that accents *start*. Before a child goes through puberty, the chemical processes in the brain are more geared towards language and social communication. Whereas after puberty, the ability for learning a language without an accent has been rerouted to function in another area of the brain—most likely in the frontal lobe area promoting cognitive functions, or in the neural system of hormone allocated for reproduction and sexual organ growth.

As far as the relationship between age and eventual attainment in SLA is concerned, Krashen, Long, and Scarcella, say that people who encounter foreign language in early age, begin

natural exposure to second languages and obtain better proficiency than those who learn the second language as an adult. However, when it comes to the relationship between age and rate SLA, “Adults proceed through early stages of syntactic and morphological development faster than children (where time and exposure are held constant)” (Krashen, Long, Scarcella 573). Also, “older children acquire faster than younger children do (again, in early stages of morphological and syntactic development where time and exposure are held constant)” (573). In other words, adults and older children are fast learners when it comes to the initial stage of foreign language education.

Gauthier and Genesee (2011) have done a research which mainly focuses on the second language acquisition of internationally adopted children and results show that early experiences of one language of children can affect their ability to acquire a second language, and usually children learn their second language slower and weaker even during the critical period.

As for the fluency, it is better to do foreign language education at an early age, but being exposed to a foreign language since an early age causes a “weak identification” (Billiet, Maddens and Beerten 241). Such issue leads to a "double sense of national belonging," that makes one not sure of where he or she belongs to because according to Brian A. Jacob, multicultural education affects students' "relations, attitudes, and behaviors" (Jacob 364). And as children learn more and more foreign languages, children start to adapt, and get absorbed into the foreign culture that they “undertake to describe themselves in ways that engage with representations

others have made" (Pratt 35). Due to such factors, learning foreign languages at an early age may incur one's perspective of his or her native country.

Similarities and differences between learned and native proficiency

Speed

Acquiring a second language can be a lifelong learning process for many. Despite persistent efforts, most learners of a second language will never become fully *native-like* in it, although with practice considerable fluency can be achieved. However, children by around the age of 5 have more or less mastered their first language with the exception of vocabulary and a few grammatical structures, and the process is relatively very fast because language is a very complex skill. Moreover, if children start to learn a second language when they are 7 years old or younger, they will also be fully fluent with their second language in a faster speed comparing to the speed of learning by adults who start to learn a second language later in their life.

Correction

In the first language, children do not respond to systematic correction. Furthermore, children who have limited input still acquire the first language, which is a significant difference between input and output. Children are exposed to a language environment of errors and lack of correction but they end up having the capacity to figure out the grammatical rules. Error

correction does not seem to have a direct influence on learning a second language. Instruction may affect the rate of learning, but the stages remain the same. Adolescents and adults who know the rule are faster than those who do not.

In the learning of a second language the correction of errors remains a controversial topic with many differing schools of thought. Throughout the last century much advancement has been made in research on the correction of students' errors. In the 1950s and 60s, the viewpoint of the day was that all errors must be corrected at all costs. Little thought went to students' feelings or self-esteem in regards to this constant correction (Russell, 2009).

In the 1970s, Dulay and Burt's studies showed that learners acquire grammar forms and structures in a pre-determined, inalterable order, and that teaching or correcting styles would not change this (Russell, 2009).

In this same decade Terrell (1977) did studies that showed that there were more factors to be considered in the classroom than the cognitive processing of the students (Russell, 2009). He contested that the affective side of students and their self-esteem were equally important to the teaching process (Russell, 2009).

A few years later in the 1980s, the strict grammar and corrective approach of the 1950s became obsolete. Researchers asserted that correction was often unnecessary and that instead of furthering students' learning it was hindering them (Russell, 2009). The main concern at this time was relieving student stress and creating a warm environment for them.

Stephen Krashen was a big proponent in this hands-off approach to error correction (Russell, 2009).

The 1990s brought back the familiar idea that explicit grammar instruction and error correction was indeed useful for the SLA process. At this time, more research started to be undertaken to determine exactly which kinds of corrections are the most useful for students. In 1998, Lyster concluded that "recasts" (when the teacher repeats a student's incorrect utterance with the correct version) are not always the most useful because students do not notice the correction (Russell, 2009). His studies in 2002 showed that students learn better when teachers help students recognize and correct their own errors (Russell, 2009). Mackey, Gas and McDonough had similar findings in 2000 and attributed the success of this method to the student's active participation in the corrective processes.

Depth of knowledge

According to Noam Chomsky, children will bridge the gap between input and output by their innate grammar because the input (utterances they hear) is so poor but all children end up having complete knowledge of grammar. Chomsky calls it the Poverty of Stimulus. And second language learners can do this by applying the rules they learn to the sentence-construction, for example. So learners in both their native and second language have knowledge that goes beyond what they have received, so that people can make correct utterances (phrases, sentences, questions, etc) that they have never learned or heard before.

Emotionality

Bilingualism has been an advantage to today's world and being bilingual gives the opportunity to understand and communicate with people with different cultural backgrounds. However, a study done by Optiz and Degner in 2012 shows that sequential bilinguals (i.e. learn their L2 after L1) often relate themselves to the emotions more when they perceive these emotions by their first language/native language/L1, but feel less emotional when by their second language even though they know the meaning of words clearly. The emotional distinction between L1 and L2 indicates that the "effective valence" of words is processed less immediate in L2 because of the delayed vocabulary/lexical access to these two languages.

Success

Success in language learning can be measured in two ways: likelihood and quality. First language learners *will* be successful in both measurements. It is inevitable that all people will learn a first language and with few exceptions, they will be fully successful. For second language learners, success is not guaranteed. For one, learners may become fossilized or *stuck* as it were with ungrammatical items. (Fossilization occurs when language errors become a permanent feature. See Canale & Swain (1980), Johnson (1992), Selinker (1972), and Selinker and Lamendella (1978).) The difference between learners may be significant. As noted elsewhere, L2 learners rarely achieve complete *native-like* control of the second language.

For L2 pronunciation, there are two principles that have been put forth by Levis (2005). The first is nativeness which means the speaker's ability to approximately reach the speaking pattern of the second language of speakers; and the second, understanding, refers to the speaker's ability to make themselves understood.

Being successful in learning a second language is often found to be challenging for some individuals. Research has been done to look into why some students are more successful than others. Stern (1975), Rubin (1975) and Reiss (1985) are just a few of the researchers who have dedicated time to this subject. They have worked to determine what qualities make a "good language learner" (Mollica, Neussel, 1997). Some of their common findings are that a good language learner uses positive learning strategies, is an active learner who is constantly searching for meaning. Also a good language learner demonstrates a willingness to practice and use the language in real communication. He also monitors himself and his learning, has a strong drive to communicate, and has a good ear and good listening skills (Mollica, Neussel, 1997).

Özgür and Griffiths have designed an experiment in 2013 about the relationship between different motivations and second language acquisition. They looked at four types of motivations—intrinsic (inner feelings of learner), extrinsic (reward from outside), integrative (attitude towards learning), and instrumental (practical needs). According to the test results, the intrinsic part has been the main motivation for these student who learn English as their second language. However, students report themselves being strongly

instrumentally motivated. In conclusion, learning a second language and being successful depend on every individual.

Foreign language

In pedagogy and sociolinguistics, a distinction is made between second language and foreign language, the latter is being learned for use in an area where that language is originally from another country and not spoken in the native country of the speakers. And in other words, foreign language is used from the perspective of countries; the second language is used from the perspective of individuals.

For example, English in countries such as India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, the Philippines, the Nordic countries and the Netherlands is considered a second language by many of its speakers, because they learn it young and use it regularly; indeed in parts of southern Asia it is the official language of the courts, government and business. The same can be said for French in Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia, although French is not an official language in any of them. In practice, French is widely used in a variety of contexts in these countries, and signs are normally printed in both Arabic and French. A similar phenomenon exists in post-Soviet states such as Ukraine, Uzbekistan, Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan, where Russian can be considered a second language, and there are large Russophone communities.

However, unlike in Hong Kong, English is considered a foreign language in China due to the lack of opportunities for use, such as historical links, media, conversation between people, and common vocabulary. Likewise, French would be considered

a foreign language in Romania and Moldova, even though both French and Romanian are Romance languages, Romania's historical links to France, and all being members of la Francophonie.

Benefits of bilingualism

Psychological studies have found that speaking two or more languages is beneficial for people's cognitive process and the differences between brains of bilinguals and single language speakers usually provides some mental benefits, according to an article in the *Daily Telegraph* in 2013. The benefits include but are not limited to these:

- Becoming smarter
- Speaking a second language keeps the functions of the brain intact by thinking and using the different language systems.
- Building multitasking skills
- According to a study from the Pennsylvania State University, "juggling language can make better brains". Because multilingual people are usually good at switching between different language systems, they can be good multitaskers as well.
- Improving memory
- The vocabulary capacity for a high school graduate student is about 45000 words, according to Nagy and Anderson (1984), and being a bilingual has shown to double this number because learning a language adds to a person's vocabulary.
- Improved cognitive abilities

- A study focusing on divergent thinking determined that second language learners score significantly higher than monolingual students when presented with figural tasks. Second language learning appears, therefore, not only to provide children with the ability to depart from the traditional approaches to a problem, but also to supply them with possible rich resources for new and different ideas.

Data for further information

Weber's report

- George H. J. Weber, a Swiss businessman and independent scholar, founder of the Andaman Association and creator of the encyclopedic andaman.org Web site, made a report in December 1997 about the number of secondary speakers of the world's leading languages. Weber used the Fischer Weltalmanach of 1986 as his primary and only source for the L2-speakers data, in preparing the data in the following table. These numbers are here compared with those referred to by Ethnologue, a popular source in the linguistics field.

Teaching English as a second or foreign language

- **Teaching English as a foreign language** (**TEFL**), **Teaching English as a second language** (**TESL**) or **Teaching English to speakers of other languages**

(**TESOL**) are terms that refer to teaching English to students whose first language is not English. The terms TESL, TEFL, and TESOL distinguish between the location and student population of a class.. TEFL describes English language programs that occur in countries where English is not the primary language. TEFL programs may be taught at a language school or with a tutor. TESL and TESOL include English language programs that occur in English-speaking countries. Oftentimes, these classes serve people who have immigrated there (either temporarily for school or work, or permanently) or whose family speaks another language at home. TESOL is a general term that describes TEFL and TESL programs and is a widely accepted term in the field of English language teaching. TEFL teachers may be native or non-native speakers of English. **ESL** (**English as a second language)** and **TESL** (**English as a second language)** are outdated terms because they do not include students who speak more than one language prior to their study of English. Students who are learning English in their home country, typically in school, are **EFL** (**English as a foreign language**) students. More generally, any students learning English are referred to as **ELLs (English language learners)**.

Teaching English as a second language

Teaching English as a second language (**TESL**) refers to teaching English to students whose first language is not

English. Usually offered in a region where English is the dominant language and natural English language immersion situations are apt to be plentiful. Usually focused on essential vocabularies, such as family names, household objects, basic adjectives, and place names, and most commonly used verbs and modal expressions.

The teaching profession has historically used different names for TEFL and TESL; however, the more generic term **teaching English to speakers of other languages** (**TESOL**) is increasingly used to describe the profession. It covers both TESL and TEFL as an umbrella term. Both native speakers and non-native speakers successfully train to be English language teachers. In order to teach English as a Second Language to English Language Learners, or ELLs, one must pass a written and oral test in English to demonstrate proficiency.

The TESOL profession made progress during the 1970s and 1980s in achieving desired goals, such as shifting its focus from product-oriented to process-oriented teaching, specifically referring to an instructor facilitating a learning environment that allows the students to strategize and formulate their ideas such as activities that utilize creativity and exploration rather than strictly learning facts from a rigid curriculum to a more flexible one.

The use of these various terms has led to confusion about the training options for both prospective students and employers. Because there is no global standard for the training of English language teachers, it is important to look beyond the actual acronym/title to the components of the training program. Short term certificate programs that do not have an academic

affiliation resulting in credits or degrees (such as CELTA or other non-credit programs) can be a good launching pad for beginning positions internationally, but they will generally not provide sufficient training for a career (unless a person already has substantial experience and a degree in a closely related field). People interested in pursuing a career as an English language teacher should invest in credit-bearing programs that result in a university-recognized certificate or degree program (MA/TESOL, MA/Applied Linguistics) particularly if one wants to work in higher education.

Because of the confusing certification situation, employers now generally look for a certificate that reflects at least 100 hours of instruction to determine if the candidate has sufficient preparation to begin teaching English. Institutions with higher standards will require applicants to possess a master's degree for employment.

People wishing to teach in the K-12 public school system in the United States will need a state-teacher certification at a minimum and an ELL Endorsement (or other state qualification) to be qualified to teach ELL.

When choosing a graduate program, it is important to determine if the program is designed to prepare students to teach in K-12 settings OR in adult education settings. Most programs are designed for one or the other, but not both.

In California, teachers may become certified as *California Teachers of English Learners* (CTEL).

Teaching techniques

Reading

Literature reading is vital in learners' literacy development. TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) that uses literature aimed at children and teenagers is rising in popularity. Youth-oriented literature offers simpler material ("simplified readers" are produced by major publishers), and often provides a more conversational style than literature for adults. Children's literature in particular sometimes provides subtle cues to pronunciation, through rhyming and other word play. One method for using these books is the multiple-pass technique. The instructor reads the book, pausing often to explain certain words and concepts. On the second pass, the instructor reads the book completely through without stopping. Textbooks contain a variety of literature like poetry, stories, essays, plays etc. through which certain linguistic items are taught.

Reading aloud to students who are learning English as a foreign language is a highly effective strategy to assist them in learning the basic rules and understandings of the process of reading. When teachers read aloud to their students, they simply model fluency and comprehension, while also adding visual support, periodic paraphrasing, and extension. When choosing an appropriate text for the student, both the vocabulary and concepts of the text that may be new to the student need to be considered. To make sure they get definite understanding of the text, engaging the students during reading will assist them with making connections between what is being read and the new vocabulary.

Communicative language teaching

Communicative language teaching (CLT) emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language. Despite a number of criticisms, it continues to be popular, particularly in Japan, Taiwan, and Europe. In India, CBSE (Central Board of Secondary Education) has adopted this approach in its affiliated schools.

The task-based language learning approach to CLT has gained ground in recent years. Proponents believe CLT is important for developing and improving speaking, writing, listening, and reading skills and that it prevents students from merely listening passively to the teacher without actually interacting. Dogme is a similar communicative approach that encourages teaching without published textbooks, instead focusing on conversational communication among the learners and the teacher.

Blended learning

Blended learning is a combination of multimedia elements (also known as computer-assisted language learning), achieved through a virtual learning environment (VLE) with classroom instruction, a teacher, and peers. Blended learning utilizes technology to provide massive amounts of comprehensible input to its learners through video and other types of multimedia, without a teacher present.

VLEs have been a major growth point in the English Language Teaching (ELT) industry over the last five years. There are two types:

- Externally hosted platforms that a school or institution exports content to (e.g., the proprietary Web Course Tools, or the open source Moodle)
- Content-supplied, course-managed learning platforms (e.g. the *Macmillan English Campus*)

The former provides pre-designed structures and tools, while the latter supports course-building by the language school—teachers can **blend** existing courses with games, activities, listening exercises, and grammar reference units contained online.

This supports classroom, self-study or remote practice (for example in an internet café). Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan in India has launched a web portal ECTLT where learners can learn English and other subjects online and interact with their own teachers of KVS across the country.

Online classroom

Advances in technology have made it possible to get a TEFL qualification online. Students can enroll in online classes that are accredited by organizations such as the British Council or Cambridge ESOL.

There is no single overarching accreditation body for TEFL; however, private for-profit companies have been known to invent accreditation affiliates and use them to cheat the customer.

Study materials are divided into modules that students are tested on. Support is handled by tutors, who can be reached via email. After successfully finishing the last module, the

student is granted a certificate that comes in digital form or can be shipped to the student's address. Getting such a certificate can be beneficial as many employers require a TEFL certificate.

Qualifications for TEFL teachers

Qualification requirements vary considerably from country to country and among employers within the same country. In many institutions it is possible to teach without a degree or teaching certificate. Some institutions will consider it necessary to be a native speaker with an MA TESOL. A university degree in English language and literature can also be of value, as indeed can any specialist degree. Other institutions consider a proof of English proficiency, a university degree and a basic teaching qualification to be more than sufficient. However, the level of academic qualification need not be the most important qualification, as many schools will be more interested in one's interpersonal skills. For trainers wishing to enter the academic field, publications can be as important as qualifications, especially if they relate to English use in the field. Where there is a high demand for teachers and no statutory requirements, employers may accept otherwise unqualified candidates. Each country is different, and acceptance depends on demand for English teachers and the teacher's previous teaching and life experiences.

Private language schools are likely to require at least a certificate based on successful completion of a course consisting of a minimum of 100 hours. Major programs like EPIK will offer a higher salary to teachers who have completed any TEFL Course, online or otherwise, so long as the program

meets the minimum 100-hour requirement. Internet-based TEFL courses are generally accepted worldwide, and particularly in Asia, where the largest job markets exist in China, Korea, Taiwan and Japan. For China the minimum TEFL requirement is 120 hours.

In Asia there has also been a tendency to hire TEFL teachers on superficial criteria, such as race (with Caucasians preferred) on the assumption that an English teacher or native English speaker should be 'white', this is proven especially true in Thailand, a big employer of TEFL teachers, with adverts frequently calling explicitly for native-English speakers. Partly this is driven by commercial expectations in the private sector, where parents feel that paying extra fees for TEFL teacher should warrant an American or British TEFL teacher, the schools will not risk losing students over this.

Age/gender requirements might also be encountered. In some countries outside Europe and America, for example the Middle East, schools might hire men over women or vice versa. And they might hire only teachers in a certain age range; usually between 20 and 40 years of age. In China, age requirements can differ across the country due to provincial government regulations. Anyone under 19 may be able to teach TEFL, but usually only in a volunteer situation, such as a refugee camp.

Pay and conditions worldwide

As in most fields, the pay depends greatly on education, training, experience, seniority, and expertise. As with much expatriate work, employment conditions vary among countries, depending on the level of economic development and how much

people want to live there. In relatively poor countries, even a low wage may equate to a comfortable middle class lifestyle. EFL Teachers who wish to earn money often target countries in East Asia such as China, South Korea and Japan where demand is high. The Middle East is also often named as one of the best paying areas, although usually better qualifications are needed: at least a CELTA and one or two years' experience.

There is a danger of exploitation by employers. Spain has encountered criticism given the overwhelming number of small to medium businesses (including TEFL schools) which routinely dodge the teachers' social security contributions as a means of maximizing profits. The result is that most teachers are entitled to less unemployment or sick pay than they would be entitled to if their salaries and contributions were declared in accordance with the law. Similar situations increase in countries with labor laws that may not apply to foreign employees, or which may be unenforced. An employer might ignore contract provisions, especially regarding working hours, working days, and end-of-contract payments.

Difficulties faced by foreign teachers regarding language, culture, or simply limited time can make it difficult to demand pay and conditions that their contracts stipulate. Some disputes arise from cross-cultural misunderstandings. Teachers who can't adapt to living and working in a foreign country may decide to leave after a few months. It can be difficult for teachers to recognize which jobs are legitimate, as many of the leading jobs boards allow unfiltered paid posting. Teachers can choose to enlist the help of recruitment agencies who only work with reputable schools.

TEFL region and country locations

Europe

Major European cities have established language schools on-site or operated as agencies sending teachers to various locations. September is the peak recruiting month, and many annual contracts last from October until June. Employers prefer graduates with experience in teaching Business English or in teaching young learners.

Before 2021, instructors from the United Kingdom, a country within the European Union, did not need any visas to work within the EU, which reduced demand for non-EU teachers. Immigration laws require that non-EU job applicants submit documents from their home countries in person after the European employer files an officially documented job offer. If the worker has traveled to Europe to find the job, this means they must return home and wait for some time. Following the process correctly does not guarantee getting a visa. Many private-sector employers do not subsidize them at all, because they are able to hire the staff easily from the EU countries.

International schools hire some experienced and well-qualified non-EU teachers. Education ministries, i.e. those of France and Spain, offer opportunities for assistant language instructors in public schools. Part-time employment is usually allowed under an education visa, but this visa also requires proper attendance at an accredited EU college or university, institute, or another educational program.

Despite claims from websites that sell courses, state schools often do not accept brief TEFL courses as a substitute for a university degree in English education. In Spain it is impossible to get a job with a state school without getting one's foreign teaching degree accepted in Spain and then passing the civil service examination ("oposiciones").

Demand for TEFL tends to be stronger in countries whichjoined the European Union recently. They also tend to have lower costs of living. Non-EU teachers usually find legal work there with less difficulty. The Balkan former Yugoslav countries have seen recent growth in TEFL private schools have recruited Anglophone teachers there for several years.

Very few foreign instructors work in Scandinavia, where stricter immigration laws and a policy of relying on bilingual local teachers apply.

Australia

The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) showed that in 2006 there were 4,747 female English as a Foreign Language teachers (80.1%) and 1,174 male teachers (19.8%) in Australia. Despite the worldwide financial crisis in 2008, the number of international students attending universities in Australia has remained high.

In August 2013, there were four hundred and sixty-two thousand international students paying full-fees in Australia, with students from China and India being the two largest markets. Previously, international students applying to study at an Australian university were required to sit a test and were only accepted based on their academic performance and

English language proficiency. However, Australian universities are now providing alternative entry pathways into higher education programs to allow international students to improve both their English language and academic preparedness at the same time. Some of these alternative pathways include Foundation Studies and English Language Intensive Courses.

Employment for teachers of English as a foreign language has risen by a rate of 45.3% over the past 5 years and is expected to grow very strongly through 2017. In November 2012, the number of EAFL (English as a foreign language) teachers in Australia had risen to 8,300, and the projected number for 2017 is 9,500 teachers. The top three regions in Australia for employment as an EAFL teacher is New South Wales: 49.5%, Victoria: 29.7%, and Queensland: 7.7%.

Asia

Bangladesh

English language teaching in Bangladesh starts from the beginning of primary level education, which keeps on going further towards advanced level till secondary education through high schools. In Bangladesh, despite Bengali being the only official state language and mother tongue to almost 97% of the population, English is widely spoken. It is an effect of British Colonial rule over the region for two consecutive centuries. People use English from day-to-day activities to formal works. Almost all colleges and higher education institutions provide in-depth language study programs for English language, literature and linguistics. Government of the

People's Republic of Bangladesh holds constant affiliation with British Council as a member of the Commonwealth.

Cambodia

Demand for English teachers in Cambodia has grown over the past decade, although the country has a small population and is dependent on foreign aid for much of its economic development, limiting growth.

Cambodia was ruled by the French from 1863 to 1953, and therefore English was not the primary second language until recently. From the 1970s through to the 1990s, Cambodia experienced civil war and political turmoil which had a devastating effect on the national education system and the learning of a second language. By 1979 it was estimated that 90% of schools had been destroyed and 75% of teachers were no longer working and foreign languages were not being taught. However, in Cambodian schools today, English as a foreign language is taught from Grade 7 onwards and is the most popular foreign language studied. Adults are also able to learn English through other non-formal English language education programs.

Currently in Cambodia, there are professional, institutional, and governmental motivations for both teaching and learning English as a foreign language. Results from studies on Cambodia show that the ability to speak English is an important component required to transform the standard of life for the people of Cambodia. The reason for this is that the people who are able to communicate in English are ones that are more likely to have opportunities to find better occupations

with higher pay, as it is used to communicate with international businesses and organizations.

China

Beginnings: Qing Dynasty

As Wang Keqiang stated (1986) TEFL has existed in China for approximately one hundred years and has been subject to the policies and politics of the times. TEFL in China actually began in the latter half of the 19th century with the "Westernization Movement" started by some Chinese officials in the Qing Dynasty. With this movement came the influence of Western culture, trade and commerce. Some astute Chinese officials saw the need to learn English as a foreign language. The situation required establishment of institutes for teaching English. The first such Institute (called "Tongwenguan") was set up in 1862 and in 1901 became part of the Beijing Normal University. This institution was a comprehensive higher education facility which included TEFL in the curriculum. Many opportunities exist within the People's Republic of China, including preschool, university, private schools and institutes, companies, and tutoring. NGOs, such as Teach For China, are an opportunity as well. The provinces and the Ministry of Education in Beijing tightly govern public schools, while private schools have more freedom to set work schedules, pay, and requirements.

English teaching salaries in China are dependent on multiple factors including teaching hours, location, inclusions/bonuses, public vs private sector, as well as the applicant's qualifications, education level and work experience. It is

important to note that due to high demand, salaries have increased significantly over recent years. A standard contract within the public school system generally entails less than 20 hours of teaching time, weekends off, included accommodations, flight stipend/reimbursement for 1 year contracts, paid public holidays, medical insurance and Z visa (working permit) sponsorship.

These positions offer an average base salary of 6,000 - 7,000 RMB per month in smaller cities and rural areas. In larger cities like Beijing, Shanghai, Shenzhen, and Guangzhou these positions now offer 10,000 RMB plus per month due to higher living costs. The private sector is less uniform with salaries going as high as 20,000 RMB per month for experienced applicants in major cities. Private positions tend to demand higher hours, may include teaching in multiple locations and often require weekend and evening working schedules. Accommodation is not included but schools typically offer a stipend towards rental costs.

English teachers should hold a minimum bachelor's degree in any discipline, be at least 25 years old and have at least 2 years of working experience. English teachers should also be native speakers with citizenship from one of the following countries: USA, Canada, UK, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, or South Africa. Due to demand, these rules are often overlooked, and schools often are able to obtain work permits for teachers who do not meet the minimums, although this is tightening up in the major cities. The Ministry of Education is increasingly enforcing requirements for foreign English language teachers including fines, suspension, or closing institutions that do not comply.

Public schools usually pay during vacations, but not for summer break unless the teacher renews the contract, while many private schools have shortened vacation schedules and may pay for whatever short number of days is allowed for vacation.

Company jobs vary, depending on the number of employees they want to train. They may employ a teacher for one or two classes, or a complete set of 14 to 16 hours a week. Tutoring also varies, as in some cases a whole family of students or just one family member. Teachers employed by schools usually can't engage in paid tutoring or any other paid work per the terms of their teaching contract.

The majority of teachers accept contracts with schools. Public school contracts are fairly standard, while private schools set their own requirements. Schools try to hire teachers from Anglophone countries, but because of demand, others with good English language skills and natural accent may be able to find positions.

There are numerous steps involved for getting a visa to teach in China. As of February 2017 the legal process for processing and awarding Z-visas in China has become considerably more strict. Applicants now require a criminal background check, 120 hours or more TEFL certification and a bachelor's degree from a Western University. Before the Chinese employer can issue an invitation letter to work in China all of these aforementioned documents are required to be notarized and legalized in the candidate's home country and then verified in China after physically posting to the Chinese employer. This procedure is in addition to the existing visa process. It can

take approximately 3 months from being given a job offer to having all the relevant permits to enter and start working in China.

Hong Kong, China

Hong Kong was once a British Crown colony, and English-language education is taken seriously there, as demonstrated by government-funded research. Hong Kong was handed back to the People's Republic of China in 1997 and became known as Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR).

Teaching English in Hong Kong has become quite a business. Many English teaching institutions have since opened. Big private names include Headstart Group Limited and English for Asia. Native English speakers may quickly find a job teaching English, although foreigners should be aware of shady companies who often pull tricks on their employees. A qualification in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) has become a pre-requisite to enter the Native English-speaking Teacher scheme (NET scheme), which is funded by the HKSAR government and provides the ultimate career destination for an English teacher. On top of attractive salary, housing is provided with all the other fringe benefits including full holiday pay, provident fund and health insurance. Housing or rental support is the biggest incentive to foreign teachers as housing cost in Hong Kong is ranked one of the highest in the world.

Once a teacher is on the NET scheme, they can move from school to school after completion of, normally, a two-year contract. Therefore, a teacher with a strong track record has a

lot of opportunities to land an ideal position at an ideal school. While many foreigners think coming to Hong Kong with a short online TEFL qualification is sufficient, both public and private schools are looking for TEFL qualifications listed with the Hong Kong Council for Accreditation of Vocational and Academic Qualifications and Hong Kong Education Bureau. Acquiring one of those qualifications gives a foreigner a definite advantage to securing a preferred teaching position at a formal school, whether private or public, kindergarten, primary or secondary. When selecting NET, schools will not normally consider learning-centre experience due to the differences in class size, continuity of student group, level of classroom management skills and sophistication in teaching pedagogy required between schools and centres.

India

Additional English language instructions take place at higher levels of public and private schools.

Beginning as early as 1759, English language teaching in India has been occurring for more than two hundred and fifty years. After Hindi, English is the most commonly spoken, written and read language of India, as it is used most commonly for inter-state and intrastate communication, acting as a 'link' language. In India, it is a very important language in some fields such as law, finance, education, and business.

The popularity of English in the country has also posed problems for the regional and traditional languages within the country. At the national level, Hindi has the status of official

language in India, and English is recognized as the second official language for governmental works.

Japan

In Japan, the JET Programme employs assistant language teachers and teaching assistants to work in Japanese high schools and elementary schools. Other teachers work in *eikaiwa* (private language schools), universities, and as Coordinators for International Relations (CIRs) in government and boards of education.

The largest of these chains are Aeon and ECC. The sector is not well regulated. Nova, one of the largest chains with over 900 branches, collapsed in October 2007, leaving thousands of foreign teachers without income or, for some, a place to live. Agencies are increasingly used to send English speakers into kindergartens, primary schools, and private companies whose employees need to improve their Business English. Agencies, known in Japan as *haken*, or dispatch companies, have recently been competing among themselves to get contracts from various Boards of Education for Elementary, Junior and Senior High Schools, and wages have decreased steadily. JALT (the Japan Association for Language Teaching) is the largest NPO (not-for-profit organization) for language teachers (mainly native English speakers), with nearly 3,000 members.

Laos

English language has been increasingly important in education, international trade and cooperation in Laos since the 1990s. The government started to promote foreign direct investment, and the introduction of Laos as an observer at

ASEAN in 1992 also increased the necessity of English. Laos was considered as a full member of ASEAN in 1997. From 1992-97, the government had to improve its fluency in English.

More recently, high-ranking officials, business people, and shareholders have started to work at their English. This trend looks set to increase as English is due to be included and taught in the field of education too.

Middle East and North Africa

Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, and other wealthy Gulf states are the main locations for instructors to work in this region. Many positions provide high salaries and good benefits such as free housing and flights, but tend to require extensive qualifications and experience.

Private academies and university programs, variously referred to as Foundation Year or Preparatory Year programs that assist incoming students with academic preparation for university-level academic work, are the main venues of instruction. Some public primary and secondary schools, such as those in Abu Dhabi, have begun to recruit foreign English instructors.

Other Middle Eastern and North African countries offer more modestly-paid positions. Amideast and the British Council operate in a number of countries providing teaching opportunities in their English language courses.

English is also taught in Iran starting at the primary school level.

Mongolia

The Peace Corps has 136 volunteers in Mongolia, many of whom are English teachers mostly teaching in the vast rural areas, where the population density is low. In Ulaanbaatar, a modest number of professional NETs teach at private institutes, universities, and some schools. In addition to foreign instructors from the major English-speaking countries, there are Filipinos teaching in Mongolian schools, institutes and large industrial or mining companies.

South Korea

There is great demand for native English speakers willing to teach in South Korea, though it is dropping. In 2013, the number of native English speakers teaching in public schools dropped 7.7% in one year to 7,011. Most of the nation's provinces are removing foreign English teachers from their middle and high schools. As with Japan, Korea is also nurturing a government-run program for teacher placement called English Program in Korea (EPIK). EPIK reported that it recruited 6,831 foreign teachers to work in Korean public schools. There are a number of associations for English teachers in Korea, the largest one with a significant number of native speakers is KOTESOL.

Institutions commonly provide round-trip airfare and a rent-free apartment for a one-year contract. Note that since March 15, 2008, visa rules have changed. Prospective teachers must now undergo a medical examination and a criminal background check, produce an original degree certificate, and provide sealed transcripts. On arriving in South Korea, teachers must

undergo a further medical check before they receive an ARC (Alien Registration Card) card.

Korean labor law provides all workers with a severance pay equivalent to one month's salary is paid at the end of a contract. Most job contracts are for 1 year and include entrance and exit plane tickets. Citizens of the US, Canada and Australia also receive back their pension contributions and their employers' part of the pension contributions on leaving the country. The average starting pay for those with no previous teaching experience and no degree in the English language is usually between US$1,800 to US$2,200.

There are four main places to work in South Korea: universities, private schools, public schools (EPIK), and private language academies (known in South Korea as *hagwon*s). Private language academies (in 2005 there were over thirty thousand such academies teaching English), the most common teaching location in Korea, can be for classes of school children, housewives, university students (often at the university itself), or businesspeople. There are numerous, usually small independent *hagwons* but also numerous large chains.

Taiwan

In Taiwan, most teachers work in cram schools, known locally as *bushibans* or buxibans. Some are part of chains, like Hess and Kojen. Others operate independently. Such schools pay around US$2,000 per month. End-of-contract bonuses equivalent to an extra month's pay are not mandated by law as in South Korea, and are uncommon in Taiwan. Also, under

current law it is illegal for foreigners to teach English in pre-schools or kindergartens, though it is almost always overlooked by both the schools and the government, thereby making the practice common and accepted. To teach English and live in Taiwan, one must be a holder of an Alien Resident Card (ARC), which is supplied to passport holders of native English speaking countries by hiring schools. ARC candidates must hold a bachelor's degree from a university.

In recent years Taiwan has increased its needs for TEFL and Certified Teachers in public schools. Qualifications and salaries for public school positions are based on certifications and experience. Also, benefits and salaries are more extensive than cram schools.

Thailand

Thailand has a great demand for native English speakers, and has a ready-made workforce in the form of travelers and expatriates attracted by the local lifestyle despite relatively low salaries. Teachers can expect to earn a minimum starting salary of around 25,000 Baht. Because Thailand prohibits foreigners from most non-skilled and skilled occupations, a high percentage of foreign residents teach English for a living, and are able to stay in the country. Qualifications for EFL teachers in Thailand have become stricter in the last couple of years,.with most schools now requiring a bachelor's degree plus a 120-hour TEFL course. It is possible to find work without a degree in Thailand. However, as a degree makes getting a work permit far easier, to work without a degree is often to work illegally, opening teachers up to exploitation by employers.

Americas

There has been significant growth in TEFL within the wealthier non-Anglophone countries of North, Central, and South America as well as the Caribbean. In particular, many teachers work in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela. Chile has even made it a national goal to become a bilingual nation within the coming years. As proof of its commitment to this goal the Chilean Ministry of Education sponsors English Opens Doors, a program that recruits English speakers to work in Chilean Public High Schools.

Costa Rica

Costa Rica is a popular choice among TEFL teachers in light of the high market demand for English instructors, the stable economic and political atmosphere, and the vibrant culture. Teaching positions are available through public and private schools, language schools, universities and colleges, and through private tutoring.

Language schools typically hire all year round, and teachers of Business English are also in high demand. There are quality Costa Rica TEFL training courses that offer certification as well as job placement assistance following completion of a course.

Africa

TEFL in Africa has historically been linked to aid programs such as the US Peace Corps or the multinational Voluntary

Service Overseas organization, as well as other aid programs. Most African countries employ bilingual local teachers. Poverty and instability in some African countries has made it difficult to attract foreign teachers. There has been increasing government investment in education and a growing private sector.

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 method was developed in an attempt to address some of the perceived weaknesses of the direct method.

Dogme language teaching

Dogme language teaching is considered to be both a methodology and a movement. Dogme is a communicative approach to language teaching that encourages teaching without published textbooks and focuses instead on conversational communication among learners and teacher. It has its roots in an article by the language education author, Scott Thornbury.

The Dogme approach is also referred to as "Dogme ELT", which reflects its origins in the ELT (English language teaching) sector. Although Dogme language teaching gained its name from an analogy with the Dogme 95 film movement (initiated by Lars von Trier) in which the directors, actors, and actresses commit a "vow of chastity" to minimize their reliance on special effects that may create unauthentic feelings from the viewers, the connection is not considered close.

Key principles

Dogme has ten key principles.

- **Interactivity**: the most direct route to learning is to be found in the interactivity between teachers and students and amongst the students themselves.
- **Engagement**: students are most engaged by content they have created themselves.
- **Dialogic processes**: learning is social and dialogic, where knowledge is co-constructed.

- **Scaffolded conversations**: learning takes place through conversations, where the learner and teacher co-construct the knowledge and skills.
- **Emergence**: language and grammar emerge from the learning process. This is seen as distinct from the 'acquisition' of language.
- **Affordances**: the teacher's role is to optimize language learning affordances through directing attention to emergent language.
- **Voice**: the learner's voice is given recognition along with the learner's beliefs and knowledge.
- **Empowerment**: students and teachers are empowered by freeing the classroom of published materials and textbooks.
- **Relevance**: materials (e.g. texts, audios and videos) should have relevance for the learners.
- **Critical use**: teachers and students should use published materials and textbooks in a critical way that recognizes their cultural and ideological biases.

Main precepts

There are three precepts (later described by Thornbury as the "three pillars" of Dogme) that emerge from the ten key principles.

Conversation-driven teaching

Conversation is seen as central to language learning within the Dogme framework, because it is the "fundamental and universal form of language" and so is considered to be "language at work". Since real life conversation is more

interactional than it is transactional, Dogme places more value on communication that promotes social interaction. Dogme also places more emphasis on a discourse-level (rather than sentence-level) approach to language, as it is considered to better prepare learners for real-life communication, where the entire conversation is more relevant than the analysis of specific utterances. Dogme considers that the learning of a skill is co-constructed within the interaction between the learner and the teacher. In this sense, teaching is a conversation between the two parties. As such, Dogme is seen to reflect Tharp's view that "to most truly teach, one must converse; to truly converse is to teach".

Revision to the concept of Dogme as being conversation driven

The immutability of conversation as one of the "pillars" of Dogme was called into question by Scott Thornbury himself in a 2020 interview. When asked what might happen should a student not wish to engage in classroom conversation, Thornbury suggested that saying Dogme had to be "conversation driven" might have been a "mistake":

I think one of the mistakes we made was making conversation part of the... "three pillars", and what really should be said, is that Dogme is driven not by conversations, but by texts... texts meaning both written and spoken.

Arguably, this suggestion that Dogme language teaching should be seen as being "text-driven", rather than "conversation-driven", caters to more reflective learners.

Materials light approach

The Dogme approach considers that student-produced material is preferable to published materials and textbooks, to the extent of inviting teachers to take a 'vow of chastity' and not use textbooks. Dogme teaching has therefore been criticized as not offering teachers the opportunity to use a complete range of materials and resources. However, there is a debate over the extent to which Dogme is actually anti-textbook or anti-technology. Meddings and Thornbury focus their critique of textbooks on their tendency to focus on grammar more than on communicative competency and also on the cultural biases often found in textbooks, especially those aimed at global markets. Indeed, Dogme can be seen as a pedagogy that is able to address the lack of availability or affordability of materials in many parts of the world. Proponents of a Dogme approach argue that they are not so much anti-materials as pro-learner, and thus align themselves with other forms of learner-centered instruction and critical pedagogy.

Emergent language

Dogme considers language learning to be a process where language emerges rather than one where it is acquired. Dogme shares this belief with other approaches to language education, such as task-based learning. Language is considered to emerge in two ways. Firstly classroom activities lead to collaborative communication amongst the students. Secondly, learners produce language that they were not necessarily taught. The teacher's role, in part, is to facilitate the emergence of language. However, Dogme does not see the teacher's role as merely to create the right conditions for language to emerge.

The teacher must also encourage learners to engage with this new language to ensure learning takes place. The teacher can do this in a variety of ways, including rewarding, repeating and reviewing it. As language emerges rather than is acquired, there is no need to follow a syllabus that is externally set. Indeed, the content of the syllabus is covered (or 'uncovered') throughout the learning process.

Pedagogical foundations

First, Dogme is based not only on theories of language teaching and learning but also on progressive, critical, and humanist educational theories. Adopting the Dialogic model, Dogme encourages students and teachers to communicate in order to exchange ideas, which is the prerequisite for education to occur.

- Dogme also has its roots in communicative language teaching (in fact Dogme sees itself as an attempt to restore the communicative aspect to communicative approaches). Dogme has been noted for its compatibility with reflective teaching and for its intention to "humanize the classroom through a radical pedagogy of dialogue". It also shares many qualities with task-based language learning and only differs with task-based learning in terms of methodology rather than philosophy. Research evidence for Dogme is limited but Thornbury argues that the similarities with task-based learning suggest that Dogme likely leads to similar results. An example is the findings that learners tend to interact, produce language and collaboratively co-

construct their learning when engaged in communicative tasks.

- Another significant milestone that contributed to the birth of Dogme was the introduction of Emergentism. Dogme follows the same idea of language emergence through dialogs, which allows learners to enhance the effectiveness of communication. Later on, through the action of language awareness-raising activities and focus-on-form tasks, learners can refine the interlanguage and get more proximate to the target language

As a critical pedagogy

Although Thornbury notes that Dogme is not inherently seeking social change and therefore does not fulfill generally held criteria for a critical pedagogy, Dogme can be seen as critical in terms of its anti-establishment approach to language teaching.

Technology and web 2.0

Although Dogme teaching has been seen to be anti-technology, Thornbury maintains that he does not see Dogme as being opposed to technology as such, rather that the approach is critical of using technology that does not enable teaching that is both learner centered and is based upon authentic communication. Indeed, more recent attempts to map Dogme principles on to language learning with web 2.0 tools (under the term "Dogme 2.0") are considered evidence of Dogme being in transition and therefore of being compatible with new

technology. However, although there is not a clear consensus among Dogme teachers on this issue (see discussions on the ELT Dogme Yahoo Group), there is a dominant view that the physical classroom will be preferable to attempts to substitute physical presence with communication via digital technology. Dogme can combine with different technological tools as our society is constantly changing. Teachers can combine Dogme philosophy with the other methods such as flipped classrooms or e-learning environments. However, what matters is that Dogme, as critical pedagogy, is transformative and seeks social changes

Criticism

Dogme has come under criticism from a wide range of teachers and educators for its perceived rejection of both published textbooks and modern technology in language lessons. Furthermore the initial call for a 'vow of chastity' is seen as unnecessarily purist and that a weaker adoption of Dogme principles would allow teachers the freedom to choose resources according to the needs of a particular lesson. Maley also presents Dogme as an approach that "[increases] the constraints on teachers". Christensen notes that adoption of Dogme practices may face greater cultural challenges in countries outside of Europe, such as Japan. Questions have also been raised about the appropriateness of Dogme in low resource contexts and where students are preparing for examinations that have specific syllabi.

In general, the criticisms and concerns that Dogme encounters revolve around several major issues: the theoretical foundation of the conversation-driven perspective, the under-preparedness

of lesson structure structures, and the potential pressure on teachers and students in various learning contexts. Dogme can challenge inexperienced teachers who have an inadequate pedagogical repertoire, and limited access to resources. It may also face challenges regarding its applicability in classes of students with low levels of proficiency. Low-level students cannot interact with the teacher and peers effectively in the target language.

Chapter 4

Stubs

Focal Skills

Focal Skills (or The **Focal Skills Approach**) refers to a specific non-traditional program design and assessment regime that purposely structures intensive foreign or second language instruction to align with student-centered, communicative language teaching that is skills-focused and content-based.

Focal Skills restructures program design by sequentially focusing attention on the development of one language skill area at a time until its mastery to a chosen threshold level is reached. Assessments in Listening, Reading, and Writing are used to determine whether the threshold level has been attained.

Teaching practices in Focal Skills programs are heavily influenced by the work of Stephen Krashen. There is an emphasis on comprehensible input using authentic materials. Activities that would raise a student's affective filter are generally avoided. The Focal Skills Movie Technique is an example of the kind of teaching used in this approach.

Background

Created in 1988 by Ashley Hastings, Ph.D., the Focal Skills program design took into account research and developments in second language acquisition theory that questioned the

efficacy of grammar-based language curricula and the traditional level-based program model developed when structuralist-influenced methodologies dominated the field of intensive second language teaching. In that traditional program model, placement involved determining a student's level and then assigning the student to courses at that level in a number of skill areas (such as Level 4 Reading, Writing, Grammar and Oral Skills). In contrast, the Focal Skills program student is placed into a module of courses that all address the student's weakest skill and focus three fourths of instruction on developing that one skill area. The remaining portion is spent in an elective class selected for that week by the student.

The skill modules are sequenced as follows: first the Listening, next Reading, then Writing, and finally, Immersion—where emphasis is on oral skills development and on readying all skills for the specific language environments the student expects to encounter.

The Focal Skills program model was first implemented at the Intensive English as a Second Language Program at the University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee and later adopted, in whole or in part, at other intensive programs, including the English Language Programme at the United Nations. Adaptations of the program model have made it workable not only for relatively large programs, such as the ones at UW–Milwaukee, the University of Dallas, and Palo Alto College (San Antonio), but also for relatively small programs, like those at the Intensive English Institute, part of the University of Maine in Orono, Kilgore College (Texas), and Vincennes University (Indiana).

Outline

Upon entry into a Focal Skills program, the student is given a complete battery of Focal Skills assessments, including Listening, Reading, and Writing tests. These entry scores are used as a baseline for measuring student progress, but the student is immediately placed into the first module in the Focal Skills sequence for which the student has not attained the requisite threshold or pass-out score. If the student does not earn the needed score on the Listening Assessment, the student is placed into the Listening Module for instruction—whether the student has already reached the requisite threshold score in other skill areas or not. After each month of instruction in that module, the student is tested again with an alternate form of the Listening Assessment.

Once the listening skill is mastered to the requisite threshold as evidenced by attainment of the pass-out score, the student's placement moves on to the next skill module in which the student is not currently scoring at or above the threshold level. Skills already developed in the previous modules of the sequence are then maintained and further developed while the skill area of the next module is receiving focused instruction. Thus, a student testing out of the Listening Module and scoring below threshold in Reading at intake testing is given a new form of the Reading Assessment. The results determine whether the student has also attained the threshold score in Reading or will need to spend the next month in Reading Module classes, where—while focusing on reading skills development—the instructional methods will exercise and, so, further develop the student's listening skills as well. Students meeting the threshold on Listening and Reading, but not

Writing, are placed into the Writing Module, where they will be exposed to methods that use and further practice their listening and reading skills while focusing on developing their writing skills.

Movie technique

The Focal Skills Movie Technique (FSMT), also referred to as the Narrative/Paraphrase Approach, is a language-teaching technique originally developed for use in Focal Skills programs. The purpose of FSMT is to provide large quantities of high-interest comprehensible input (see Monitor Theory), which has been identified by researchers, primarily Stephen Krashen, as a necessary element for successful language acquisition.

A teacher using FSMT shows a movie to students, describing the scenes as they occur and paraphrasing dialogue when necessary to help the students understand the story.

The narrations and paraphrases are meant to be at a level of language that is just a bit beyond the students' current proficiency (i+1; see Monitor Theory).

The work of the teacher in this process is vital, as the dialogue in the movie is not likely to be intelligible to the students for whom FSMT is intended. The teacher's task is to use the images, actions, and plot of the movie as supports for the students' comprehension of the language produced by the teacher.

Focus on form

Focus on form (**FonF**) is an approach to language education in which learners are made aware of the grammatical form of language features that they are already able to use communicatively. It is contrasted with *focus on forms*, which is limited solely to the explicit focus on language features, and *focus on meaning*, which is limited to focus on meaning with no attention paid to form at all. For a teaching intervention to qualify as *focus on form* and not as *focus on forms*, the learner must be aware of the meaning and use of the language features before the form is brought to their attention. *Focus on form* was proposed by Michael Long in 1988.

Background

The FonF (focus on form) model of practice introduced by Bahari (2019a) was prepared and contextualized based on the effectiveness of FonF-based instruction for its potential for incidental and preplanned L2 learning (Bahari, 2018a; Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004; Nassaji, 1999, 2016; Nassaji & Fotos, 2007, 2011; Williams, 2005). The FonF practice model has proved effective in catering for learners' nonlinear and dynamic motivational factors at individual level and taking advantage of the CALL affordances towards developing listening and speaking skills (Bahari, 2019a). In keeping with Nassaji and Fotos (2011) the FonF is considered as an optimal approach for learning which aims at mixing the best features of classroom L2 learning with computer-assisted L2 learning by using CALL tools and applications to facilitate L2 learning process. In contrast to previous L2 learning

practice models sharing the feature of generality at group level, the FonF practice model addresses the nonlinearity and dynamicity of individual differences during learning process (Bahari, 2018a). This is in response to the call for integrating complex dynamic systems perspective (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) towards implementing interactive-collaborative CALL environment. Under the FonF practice model, on the one hand, form, meaning and communication are addressed as critical learning components and on the other hand, individual learner's motivation is catered to by selecting learning materials with respect to the nonlinearity and dynamicity of individual learners (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998) in a systematic but flexible framework.

The concept of *focus on form*was motivated by the lack of support for the efficacy of *focus on forms* on the one hand, and clear advantages demonstrated by instructed language learning over uninstructed learning on the other. The research conflicting with *focus on forms* has been wide-ranging; learners typically acquire language features in sequences, not all at once, and most of the stages the learners' interlanguages pass through will exhibit non-native-like language forms. Furthermore, the progression of these stages is not clean; learners may use language features correctly in some situations but not in others, or they may exhibit U-shaped learning, in which native-like use may temporarily revert to non-native-like use. None of these findings sit well with the idea that students will learn exactly what you teach them, when you teach it.

In a review of the literature comparing instructed with uninstructed language learning, Long found a clear advantage

for instructed learning in both the rate of learning and the ultimate level reached. An important finding that supported Long's view came from French language immersion programs in Canada; even after students had years of meaning-focused lessons filled with comprehensible input, their spoken language remained far from native-like, with many grammatical errors. This is despite the fact that they could speak fluently and had native-like listening abilities.

Generative principle

In foreign language teaching, the **generative principle** reflects the human capacity to generate an infinite number of phrases and sentences from a finite grammatical or linguistic competence. This capacity was captured in Wilhelm von Humboldt's famous phrase that language makes "infinite use of finite means". It is the theoretical basis for pattern drills and substitution tables - an essential component of the audio-lingual method - and may be considered as the necessary counterpart to the communicative principle, i.e. teaching communication through communicating (communicative language teaching; communicative competence).

Background

Children, in their process of first-language acquisition, notably in pre-sleep monologues, have been observed to use new phrases as models for more phrases, varying words or word groups during phases of essentially non-communicative verbal play in ways reminiscent of pattern drills. Ruth Weir observed the following monologue in a 2½ year old subject:

- What colour
- What colour blanket
- What colour mop
- What colour glass

Autistic children find it particularly difficult to develop this flexibility that normal children naturally have. In second language acquisition children may begin with prefabricated patterns or chunks. As the learners begin to understand their internal structure, words are freed to recombine with other words, chunks are broken down, and in a process of substitution and variation, become models for analogous constructions.

In foreign language teaching, sentence manipulations in the form of pattern drills can be mechanical and monotonous, which has raised the question as to whether practice on sentence variations can really further communicative competence. Butzkamm & Caldwell suggest bilingual semi-communicative drills as a possible solution.

Examples

The teacher selects a new phrase from a textbook story, let's say "What about my friend". The idea is to turn it into a productive sentence pattern. So he gives a few more examples and starts a very short drill with cues in the students' native language (German):

- Teacher: Was ist mit meinem Onkel?
- Student: What about my uncle?
- Teacher: Was ist mit unserem Präsidenten?

- Student: What about our president?
- Teacher: Was ist mit unserer Hausaufgabe?
- Student: What about our homework?

These are disconnected sentences which are often rejected by leading theorists such as Lewis, who speaks of a "fundamentally flawed methodology". But notice that, for every sentence, we can easily come up with fitting communicative contexts - because of a comprehensive communicative competence developed by our mother tongue. Notice also the semantic leaps, especially from “president” to “homework”, for the students to see the semantic range of the new phrase and its applicability to a variety of situations.- The students are now ready to generate their own sentences / ideas. When the teacher reacts to the students’ sentences as if they were serious utterances, the drill can become semi-communicative. Witness the following extract from a lesson. The students (11-year-olds) have been practising “May I / we...” and are now making their own sentences:

- Student: May we smoke in this room?
- Teacher: Not in this room. There are no ash trays.
- Student: May I go home now?
- Teacher: Not now, later.
- Student: May I kill you now?
- Teacher: Come on and try.

Good language learner studies

The **good language learner** (**GLL**) studies are a group of academic studies in the area of second language acquisition that deal with the strategies that good language learners

exhibit. The rationale for the studies was that there is more benefit from studying the habits of successful language learners than there is from studying learners who fossilize at an early stage or stop studying altogether. It was thought that if the strategies of successful learners could be found, then that knowledge could help learners who were not getting such good results.

The original studies were made in the 1970s, but petered out in the 1980s as researchers concentrated on individual learning strategies. However, some research on the topic has also been carried out in more recent years. The main body of GLL research investigated language learning in classroom situations. It found that good language learners could not be distinguished on the basis of observable behavior alone, although personality did seem to have an effect. It also found that teachers did not treat these learners differently from other students, although they could distinguish good language learners from learners who were not so effective.

Original studies

The first studies in the good language learner tradition were made by Joan Rubin and David Stern, both of which were completed in 1975. Both of these studies proposed similar lists of strategies that good language learners use. On the basis of this, a large-scale study was performed at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) which investigated 34 language learners with good learning habits. This study found a list of six different strategies, which were similar to those proposed by Rubin and Stern:

- Good language learners find an appropriate style of learning.
- Good language learners involve themselves in the language-learning process.
- Good language learners develop an awareness of language as both system and communication.
- Good language learners pay constant attention to expanding their language knowledge.
- Good language learners develop the second language as a separate system.
- Good language learners take into account the demands that second language learning imposes.

Later work

In spite of the flurry of interest in the GLL in the mid to late 70s, in the 80s and 90s interest moved more in the direction of socio/cultural influences and individual differences, as well as developing the concept of communicative competence into a communicative approach to language teaching.

In the new millennium, Norton and Toohey re-visited the GLL. Their new perspective emphasized the influence of situation, investment and identity on successful language learning.

Seven years later, Griffiths, harking back to Joan Rubin's original title, published "Lessons from Good Language Learners". Whereas the early work in the GLL field had tended to emphasize the role of strategies, Griffiths' work took a broader view and presented the GLL as a highly complex being involving many different variables, including motivation, age, style, personality, gender, metacognition, autonomy, beliefs,

culture and aptitude. In addition, the target variables (including grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, function and skills) and some of the situational factors (including method and error correction practices) which learners must manage if they are to be successful were discussed.

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 learned deductively; 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.

Input enhancement

Input enhancement (IE) is a concept in second language acquisition. Mike Sharwood Smith coined the term to cover techniques used by researchers to make salient selected features of a language for students such as word order, parts of words that express tense, agreement and number for example, accents, idioms and slang. These techniques aim to draw attention to aspects of a language that have hitherto seemed to have made insufficient impact on the learner. This need not necessarily involve making learners consciously aware of the researcher's or teacher's intentions. Although IE was conceived of as a research tool, the term can also be used to describe techniques deliberately or instinctively used in language teaching and also in the way parents (again instinctively) talk to their children as also the way people alter their speech when talking to non-native speakers who seem to have difficulty in communicating. IE may figure as a deliberate strategy in teaching methods but it has always been present implicitly in standard teaching practice.

IE techniques include:

- Avoiding vowel reduction typical of rapid or casual speech
- Slowing down the rate of speech
- Using exaggerated stress and intonation
- Extensive repetition of words and phrases

- Less pre-verbal and more post-verbal modification
- Use of gestures, text enhancement such as boldface
- Underlining and other attention-catching textural techniques such as boldface, uppercase letters, colour-coding, etc.

IE includes use of traditional techniques to teach grammar and usage. Sharwood Smith distinguishes *external input enhancement* from *internal input enhancement* with the former referring primarily to techniques used in the deliberate teaching of a language and the latter employing ordinary events or situations.

The term "input enhancement" was designed to replace the term 'grammatical consciousness-raising' (CR) because the older term did not allow for enhanced learning that occurs in a natural or accidental setting instead of an academic or purposefully educational setting.

Jazz Chants

Jazz Chants are exercises in which students utter words and short phrases rhythmically. They were first popularized by Carolyn Graham in the 1980s.

Concept

Jazz Chant is a rhythmic expression of natural language which links the rhythms of spoken American English to the rhythms of traditional American jazz. Jazz Chants are defined poems with repeated beats. The beat may vary depending on the idea of the reader. A jazz chant is a fragment of authentic language

presented with special attention to its natural rhythm. It is important to remember that jazz chanting is not like rapping, nursery rhymes, or songs, which distort the spoken language for poetic effect. The rhythms, stress and intonation pattern of the chant should be an exact replica of what the student would hear from an educated native speaker in natural conversation. Echols (1996:327) states that chant means simple and short songs. So Jazz Chants is the technique to practice the English utterances in short jazz beats that is easy to be followed by the students. As we know that the teaching and learning process is a complex phenomenon that involves many components and competencies, including words, mind, and our action. Through attractive learning, the learning process can be effective. The jazz chants model is a way to build an effective learning. The implementation of jazz chants is suitable with the principle of quantum teaching in classrooms that drives students in a happy atmosphere while learning.

Implementation of Chant Jazz model, this is included in the effort of practicing Quantum Teaching in Class. Quantum Teaching is a fun learning composition with all the interactions and differences that maximize learning moments. The focus is on dynamic relationships within the classroom environment, the interaction that provides the foundation and framework for learning (De Porter, 2003).

Implementation

1. Students are grouped into two groups

2. At the preparatory stage the teacher records the responses of English utterances that cannot be uttered by the students.

3. As a tool, teachers use tape recorders to play jazz chant examples.

4. In this period, the teacher emphasizes the primary tense and simple present tense.

To improve students 'speaking ability in reading aloud (students' reading is recorded one = aloud) especially vocal sounds (a, e and u). Broadly speaking students are given a drill of some chant models with certain dominant sounds. After practice chant, tested the ability of students in uttering certain voiced words by reading a simple sentence loud. For the accuracy of the data, students' voices are recorded one by one. The assessment is done simply by counting the correct number and wrong of each student

Carolyn Graham developed the technique of jazz chanting during her twenty-five years of teaching ESL in the American Language Institute of New York University. Throughout the '80s and '90s Graham's jazz chants spread far and wide along with the ESL teaching methods and techniques. Graham published a number of books, tape recordings and CDs on her method mainly by Oxford University Press. The series of computer programs Languages with Music is the first software based on Jazz Chants ideas.

Jazz Chants appeal to students of all ages, and work with large classes, and stimulate pairwork and role-playing activities. Jazz chants improve the students' speaking competence in terms of pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension. Jazz chants help students sound more natural when they speak English. Today jazz chants can be heard in ESL and EFL classrooms around the world.

Lexical approach

The **lexical approach** is a method of teaching foreign languages described by Michael Lewis in the early 1990s. The basic concept on which this approach rests is the idea that an important part of learning a language consists of being able to understand and produce lexical phrases as chunks. Students are taught to be able to perceive patterns of language (grammar) as well as have meaningful set uses of words at their disposal when they are taught in this way. In 2000, Norbert Schmitt, an American linguist and a Professor of Applied Linguistics at the University of Nottingham in the United Kingdom, contributed to a learning theory supporting the lexical approach he stated that "the mind stores and processes these [lexical] chunks as individual wholes." The short-term capacity of the brain is much more limited than long-term and so it is much more efficient for our brain to pull up a lexical chunk as if it were one piece of information as opposed to pulling up each word as separate pieces of information.

In the lexical approach, instruction focuses on fixed expressions that occur frequently in dialogues, which Lewis claims make up a larger part of discourse than unique phrases and sentences. Vocabulary is prized over grammar *per se* in this approach. The teaching of chunks and set phrases has become common in English as a foreign or second language, though this is not necessarily primarily due to the Lexical Approach. This is because anywhere from 55-80% of native speakers' speech are derived from prefabricated phrases. Fluency could be considered unachievable if one did not learn prefabricated chunks or expressions.

Common lexical chunks include: Have you ever ... been / seen / had / heard / tried

Most language learners are accustomed to learning basic conversation starts, which are lexical chunks, including: "Good morning," "How are you?" "Where is the restroom?" "Thank you," "How much does this cost?"

Language learners also use lexical chunks as templates or formulas to create new phrases:

What are you doing?

What are you saying?

What are you cooking?

What are you looking for?

Syllabus

The lexical syllabus is a form of the propositional paradigm that takes 'word' as the unit of analysis and content for syllabus design. Various vocabulary selection studies can be traced back to the 1920s and 1930s (West 1926; Ogden 1930; Faucet et al. 1936), and recent advances in techniques for the computer analysis of large databases of authentic text have helped to resuscitate this line of work. The modern lexical syllabus is discussed in Sinclair & Renouf (1988), who state that the main benefit of a lexical syllabus is that it emphasizes utility - the student learns that which is most valuable because it is most frequent. Related work on collocation is reported by Sinclair (1987) and Kennedy (1989), and the

Collins COBUILD English Course (Willis & Willis 1988) is cited as an exemplary pedagogic implementation of the work, though "in fact, however, the COBUILD textbooks utilize one of the more complex hybrid syllabi in current ESL texts" (Long & Crookes 1993:23).

Sinclair & Renouf (1988:155) find that (as with other synthetic syllabi), claims made for the lexical syllabus are not supported by evidence, and the assertion that the lexical syllabus is "an independent syllabus, unrelated by any principles to any methodology" (Sinclair et al. 1988:155) is subject to the criticism levelled by Brumfit against notional functional syllabi, i.e. that it (in this case, deliberately) takes no cognisance of how a second language is learned. Since these observations were made, however, Willis (1990) and Lewis (1993) have gone some way to provide such a theoretical justification.

Literature Circles in EFL

Literature Circles in EFL are teacher accompanied classroom discussion groups among English as a foreign language learners, who regularly get together in class to speak about and share their ideas, and comment on others' interpretations about the previously determined section of a graded reader in English, using their 'role-sheets' and 'student journals' in collaboration with each other.

Introduction

English language learners often say that reading, which is a vital element of language learning, is boring and difficult. This

problematic situation might be the result of not practicing EFL reading in the right way. So, is there an effective way of using literature in the EFL classroom? The issue, this article intends to investigate is, what language interactions and classroom discourse are taking place in 'Literature Circles' and how this might affect the language development of foreign language learners? The suggested idea is that, as a balanced element of the school curriculum, literature circles can provide an exciting way to promote student engagement in extensive reading by means of cooperative learning and collaborative work and offer the potential to promote reading for enjoyment. The main focus of the analysis has been the student-to-student interactions and classroom discourse taking place during literature circles discussions. The main concern was over how different variables affect the language development of English learners. The results show that, during the process of this research, the students were highly motivated for reading and in that way improved their interactional skills in English. They experienced a different atmosphere of practicing language. They had similar tasks as they had before but this time for a more realistic purpose and in a more authentic environment.

Overview

Nowadays, nearly all EFL coursebooks compete to include the most up-to-date and interesting texts for the target age group, while on the other hand the fiction literature has a treasure of themes which, relate more to our everyday lives. All this goes against what most English language learners and many English teachers as well believe: poems, short stories, and plays do not have a major role in classrooms aimed at developing communicative competence in English, and literary texts are

only for advanced learners. In reality, most students often think that the study of English literature is boring and difficult. This problematic situation might be the result of not teaching literature in the right way. Most English learners think that studying literature is definitely not the right way to develop either language skills or interest into literature.

Today, most of the foreign language teachers, are in search of specific learning approaches that have strong student centered components like cooperative and collaborative learning. In this article, the term 'literature circles' in the EFL classroom refers to; small groups of students reading the same piece of literature to accomplish different tasks like preparing questions, reporting challenging vocabulary, finding cultural items, determining the well written parts or making connections with the contemporary society.

The members of the groups later come together in the classroom to have a discussion under the supervision of their English teacher on the piece of literature they covered.

Being greatly influenced by the effect of these literature circles on L1 classes, a research was conducted at a high school in Sofia, Bulgaria to find out more about how teachers can increase the student interaction and adapt literature circles into EFL classes to increase foreign language competence.

The main question arising from the problem at this stage was: Is there an effective way to use literature in the EFL classroom? The research also focused on how much the student interaction in an EFL class could be encouraged through literature circles.

Background

The idea of 'Literature Circles in EFL' initially came from the adult 'book clubs' defined as a group of people who meet regularly to discuss the specific book they have read and share their opinions, likes or dislikes about it.

Similarly, as DaLie explains, a 'literature circle' is a students' equivalent of an adult book club in the L1 English classroom. The aim is to encourage student-choice and a love of reading in young people. According to DaLie, the true intent of Literature Circles is "to allow students to practice and develop the skills and strategies of good readers" in English as their native language.

'Literature Circles' are small groups of students who gather to discuss a piece of literature in depth. The discussion is guided by students' response to what they have read. Schlick Noe & Johnson further explain that, you may hear talks about events and characters in the book, the author's craft, or personal experiences related to the story. As a key element of the English L1 classes in US, Daniels explains 'Literature Circles' as a form of independent reading, structured as collaborative small groups, and guided by reader-response principles in light of current comprehension research.

On the EFL side of the picture, Furr, literature circles in EFL are magic in that they have the power to transform 'Foreign Language Learners' from passive, rather shy, reticent students into students who eagerly point at their texts in order to support their arguments while sharing their opinions in English!

Aims

Based on all the above-mentioned issues related to the difficulty of implementing literature in EFL classes, the initial aim with this research was to find out how literature circles stimulate the social interaction among language learners and promote the collaborative learning in the EFL classroom.

Wendy C. Kasten believes that literature circles promote peer discussions, negotiation of ideas, and the expression of comprehension, which is a feature that is most common in literature circles. As it is clear that classroom interaction and social learning will appeal to teachers and researchers who have an interest in classroom discourse, this research tends to find out more about the extent and importance of literary discourse in foreign language acquisition and the need and importance of literary texts for a comprehensive attainment of higher levels of language skills.

'Literature Circles in EFL' study can be important on the grounds that, with greater needs on improving foreign language learning and skills development for general language competency and exam preparation, there is a need for a research into the process underlying the performance and literary materials used to stimulate the student interaction in foreign language classes through collaborative work on literature circles.

As Nunan states, this kind of research can provide guidance for teacher education, instructional materials, and curriculum development.

Research

The main issues the research intends to investigate and expects to find out are mainly focused on the responses and findings of the following major research questions: What language interactions and classroom discourse are taking place in literature circles and how might this affect the language development of foreign language learners? The intended research further aims to discover if teaching of literature or literary texts makes language acquisition more 'use-focused' instead of 'form-focused' and if it is beneficial to include literature or literary texts in EFL curriculum at all the stages of language learning in general.

The primary research rationale suggests that, as a balanced element of the school curriculum, literature circles can provide an exciting way to promote student engagement in social interaction and improve foreign language learning by means of cooperative learning and collaborative work and offer the potential to promote reading for enjoyment.

It is suggested by Schlick Noe & Johnson that 'Literature Circles' are easy to fit into a comprehensive literacy program as a way for students to apply what they are learning about reading and writing.

Methodology

Searching for a suitable research methodology for the project, Lemke's statements were found the most helpful, where he embraces a social perspective on language that sees schools not as 'knowledge delivery systems' but as social institutions

in which people affect each other's lives. He argues that classroom education is talk. "It is the social use of language to enact regular activity structures and to share systems of meaning among teachers and students".

This research project mainly focuses on literature circles, which Daniels describes as a quite sophisticated and highly evolved part of the wider collaborative learning movement. Before making a distinction between cooperative and collaborative learning, we should know that, the act of learning takes place in social interactions through joint, collaborative activity. As Baquedano-López states, learning takes place first at the social level which is 'the inter-personal level' and is later appropriated by the individual one which is 'the intra-personal level'. Daniels introduces a distinction between 'cooperative learning', which is mainly used to describe traditional skills-oriented school tasks assigned by teachers to student groups, and 'collaborative learning', which is preferred for more higher-order, student-centered and open-ended activities. To find the relation between literature circles and communicative and cooperative learning, we depart from Raphael and Gavelek's view that 'literature circles' can be traced to the idea of cooperative learning study groups where students work collaboratively on specific projects or tasks. As it is also mentioned by Ernst-Slavit, Carrison,

& Spiesman-Laughlin, literature circles provide opportunities for oral language and literacy growth for all students, including English language learners. Many teachers, however, are hesitant to use this instructional approach with students who are learning English.

On the one hand, it is generally difficult to make a distinction between cooperative and collaborative learning methods at the beginning. When we consider the advantages of small group structure and active student participation in collaborative and cooperative tasks over passive, lecture based teaching, the two terms seem quite close in meaning. In both ways learning is supported by a discovery based approach. Both methods require group skills and come with a framework upon which the group's activity resides, but cooperative learning is usually more structurally defined than collaborative learning.

On the other hand, experts define the differences between these methodologies as one of knowledge and power, as Rockwood explains. It can be concluded that cooperative learning is based on foundational knowledge while collaborative learning is more on the constructionist's view that knowledge is a social construct. Cooperative learning requires the instructor as the center of authority and is usually more closed-ended and usually has specific answers. In comparison, collaborative learning does not entail the instructor's authority and requires small groups which are often given more open-ended, complex tasks.

Participants

The study was conducted on two groups of students at a private high school in Sofia, Bulgaria. The first group consisted of 34 (fourteen-year-old) teenagers in eight-grade and the second group included 33 (eighteen-year-old) young adults in twelfth-grade. The aforementioned high school is an English language profile school, where eight-grade is a preparatory year with 21 hours of English language instruction weekly,

starting from elementary level up to the intermediate throughout the year. In the school, starting from the ninth-grade onwards, the language of instruction for math, physics, chemistry and biology is English as well. Twelfth-grade is the graduation year, when students study intensively to get ready for university entrance exams such as, State-Graduation-Exam, TOEFL, IELTS or SAT. Because of these reasons English language is the most crucial subject for those age groups. The school has a multicultural setting as there are many students from different nationalities and family backgrounds. The class sizes are rather small with an average of 15 students per class.

Data collection

The research was planned to explain how to increase student interaction which leads to better learning of foreign languages and the way language can be integrated into the activity routines of the classroom. So the data which is necessary for the research was planned to be collected by methods of analyzing classroom interaction which involves the analysis of classroom talk during the literature circles. To achieve this, a classroom observation form for the teacher was chosen which complies with Bales' Interaction Process Analysis System (IPA). Later, the data collected was interpreted according to (IPA) system and was exposed to conceptual theoretical work which led to further relevant data collection or writing conclusions for the research.

About the choice of data collection during classroom observations, Nunan states that, although formal experiments are widely used to collect evidence on language learning and use, they are comparatively rare in genuine classrooms which

have been constituted for teaching purposes, not for the purpose of data collection. On the other hand, as Ellis describes the empirical research of L2 classrooms, he mentions that an ethnographic study of interaction would be suitable for the classroom interaction and L2 acquisition whose goal is to test a number of hypotheses relating to how interacting in the classroom contributes to L2 acquisition and to explore which types of interaction best facilitate acquisition.

Considering all this, to decide on a method for the research, a flexible qualitative method which allows greater adaptation of the interaction between the teacher and the students seemed to be the best method for class observation among such a small participant group. In this way the teacher would be able to ask more open-ended questions when necessary and the participants would be free to respond in their own words instead of just saying simply 'yes' or 'no'.

The source for the data was primarily collected via semi structured methods such as the video recordings of the literature circles, stimulated-recall sessions followed by interviews and questionnaires filled in by students and teachers notes on the discussions conducted in class. The two main variables being observed will be classroom activities like; activity type, participant organization, content, student modality and materials and classroom language like; use of target language, information gap, sustained speech, reaction to code or message, incorporation of preceding utterance, discourse initiation and relative restriction of linguistic form mentioned as the communicative orientation of language teaching by Nunan.

In addition, because of the less formal relation between the researcher and participants, they responded more elaborately and in greater detail. The researcher also had the opportunity to respond immediately to what participants said by tailoring subsequent questions with the information the participant had provided. Related to this, it is believed that by conducting a qualitative research, some new ideas and a hypothesis may be generated for a later quantitative research.

Data analysis

The main focus of the analysis was the continuous observation of communication patterns in literature circles. The main concern was over how these variables affected the language development of foreign language learners. For the analysis of the collected data, Bales' Interaction Process Analysis (IPA) system was used especially to identify and record the nature of each separate act in ongoing group interaction. IPA is devised by Bales for the continuous observation of communication patterns in interactive groups. It is mainly based on the assumption that group success depends on both how well the group can solve its tasks (task function) and how satisfied it can keep its members (socio-emotional function). Bales identified 12 interactional "moves" in four categories: (1) socio-emotional positive (shows solidarity, tension reduction, agreement); (2) socio-emotional negative (shows antagonism, tension, disagreement); (3) task-related attempted solutions (gives suggestions, opinions, orientation); and (4) task-related questions (asks for suggestions, opinions, orientation). At least one rater observes each group member, and scores occurrences of each interactional "move." This method has been used in a

variety of settings, and is a reliable and useful way to analyze group interactions according to Antony S.R. Manstead.

After analyzing the classroom interaction during the reading circles according to Bales' IPA system and gathering the information from the interviews and questionnaires, it is clearly seen that literature circles stimulate the student interaction in terms of Bales' criteria in a dramatic way. This probably must have been the reason why Furr calls 'magic' to define literature circles.

Limitations

Some of the drawbacks that the research suffered from can be summarized as the limited number of students to be accessed. To provide enough detailed evidence for such a study, the number of participants was kept reasonably small. The reason for such a low number has been the fact that the participants were mainly chosen to provide an authentic classroom atmosphere to be observed and evaluated in relation to the determined criteria. The main variables observed can be listed under the 'classroom activities' and 'classroom language' headings which are explained in the methodology chapter in detail.

Another drawback has been the limited control over the instructional process and observing the learning outcomes in relation to the broadness of the issue. As the study intends to observe the student interaction in a foreign language learning environment, teacher involvement has been kept at minimum not to interfere with the authentic atmosphere of student interaction during the discussions. The meticulous observation

process has also been quite difficult taking all the related criteria into consideration.

But still, considering all these drawbacks, we can say that the results reached with this study open a way for a future quantitative research over literature circles in EFL.

Findings

When the first half of the school year was over, a survey was conducted which consisted of four sections. The criterion for the choice of the questionnaires was Bales' Interaction Process Analysis system. For this purpose the "Literature Circles in Action - Lesson Plans" questionnaires were found the most appropriate. The four sections of the survey each focus on a different area of the study. These include questionnaires related to: self-assessment of the participants; assessment of discussion groups; evaluation of the literature circles; and an evaluation guide for the discussion group with two open-ended questions. While evaluating the results, the averages were calculated over 40 participants' responses.

The first questionnaire was the "Self assessment of the Participants in Discussion Groups" which included ten statements. The participants preferred one of the three choices (very good, satisfactory, needs improving) to assess their performances in their discussions. The statements given are as follows:

- I shared my ideas and offered my suggestions
- I spoke clearly and slowly enough
- I answered others questions

- I remained on topic and helped the group stay focused
- I encouraged others to participate
- I disagreed without hurting others feelings
- I summarized or repeated my ideas when necessary
- I gave reasons for opinions
- I listened courteously and effectively
- I tried to understand and extend the suggestions of others

The results of this questionnaire gave us an overview of the self-confidence level of the participants in discussion groups. It is apparent from these results that participants feel quite self-confident especially about answering others' questions, disagreeing kindly and listening courteously and effectively. They also feel safe about keeping focused on topic, summarizing their ideas when necessary, and extending the suggestions of others. But on the other hand, it is also significant that they need to improve their skills of encouraging others to participate, giving reasons for their opinions, offering their suggestion and speaking clearly enough.

The second questionnaire was about the "Assessment of the Discussion Groups" which included five statements. The participants were asked to share their opinions (yes, no, sometimes) on these statements to assess the specific discussion group environment. The statements are as follows:

- Everyone participates and shares in the discussion process. Communication is interactive.

- The group is supportive of its individual members. Group climate promotes friendliness.
- Group members often ask questions for clarification or elaboration.
- The group discussion stays on topic, or on directly related issues.
- The group is energetic and enthusiastic.

The results of this questionnaire gave an understanding of the effectiveness of literature circles as discussion groups. Data from this questionnaire reveals that participants believe that the group members often ask questions for clarification and the group discussion stays on topic. There is also a shared idea that the members should participate more and that they should be supportive of each other by encouraging their friends in need. What is interesting about these results is that nearly one fourth of the participants believe that the groups are not energetic and enthusiastic.

The third questionnaire was the "Literature Circles Evaluation" which gives a specific insight of the general values in literature circles. The participants chose one of the three responses (need to improve, do it, do it well) to assess the specific characteristics of the literature circles. The statements are as follows:

- preparation work done in notebook
- literature book at school, not at home
- reading completed
- ask questions to others
- offer my own ideas
- encourage and respect others' opinions

- make eye contact with others
- keep my voice at arm's length (not to disturb other participants)

The results of the third questionnaire make the participant's performance qualities clear in literature circles. From this data it is apparent that most participants are careful about the literature circle materials like the books or the journals. We also see here that, nearly all participants read their parts completely and keep eye contact with others during the discussions. In contrast, it is clear that there is an urgent need to improve students' question asking skills. Similarly the participants do not feel at ease encouraging and respecting their group members' ideas and they also agree that they should lower their voices.

The fourth questionnaire was the "Discussion Group Evaluation Form" which has two major open-ended writing tasks to find out what skills do participants believe that they are good at and most importantly, what skills do they think that are most crucial for literature circle discussions. The two open-ended writing tasks included are as follows:

- My overall rating of myself is as follows:
- I think the person who worked the hardest in my group is ... because:

The results of this questionnaire shows us firstly, the areas or skills that students feel most confident about and secondly what skills do they most value during the literature circle discussions.

Conclusion

This study has researched a new method of using literature in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) to stimulate the social interaction among language learners. A bottom up approach based on the observation of the classroom interaction and the conducting of a questionnaire survey has been presented, combining qualitative observation results with statistical information from the survey. The methods of using literature circles to practice foreign language show encouraging results for both teenagers and young adults and are efficient compared to other conventional techniques in EFL classrooms.

The main rationale for this research was to find out the benefits of using literature circles in English as a foreign language learning environments. The study has set out to determine the effects of these student reading groups on language learning as most of the foreign language learners find extensive reading boring and those classes are the most challenging ones for the teachers as well. One of the significant findings to emerge from this study was, if the literature circles help language learning through stimulation of the classroom atmosphere by having the teachers and students focus on the interaction patterns during the book discussion sessions. The suggested ideas with this research was that, the literature circles as a balanced element of the school curriculum can provide an exciting way to promote student engagement in extensive reading by means of cooperative learning and collaborative work and offer the potential to promote reading for enjoyment. The main focus of the analysis part was the contrast in interactions and classroom discourse taking place in literature circles and regular alternative extensive reading

classes. The main concern was concentrated on how these variables affect the language development of English learners. The main variables observed were 'classroom activities' like, activity type, participant organization, content, student modality and materials and 'classroom language' like, the use of target language, information gaps, sustained speech, reaction to code or message, incorporation of preceding utterances, discourse initiation and relative restrictions of linguistic forms.

The results of the study presented in the findings chapter clearly show that the development of the classroom interaction assists language learning and literature circles is an effective way of bringing the classroom interaction to life. If we take the reflections of the student and the results of the observations into consideration, it is evident that the implication of literature circles is a rather different procedure compared to ordinary classroom instruction. Literature circles bring excitement and energy into the language classroom. During this study the participants enjoyed the sense of responsibility for their own learning and decided to improve their interaction skills to become better English language learners.

As for the benefits in EFL classes, it is also observed that literature circles facilitate learning by giving students an opportunity to share opinions in a specially designed classroom atmosphere, practicing situations very similar to real life experiences. I believe that the effectiveness of this method is greatly dependent on the teacher's motivation. If the teacher manages to produce a collaborative learning environment with the suitable materials, I believe that the

students will be readily eager to participate and support the shared experience and knowledge created in the classroom.

One of the more significant findings to emerge from this study is that the students were motivated to reading and by this means improved their foreign language skills during the process of this research. They experienced a different atmosphere of practicing language. They did similar assignments as they did before but this time for a more realistic purpose and in a more authentic environment.

The implications of this research for the EFL teachers would be appalling as the study promotes after class extensive reading and development of discussion skills through the encouragement of interaction patterns which many teachers are after. The limitations encountered during the study were the small number of participants in a real school environment which is not appropriate for an experimental quantitative study. That is why a qualitative study was preferred to build on observations and questionnaires. But the results derived from the classroom observations and participant questionnaires provide enough background for a further study. Other disadvantages were the high number of variables to be observed and again limited control over the instructional process and observing the learning outcomes in relation to the broadness of the issue.

Although this study is based on the classroom interaction as the criteria to be observed in literature circles, future studies may focus on some other variables like the development of reading and writing skills, or even grammar and vocabulary improvement through literature circles. Moreover, by using

some other research methods, the results of this study may be compared with the findings of those other studies which will use different research methods. It would increase the validity and reliability issues in the findings. In addition to these points, the research could further explore the development of materials and procedures appropriate for different purposes or levels of competency in foreign languages. This study has gathered supporting ideas related to the similar research projects. This impact will provide the language teachers to be interested in the subject more and try similar applications which will provide further evidence for future studies.

As a result, it is clear that the teachers and learners have problems regarding the usage of literary texts in EFL classes and the solution requires a new point of view on the teaching of literature both by teachers and by textbooks. The results of such a study can motivate the teachers to use the literature resources more effectively encouraging real life interaction in the classroom. For instance, in accordance with the findings of the study, it can be suggested that teaching with the help of reading texts should not be limited to only fiction literature. As well as the novels and short stories, some other texts like fact files should also be adapted for the discussion groups. Originating from the results of this study further research can be done by collecting more quantitative data on the subject. Maybe, some experimental quantitative research designs would be suitable for this purpose.

As teachers and educators, there are many questions waiting to be dealt with in front of us like, "Are there more opportunities we can provide our students with for a better learning environment?" or "What are the contemporary modals

of professional teacher development?" I strongly believe that this study has put another brick on the literature circle studies in the field, contributing to the growth of this collaborative work.

Natural approach

The **natural approach** is a method of language teaching developed by Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terrell in the late 1970s and early 1980s. It aims to foster naturalistic language acquisition in a classroom setting, and to this end it emphasises communication, and places decreased importance on conscious grammar study and explicit correction of student errors. Efforts are also made to make the learning environment as stress-free as possible. In the natural approach, language output is not forced, but allowed to emerge spontaneously after students have attended to large amounts of comprehensible language input.

The natural approach has become closely associated with Krashen's monitor model, and it is often seen as an application of the theory to language teaching. Despite this perception, there are some differences, particularly Terrell's view that some degree of conscious grammar study can be beneficial. The syllabus focuses on activities which Terrell sees as promoting subconscious language acquisition.

He divides these activities into four main areas: content activities, such as learning a new subject in the target language; activities which focus on personalizing language, such as students sharing their favorite music; games; and problem-solving activities.

Background

The natural approach was originally created in 1977 by Terrell, a Spanish teacher in California, who wished to develop a style of teaching based on the findings of naturalistic studies of second-language acquisition. After the original formulation, Terrell worked with Krashen to further develop the theoretical aspects of the method. Terrell and Krashen published the results of their collaboration in the 1983 book *The Natural Approach*.

The natural approach was strikingly different from the mainstream approach in the United States in the 1970s and early 1980s, the audio-lingual method. While the audio-lingual method prized drilling and error correction, these things disappeared almost entirely from the natural approach. Terrell and Krashen themselves characterized the natural approach as a "traditional" method and contrasted it with grammar-based approaches, which they characterized as new inventions that had "misled" teachers.

The natural approach shares many features with the direct method (itself also known as the "natural method"), which was formulated around 1900 and was also a reaction to grammar-translation.

Both the natural approach and the direct method are based on the idea of enabling naturalistic language acquisition in the language classroom; they differ in that the natural approach puts less emphasis on practice and more on exposure to language input and on reducing learners' anxiety.

Outline

The aim of the natural approach is to develop communicative skills, and it is primarily intended to be used with beginning learners. It is presented as a set of principles that can apply to a wide range of learners and teaching situations, and concrete objectives depend on the specific context in which it is used. Terrell outlines three basic principles of the approach:

- "Focus of instruction is on communication rather than its form."
- "Speech production comes slowly and is never forced."
- "Early speech goes through natural stages (yes or no response, one- word answers, lists of words, short phrases, complete sentences.)"

These principles result in classrooms where the teacher emphasizes interesting, comprehensible input and low-anxiety situations. Lessons in the natural approach focus on understanding messages in the foreign language, and place little or no importance on error correction, drilling or on conscious learning of grammar rules. They also emphasize learning of a wide vocabulary base over learning new grammatical structures. In addition, teachers using the natural approach aim to create situations in the classroom that are intrinsically motivating for students.

Terrell sees learners going through three stages in their acquisition of speech: comprehension, early speech, and speech emergence. In the comprehension stage Terrell focuses on students' vocabulary knowledge. His aim is to make the

vocabulary stick in students' long term memory, a process which he calls *binding*. Terrell sees some techniques as more binding than others; for example, the use of gestures or actions, such as in total physical response, is seen to be more *binding* than the use of translation.

According to Terrell, students' speech will only emerge after enough language has been *bound* through communicative input. When this occurs, the learners enter the early speech stage. In this stage, students answer simple questions, use single words and set phrases, and fill in simple charts in the foreign language. In the speech emergence stage, students take part in activities requiring more advanced language, such as role-plays and problem-solving activities.

Theory

Although Terrell originally created the natural approach without relying on a particular theoretical model, his subsequent collaboration with Krashen has meant that the method is often seen as an application to language teaching of Krashen's monitor model. Krashen outlined five hypotheses in his model:

- The *acquisition-learning hypothesis*. This states that there is a strict separation between conscious *learning* of language and subconscious *acquisition* of language, and that only *acquisition* can lead to fluent language use.
- The *monitor hypothesis*. This states that language knowledge that is consciously learned can only be used to *monitor* output, not to generate new

language. Monitoring output requires learners to be focused on the rule and to have time to apply it.

- The *input hypothesis*. This states that language is acquired by exposure to comprehensible input at a level a little higher than that the learner can already understand. Krashen names this kind of input "i+1".
- The *natural order hypothesis*. This states that learners acquire the grammatical features of a language in a fixed order, and that this is not affected by instruction.
- The *affective filter hypothesis*. This states that learners must be relaxed and open to learning in order for language to be acquired. Learners who are nervous or distressed may not learn features in the input that more relaxed learners would pick up with little effort.

Despite its basis in Krashen's theory, the natural approach does not adhere to the theory strictly. In particular, Terrell perceives a greater role for the conscious learning of grammar than Krashen. Krashen's monitor hypothesis contends that conscious learning has no effect on learners' ability to generate new language, whereas Terrell believes that some conscious learning of grammar rules can be beneficial.

Syllabus

Terrell outlines four categories of classroom activities that can facilitate language *acquisition* (as opposed to language *learning*):

- "Content (culture, subject matter, new information, reading, e.g. teacher tells interesting anecdote involving contrast between target and native culture.)"
- "Affective-humanistic (students' own ideas, opinions, experiences, e.g. students are asked to share personal preferences as to music, places to live, clothes, hair styles, etc.)"
- "Games [focus on using language to participate in the game, e.g. 20 questions: I, the teacher, am thinking of an object in this room. You, students, have twenty questions to guess the object. Typical questions: is it clothing? (yes) is it for a man or a woman? (woman) is it a skirt? (yes) is it brown? (yes) is it Ellen's skirt? (yes)]"
- "Problem solving (focus on using language to locate information, use information, etc., e.g. looking at this listing of films in the newspaper, and considering the different tastes and schedule needs in the group, which film would be appropriate for all of us to attend, and when?)"

Reception

The natural approach enjoyed much popularity with language teachers, particularly with Spanish teachers in the United States. Markee (1997) puts forward four reasons for the success of the method. First, he says that the method was simple to understand, despite the complex nature of the research involved. Second, it was also compatible with the knowledge about second-language acquisition at the time. Third, Krashen stressed that teachers should be free to try the

method, and that it could go alongside their existing classroom practices. Finally, Krashen demonstrated the method to many teachers' groups, so that they could see how it would work in practice.

Paderborn method

The **Paderborn method for language teaching**, also known as the **Paderborn method** or **Paderborn model** is a method for teaching foreign languages, originally conceived for children's education. It consists in first teaching a simple language (Esperanto), then two years later teaching a second language. Many studies confirmed that learning a complete and easy propaedeutical language helps in later learning a more difficult one with no lost time, indeed with gain of it.

The effectiveness of this method was empirically noticed in different studies of the last century. Prof. Helmar Frank, of the University of Paderborn's Institute of Pedagogic Cybernetics, scientifically proved the method's efficacy; his study gave the name to this method.

History of the method

Many adults who learned Esperanto had noticed that they could better understand the grammar of their own mother tongue and foreign languages — thanks to having come to know this simple, planned language with its transparent grammar — and started to think that such a language could have propaedeutical value in language teaching.

Other experiments

This consideration led to many independent experiments being done in Hungary, Great Britain and other countries. Some of the most significant were:

- **1918-1921** - Female middle school in Bishop Auckland (GB). Esperanto taught as propaedeutical language for French and German
- **1934-1935** - Public high school in New York
- **1947-1951** - Provincial grammar school in Sheffield (GB), focused on help received by less intelligent students
- **1948-1965** - Egerton Park School, Denton (Manchester, GB).
- **1958-1963** - Somero (Finland), Esperanto used as propaedeutical language for German
- **1971-1974**, 1975-1977 - The International League of Esperanto Teachers (ILEI), encouraged by previous studies, coordinated international studies, the first in Hungary and the second in Belgium, France, Greece, West Germany and the Netherlands. In 1977 the students met in an educational week, where they learnt about various topics in Esperanto.
- **Late 1970s to early 1980s** - Paderborn experiment (more details below). Experimental observation of two different groups of students focused on the differences in learning of the two groups.
- **1983-1988** - After Paderborn other experiments compared two different groups of students — for example, in the primary school "Rocca", in San Salvatore di Cogorno (Italy) — with similar results.

Experiment in University of Paderborn

Under the supervision of Helmar Frank, a professor at the Institute of Cybernetics of Paderborn, two groups of pupils (A and B), both with German as mother tongue, were created in a primary school. The aim was to prove the propaedeutical value of Esperanto for learning English (and in general, any other foreign language).

Group A started to learn English from the third year of study, while group B in the same year started to learn Esperanto (160 hours); group B also started to learn English after two years (i.e., in the fifth year of study). Although group B studied English two years less than group A did, by the seventh year the two groups reached the same level in English, while in the eighth year of school the English level of group B was more advanced than that of group A. The study demonstrated not only that group B gained linguistic skills with English, but also that group members could use two languages instead of only one. Because all the pupils had a Germanic language (German) as their mother tongue, the help they got from Esperanto was not a result of its greater similarity to English than to German. In addition to cultural gains, the saving of time and resources resulted in an educational saving as well.

Hypotheses

There could be many reasons why this method works, notice also that in the following only Esperanto is mentioned, because this method uses it, but it is likely that another very easy planned language with similar features could be employed instead.

- Esperanto is extremely regular and transparent. For example, to make the plural form of a word the ending -j is used, and this rule has no exceptions (as, for example, the English *tooth–teeth* or the Italian *ginocchio–ginocchia*). Verbs, adverbs, nouns, and adjectives are marked by a particular ending (e.g., all adjectives end with -a and all nouns with -o); so the difference between these parts of speech is passively learned by the student. When they start learning another language, it is then easier to explain to them what an adjective and a noun is. In addition, Esperanto is an agglutinative language, and this involves the student in active use of the lexicon.
- Teaching this language, that is the *whole* grammar of a language in a short time, one helps the students to make a comparison between their mother tongue and Esperanto. This comparison can be used consciously or unconsciously when learning a more complex language. This can be compared to observing a model engine for students who need to learn how a complex engine works (and in addition, Esperanto is a completely working language, not just a simplified language model).
- The grammar is minimal, so children can start using it actively (in speaking and writing) pretty soon. This allows them to keep their initial enthusiasm that is usually lost after the first encounter with a foreign language that needs to be studied for many years before being able to express mere basic sentences. This would give them self-confidence, and when a

new language study is started, it is seen as something easily achievable as it was for Esperanto.

- On the other side, a failure in learning a foreign language or the difficulties experienced during the first impact with it (as any other subject) can traumatize the student and reduce their self-confidence in their own language skills. It is possible to create simple sentences since the very first lessons of Esperanto, avoiding this trauma.
- The sooner one can use the language, the sooner the language can be used in meeting foreign people and this stimulates the interest of the student in other cultures and other languages.

Other hypotheses are discussed by Claude Piron in some of his articles.

Peer feedback

Peer feedback is a practice where feedback is given by one student to another. Peer feedback provides students opportunities to learn from each other. After students finish a writing assignment but before the assignment is handed in to the instructor for a grade, the students have to work together to check each other's work and give comments to the peer partner.

Comments from peers are called as peer feedback. Peer feedback can be in the form of corrections, opinions, suggestions, or ideas to each other. Ideally, peer feedback is a two-way process in which one cooperates with the other.

Definition

Peer feedback involves providing opportunities for students to talk and listen, write, read meaningfully, and reflect on the content, ideas, issues, and concerns of an academic subject. Peer feedback can be defined as "a communication process through which learners enter into dialogues related to performance and standards." Peers should look for missing details, ask questions about parts that are confusing, and praise what they enjoyed. Peer feedback may be referred to by many terms such as peer evaluation, peer critiquing, peer editing, or peer response. Some researchers consider peer feedback as an effective technique for the development of the students' writing. Others prefer instructor feedback to peer feedback.

Benefits

According to Atay and Kurt, there are positive effects to peer feedback in a classroom setting. First, it provides diversity with teaching compared with the traditional way of giving teacher feedback. In peer feedback sessions, students do not just listen to teacher instructions, but work with their peers and tend to get more practice. Students' anxiety may become lower which can increase learning motivation.

Second, sharing opinions with peers is helpful in building and increasing one's confidence. Clearly expressing what one is trying to say requires confidence and sufficient knowledge; people need to self dress what to say with their own knowledge or experiences. Thus, giving useful feedback definitely

strengthens one's confidence. Moreover, peer feedback helps student to take more responsibilities in learning process. Besides doing assignments, students have to read others' work carefully as well so that one is not only responsible for his/her own work but also the others'.

When peer feedback is established it allows students to interact with their peers and creates high social skills while learning material more effectively. Interaction with other students allows students to have better social approaches when interacting. Learning by peer feedback gives students more of an opportunity to work as a unit instead of individuals working alone. Working in groups gives students more useful life skill that well help prepare them for the future. Peer feedback gives more control to the student, the student can decide if they want to use the criticism their peers are giving them or not. When given options more students are more likely to give and absorb more feedback. Peer feedback has confirmed an increase in affect; students that have increasing responsibilities have more drive towards their work and a spike in confidence. Furthermore, Kristanto (2018) found that peer feedback is an essential element of peer assessment. In peer assessment, feedback from peers can provide suggestions or correction for students' future works as companion of the received grade.

In addition, peer feedback reduces writing anxiety, especially in ESL students, and in effect improves the quality of their writing. Student’s awareness of their mistakes through their friend's opinions and the collaboration reduces anxiety. Peer feedback enlightens student's awareness of the similar difficulties and weaknesses in writing their peers encounter

and eventually motivates and builds their self-confidence, reducing writing anxiety. Peer feedback effectively compliments teacher feedback for quality writing According to Jahin (2012) ESL students enjoy "social, cognitive, affective, and methodological benefits". Peer feedback thereby offers students a sense of audience, which increases their motivation and confidence in writing. The multiple reviews through peer feedback improve the quality of the ESL student's writing. Hussein and Al Ashri (2013) explained that peer feedback can skill students into excellent writers as student's apprehension to write the first time, eventually melts away.

Also, peer review is helpful because it develops students and makes them read and comment on each other to improve the process of writing with their peers. They can all feel the joy of sharing their comments and their writing within the group. Therefore, students become more confidence about their writing.

However, Urzua reminds us of how crucial is the question of training learners to cope with the task of evaluating their peers. Students may not be able to ask constructive questions for redrafting.

Limitations

However, there are some drawbacks of peer feedback, too. According to Connor and Asenavage's study in 1994, they found that teacher feedback has more influences on students' writing work. Only 5 percent of peer feedback influences the work. Students respect and respond more to their teacher's feedback rather than their peers' feedback, and they often take

peer feedback for granted so that they do not make corrections based on it. Thus, the teachers' strict requirement on students to do revisions is crucial for how students treat either teacher feedback or peer feedback.

In addition, some students actually lack ability to give peer feedback owing to insufficient knowledge. In this case, students hardly learn from others, so peer feedback loses track of its original rationale to help the other get improvement.

Need for additional training

However, it is noted in several studies the difficulty in having students self-assess. One of the greatest difficulties is the accuracy of scores. Orsmond, Merry, and Reiling (1997) found that students often misjudged their assessments. Using a science class assessment project, they compared students' self-assessment scores with those of the teacher. They found that there was an overall disagreement between the markings of 86%, with 56% of students over-marking and 30% under-marking. They also noted a general trend of poor students tending to over-mark their work while the good students tended to under-mark their work.

Sadler (1989) counteracts these difficulties by emphasizing the need for teacher to pass the responsibility of assessment to the student through a process of students becoming a trainee in assessment. The teacher's role is to guide the student in critical evaluation of their learning. Providing guided but direct and authentic evaluative experience for students enables them to develop their evaluative knowledge, thereby bringing them within the guild of people who are able to determine quality

using multiple criteria. It also enables transfer of some of the responsibility for making decisions from teacher to learner.

A study by McDonald and Boud (2003) investigated whether introducing self-assessment training would affect student learning, specifically on how they perform on external measures of achievement. Teachers were trained in self-assessment practices and then they introduced the practices to their students. In the end, both the student and the teachers responded well to the self-assessment practices. On average, students who were trained in self-assessment strategies outperformed their peers in all curriculum are assessments. The students also reported that the practices were not only helpful on the external assessments, but that they also impacted their perceptions of their classroom learning.

This was reaffirmed by Orsmond, Merry, and Reiling (2000) who implemented a method of student self and peer assessment involving student constructed marking criteria with a poster presentation in a biology class. In an evaluative questionnaire at the end of the project, 84% of students stated the exercise (self-assessment reflective practices) had been beneficial, made them think more and become more critical. Some 68% of the students felt they had learned more and had gained confidence.

Impact of cultural differences

Based on Allaei and Connor's finding (1990), students' view of peer feedback can be very different due to cultural differences, so the effectiveness of using peer feedback will not be the same in different situations. For example, Chinese students learning

English are more likely to welcome peer feedback than people from western countries because Chinese culture encourages working together and maintaining harmony in a group. In contrast, the Western culture encourages individual study. Therefore, it is assumed that peer feedback may be more useful in Chinese learning environment than in Western countries.

Dora Sakayan

Dora Sakayan (classical Armenian orthography: ԴորաՍաքայեան*Dora Sak'ayean*; reformed: ԴորաՍաքայան*Dora Sak'ayan*; born January 24, 1931), Professor of German Studies (retired), McGill University. Specializing initially as a Germanist, today she is also known for her work in various areas of Applied Linguistics and Armenology. Sakayan is notedfor pioneering Armenology in Canada and for her books and articles published in her series "Armenian Studies for the English-speaking World."

Life, education and career

Sakayan was born in 1931 in Salonica, Greece, to Armenian parents who had escaped the Armenian genocide. She grew up in a multilingual environment, with her first languages being Western Armenian and Modern Greek, and received early exposure to German, French and Turkish. After immigrating to Soviet Armenia, she received her education in Eastern Armenian and Russian. Later on, she mastered English and learned other languages.

Sakayan received her elementary education at the Armenian Gulabi Gulbenkian School in Salonica. She then attended the

local German high school Deutsche Schule Saloniki. She was 11 years old when her family moved to Vienna, Austria, where she pursued her high school education at the Gymnasium for girls in the 7th District of Vienna "Oberschule für Mädchen, Wien VII."

In 1946, Sakayan's family repatriated to Soviet Armenia where she completed her secondary education. In 1948, she was admitted to the Yerevan State Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages (YSPL) where she graduated with a diploma in Germanic linguistics and in Pedagogy in 1952. She was then appointed as an instructor of German at YSPL, where she taught from 1952 to 1956. In 1957, she was invited to teach in the Department of Romance and Germanic Philology at Yerevan State University (YSU, 1956–1958).

Sakayan began her graduate studies in Germanic philology in 1958 at the Lomonosov Moscow State University (LMSU) and graduated in 1961. Over the following four years, she shared her time between Moscow and Yerevan to pursue her teaching duties in Germanic Philology at YSU and complete her PhD thesis while raising her two young children. She obtained her PhD in Germanic Philology from Moscow Lomonosov University in 1965.

In 1965, Sakayan became Head of the Department of Foreign languages of YSU, a position she held for ten years. At the same time, she lectured in the Department of Romance-Germanic Philology of YSU.

Sakayan immigrated to Canada in January 1975 and began to teach German at two universities: McGill University, (Department of German Studies) and the Université de

Montréal (Department of Études des langues anciennes et modernes). In 1977, she was offered a full-time position at McGill and left Université de Montréal. Due to her high ratings as an instructor of German at McGill, in 1978 she was offered a joint appointment with the Department of Russian and Slavic Studies where she taught for ten years. Over the years, Sakayan rose to the rank of Full Professor at McGill University.

In 1981, Sakayan began her groundbreaking work in Armenian Studies at McGill. At the Centre of Continuing Education, she founded and supervised a program of credited Armenian courses anchored in the Department of Russian and Slavic Studies. She edited and prepared for publication a number of Armenological manuscripts of linguistic, literary and historic interest, translated several books and articles from Armenian into other languages and vice versa, and made book tours. She became a regular participant at international Armenological conferences and congresses, and she also organized Armenological conferences in Canada and Armenia. Seeing her mission in presenting Armenian language and culture to non-Armenians, she founded the series "Armenian Studies for the English Speaking World" and published a number of scholarly books and articles under this heading. To promote the publication of her Armenological books, in 1997 she founded a small press under the name AROD Books in Montreal.

After 25 years of service at McGill University, Sakayan retired from the Department of German Studies in 2000 and dedicated herself fully to Armenian Studies. She renewed her ties with Yerevan State University, where she regularly spends a few months every year, participating in scholarly projects, organizing international linguistic conferences, publishing her

books with YSU Press and organizing book launches at YSU and elsewhere in Armenia. Among many activities in her homeland, one is especially noteworthy: for more that 15 years, and in collaboration with her former student, Evelina Makaryan, who has recently retired, Sakayan has translated several books related to the Armenian genocide from German into Armenian.

At the same time, Sakayan continues the promotion of Armenian Studies in Canada. In 2005, she founded an Armenian language program at the Diocese of the Armenian Apostolic Church in Montreal, carrying on a tradition that she established more than three decades ago (in 1981) at the Centre of Continuing Education at McGill University.

Works

Contrastive grammar

As a Germanist and educator in the East European tradition, Sakayan has received training in Germanic linguistics and language pedagogy. This background has led her to applied linguistics, and from the great variety of its interdisciplinary branches Sakayan has concentrated on the following areas: a) contrastive linguistics, b) foreign language acquisition, c) translation studies.

Sakayan includes into the contrastive discussion, besides German, other Indo-European languages: Russian, English, French, and Modern Greek. As an innovation, she also includes Armenian, a non-European language whose agglutinative properties set it apart from other languages in the Indo-

European family. In fact, in Sakayan's work, contrastive analysis is predominantly based on Armenian, and other languages are viewed through the prism of this language. The objectives of such an endeavor are to establish language typologies and to identify areas of difficulty in foreign language acquisition. Her work also incorporates the findings of Armenian and Russian data — not always accessible to Western linguists.

Sakayan introduces to the Western reader the idiosyncrasies of Eastern Armenian morphology and syntax, with a special focus on the verb system and its rich paradigm of non-finite verb forms, called *derbays* (դերբայ = participle). Over the years, she has dealt extensively with East Armenian deverbal nominalizations, deriving from certain *derbays*: the Armenian infinitive and three participles: the present, past and the future participle. Within the framework of "Nominalizations of various degrees" Sakayan discusses the regular relative clause (RC), the 'relative participles' (RP based on the present, past and the future participle), as well and other phenomena of relativization in Eastern Armenian.

Sakayan contrasts Armenian clausal nominalizations with their semantic counterparts in a selective number of European languages. A noteworthy monograph in this respect is *Formen der Textkohärenz: Nominalisierung als sententiale Anapher im Ostarmenischen*. This book explores East Armenian clausal nominalizations that are based on the Armenian infinitive. Sakayan describes the transformation process of finite clauses into economical nominal phrases, gives the morphosyntactic characteristics of these nominalizations, identifies the

functions of the agglutinative segments in a synthetic nominalized infinitive (SNI).

Contrastive phraseology

Sakayan has also taken a keen interest in contrastive phraseology in the general sense of the term. Recognizing the importance of ready-made expressions in human communication, she has based her research on self-collected linguistic corpora of phraseological units, such as proverbs and sayings, idiomatic expressions, and routine formulae (gambits).

Sakayan has explored the reproduction of routine formulae (gambits) and their role for turn-taking in conversation and for organizing discourse She has created thematically and pragmatically grouped bilingual concordances of routine formulae (gambits) for language learning. See the use of such concordances in Sakayan's textbooks.

Sakayan's interest in proverbs resulted in a major paremiological study accompanied by a bilingual (Armenian-English), thematically arranged anthology of 2,500 proverbs. An extensive introduction addresses the language and structure, as well as the origin of Armenian proverbs (international, borrowed and specifically Armenian proverbs).

Contrastive paremiology being an ongoing project, Sakayan's next volume became a language-pair-oriented paremiological study with special focus on German-Armenian connections and discussions on cross-cultural translatability. In 2001, the German counterpart of this paremiological study appeared with a new introduction that provides an in-depth analysis of the

structure and language of Armenian proverbs. Along with the extreme conciseness of the Armenian proverbs, Sakayan points to their capacity to function in various sizes and shapes, from extremely short and compact units to more elaborate and wordy structures (e.g. dialogues). Some of them encapsulate people's everyday talk, citations of reported or direct speech. Since dialogue proverbs or dramatized proverbs are not a universal genre and can be found only in a few languages, Sakayan explores them extensively.

Foreign language acquisition

Sakayan's scholarly interest in foreign language acquisition is apparent not only in the titles of her published articles, but also in the list of authored and co-authored textbooks, instructional manuals and methodological guides, for the instruction of both German and Armenian as foreign languages Some of these projects demonstrate the benefits of applying the latest trends in linguistics to instructional development. In the 1960s and 1970s, while chairing the Department of Foreign Languages at Yerevan State University (YSU) in Soviet Armenia, Sakayan authored and co-authored several textbooks, manuals and methodological guides for the instruction of German in Armenian high schools and universities. However, in accordance with Soviet censorship rules that deprived expatriate authors of authorship, the production of all books carrying her name had to be discontinued after Sakayan's departure to Canada in 1975.

After resettling in Canada, Sakayan continued her research in Foreign Language Methodology. In close collaboration with Professor Christine Tessier of Université Laval in Quebec City,

Canada, Sakayan conducted the research project dedicated to German Stereotyped Speech Forms in Mini-Dialogues. Sakayan and Tessier laid the groundwork for a new method of communicative exercises that has received widespread recognition in the area of DaF (Deutsch als Fremdsprache, or German as a Foreign Language). The project resulted in a book called Rede und Antwort, widely used as a supplement to other DaF textbooks at universities; in 1991 it was declared in the AOL-Reference Manual as "a hit textbook for DaF."

The innovative method is based on the introduction of German Stereotyped Speech Forms, or gambits, known for their important role in languages while turn-taking in interaction. Gambits used at the beginning of an utterance are seen as cues that signal not only the illocutionary feature of an utterance, but also its syntactic-semantic unfolding. The method broadly applies speech act theory and text linguistics, as well as some insights of "grammar of expectancy," to the teaching of DaF. The Rede und Antwort exercises have proven to be an effective means for promoting oral skills in the classroom, which are readily applicable in real life-settings.

Inspired by the success of the Rede und Antwort, in the 1990s Sakayan launched and carried out a completely new project: an introductory university textbook for Western Armenian (Western Armenian for the English-speaking World: A Contrastive Approach). The textbook, which first appeared in 2000, draws on more recent achievements of linguistics in the instruction of Western Armenian. It demonstrates the great potential that contrastive linguistics has for the advancement of foreign language teaching by outlining Armenian-English contrasts throughout the course. It also applies the insights of

text linguistics and grammar of expectancy by enhancing the production of correct grammatical forms anticipated by the reproduction of certain ready-made routine formulae. The textbook is conceptualized pragmatically, enabling students to carry out speech acts fundamental for communication. Although grammar receives proper attention, other linguistic aspects such as word formation, semantic vocabulary groups, pronunciation, orthography, etc. are also treated on a regular basis. The textbook was received positively and was adopted by Armenian Studies Programs at universities and schools worldwide.

In 2007, Sakayan published a new Armenian textbook, this time on Eastern Armenian, also accompanied by a CD-Rom featuring Eastern Armenian native speakers. To bring the level of the existing Western Armenian textbook to that of its Eastern Armenian counterpart, in 2012 Sakayan published a second and revised edition (with CD-Rom).

Both titles are now published by YSU Press. They are consistent in methodology and structure, with a vast amount of linguistic material proportionally distributed among 12 Units, which each consist of 12 sections. These twin Armenian textbooks are considered to be the highlight of Sakayan's career, reflecting a lifetime of pedagogical and scholarly experience in foreign language teaching and research in applied linguistics.

Armenian genocide

Sakayan is also a major contributor to the study of the Armenian genocide. In 1993, she came across the journal of

her maternal grandfather, Dr. Garabed Hatcherian, and has since dedicated herself to its publication and dissemination. The journal is a chronicle of the Smyrna catastrophe of 1922, which describes how the ancient port city in Asia Minor was destroyed by a massive fire, whereby the entire Christian population was either massacred or forced to flee. The journal is also a detailed account of the hardship Dr. Hatcherian and his family of eight endured in September 1922. Dr. Hatcherian's diary is considered to be the most widely translated book about the Armenian genocide. So far, the journal has appeared in nine languages, three of which were translated by Sakayan, who is also the general editor of all editions. All volumes include a detailed biography of the author, a literary analysis of the journal in an expanded introduction, 52 annotations of an historical and cultural nature, an afterword, and a bibliography. The meticulous editorial work has made *An Armenian Doctor in Turkey* a book that has received a highly favorable international reception. Sakayan is also the editor-in-chief of an important book documenting the Armenian genocide: the newest edition of Theodik's (Theodoros Lapchindjian) book *Memorial to April 11* (Armenian: Յուշարձանապրիլ 11-ի- Hushartsan Abril 11-i), which was created with the assistance of renowned journalist and human-rights activist and publisher Ragip Zarakolu (Istanbul: Belge Publishers) and appeared in 2010. This book was first compiled and published in Turkish by Theodik in 1919 in Istanbul to pay tribute to the murdered intellectuals and community leaders of 1915—writers, journalists, editors, clergymen, academics, teachers, and jurists.

This latest edition of Theodik's “Hushartsan” (Memorial), published in commemoration of the 95th Anniversary of the

Armenian genocide, is a bilingual production (Armenian and Turkish) with a trilingual introductory section (Armenian, Turkish, and English) dedicated to the memory of Hrant Dink, the Armenian journalist who was murdered in Istanbul in 2007. Also included in this volume is an Armenian and Turkish index of the names of the 761 Armenian martyrs of April 11 (April 24 according to the Gregorian calendar).

Over the last two decades, Sakayan has been working on a translation project with one of her former students, Evelina Makaryan, a researcher at the Institute for Armenian Studies at YSU. This project has yielded six books that Sakayan and Makaryan translated from German into Armenian and published with YSU Press. The translations are predominantly eyewitness testimonies of the Armenian genocide that Sakayan has collected from libraries in German-speaking countries.

Sakayan's latest (and most important) work is a book entitled «Man treibt sie in die Wüste»; Clara und Fritz Sigrist-Hilty als Augenzeugen des Völkermordes an den Armeniern 1915–1918 ["They drive them into the desert": Clara and Fritz Sigrist-Hilty as eyewitnesses of the Armenian Genocide 1915-1918] on the writings of Clara Sigrist-Hilty (1884–1988). One day after their church wedding in April 1915, the civil engineer Fritz Sigrist and the nurse Clara Hilty take the train from Werdenberg (Switzerland) and travel through the war zone to South-Eastern Turkey, where Fritz has been working at the construction of the Baghdad railway since 1910. They settle in Keller (today's Fevzipaşa), a little town on the flank of the Amanus mountains. Shortly after their arrival, the Armenian deportations start and thousands of Armenians walk past their window. For three years the couple has to witness «the lapsing of human lights

down there in the steep gorge» while they live their everyday life in their little house on the remote hillside. A visit to Aleppo makes them realize that what they were seeing in Keller on a daily basis was nothing but premeditated death marches. Things deteriorate when the skilled Armenian workers at the Baghdad railway construction site must also join those death marches. Clara feels obliged to record the atrocities, first in her journal, and later in a special eyewitness account. Fritz in his turn writes some important essays on the subject.

Sakayan has deciphered and transcribed the documents written in Gothic handwriting; she has meticulously processed the data and embedded them in the historic events of the time. Moreover, based on a memoir by Haig Aramian, Sakayan recounts the adventurous story of how in June 1916 the couple Sigrist-Hilty helped their Armenian storehouse manager Aramian to escape certain death. The structure of the book presented itself from the available archival materials. The book consists of three parts, each centered around one main character: Clara and Fritz Sigrist-Hilty, and Haig Aramian. Through a thoughtful interplay of primary and secondary texts, Sakayan tells a coherent story of endless human suffering, but also of Christian compassion and selflessness.

Translations

At an early stage of her career, Sakayan's knowledge of languages directed her towards translation and interpretation, and some of her translations were published early on. Sakayan has translated texts of various length and genres, from books to mini-texts, from poems to novels, and from gambits to proverbs. This furthered her interest in the theoretical aspects

of translation. During the Summer semesters between 1981 and 1986, her contact and collaboration with the Translation Department of Saarbrücken University in Germany (Chairman: Dr. Wolfram Wilss) intensified her involvement and productivity in that field and resulted in several articles published in scholarly journals and books, as well as in several papers presented at international conferences.

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Awards and distinctions

- October 23, 2019: The “Aurora Mardiganian” commemorative medal for significant contributions to the awareness and recognition of the Armenian Genocide, The Armenian Genocide Museum-Institute, Yerevan, Armenia.
- May 17–18, 2016: “Contemporary Linguistics in the Light of Interdisciplinarity”, An International Conference, dedicated to Dora Sakayan on her 85th Birthday Anniversary, Yerevan State University, Armenia.
- September 27, 2012: Degree of Honorary Doctor of Yerevan State University “For her public and patriotic activities and outstanding achievements in Armenian Studies."
- November 6, 2011: Gold Medal of the RA (Republic of Armenia) Science and Education Ministry "For outstanding contributions to science and education."
- October 26, 2011: Certificate of Distinction by the RA Ministry of Diaspora.
- June 2, 2008: Certificate of Recognition for the book Eastern Armenian for the English-speaking World, “...a valuable contribution to the study of Armenia and its culture.” The Certificate of Recognition was issued by the California State Assembly, forty-third District.
- October 9, 2005: Saint Sahak - Saint Mesrop Medal of Honor of the Mother See of Holy Etchmiadzin, Armenia, for decades of scholarly and pedagogical services in Armenia and Canada.

- October 20, 2002: Outstanding Citizenship Award by the Montreal Citizenship Council.
- June 28, 2001: Bundesverdienstkreuz, Federal Republic of Germany (the Cross of the Order of Merit) for 50 years of contributions to the German language and culture.
- May 20-22, 1996: “Semiotics and Language Teaching. Theoretical Principles and Practical Applications,” An International Conference dedicated to Dora Sakayan on her 65th Birthday Anniversary as a special tribute to her contributions to the field of Linguistics and Armenology), Yerevan State University, Armenia.
- October 1967: Certificate of Distinction awarded by the Supreme Soviet of the Armenian SSR for Excellence in Scholarship and Education:.

Sheltered instruction

Sheltered instruction is an approach to teaching English language learners which integrates language and content instruction. The phrase "sheltered instruction," original concept, and underlying theory of comprehensible input are all credited to Stephen Krashen.

The dual goals of sheltered instruction are:

- to provide access to mainstream, grade-level content, and
- to promote the development of English language proficiency.

Definition

Sheltered Instruction, also referred to as SDAIE in California, is a teaching style founded on the concept of providing meaningful instruction in the content areas (social studies, math, science) for transitioning Limited English Proficient (LEP) students towards higher academic achievement while they reach English fluency.

This method type is often used in mainstream secondary classrooms where the students have a foundation of English education. A variety of instruction is used including the theories of Vygotsky's zone of proximal development. Instead of providing watered down curriculum for LEP student, sheltered instruction allows for the content to be equal to that of native English speakers while improving their grasp of the language. The teacher provides varied methods of instruction that allow students to create meaning of multifaceted content in classroom discussion, activities, reading and writing. Teachers call on a number of different instruction methods such as the use of socialization practices to allow the content to be more accessible.

The differences between ESL instruction and the use of sheltered instruction or SDAIE is that sheltered instruction does *not* focus *entirely* on language development; instead, through various other topics or actual content material in the curriculum, English proficiency is achieved.

Originally the intent of sheltered instruction was for students with a relatively strong grasp of the English language but lacking in writing and reading abilities. Since then the need for

proficient teachers capable of sheltered instruction has increased. The ESL certified teachers and programs have decreased due to new legislation, but the number of LEP students is rising causing teachers to build upon their abilities to take on the linguistically diverse classroom.

Teacher Preparation

As in any instructional approach, the use of sheltered instruction is effective when the teacher is capable of administering the lessons effectively, although the causal direction of this tautologous observation is not clear. If the lesson is administered effectively, then, by definition, the teacher is capable of administering it effectively, but if it is not administered effectively, then it cannot be determined whether this is due to teacher factors or methodological weakness. Without a far more rigorous evaluation, the claim that this is a viable approach cannot be confirmed because it is assumed that any problems arise from teacher factors, not methodological weakness. Many pre-service teacher programs are working to equip teachers with the skills they need to be successful. Beginning with pre-service teachers achieving a strong foundation of cultural psychology, language theory and acquisition as well as certified content knowledge in their undergraduate major, the courses incorporate multiple field experiences as well as pedagogical methods and cultural diversity instruction. There are many alternative ways teachers can learn how to increase effectiveness of instructional delivery and create a culturally responsive classroom, including online resources.

Some U.S. public schools receive Title III funding to help pay for these preparation courses. Title III is the part of the No Child Left Behind Act that authorizes funds for English Language acquisition programs, including Professional development for educators.

Strategies

Since the basis of sheltered instruction or SDAIE is to provide a framework for language development then one of the simplest ways follow a set format of instruction. For example, beginning each lesson with an introductory activity that assesses the students' knowledge in a non-threatening and non-graded format will allow the teacher to evaluate the students' skill set. It is vitally important the teacher designs his/her lessons to clearly define language and content as well as make the activity meaningful through the linkage to past knowledge and present and supplemental materials. Some examples of lessons include hands-on and cooperative learning activities, vocabulary, and the use of visual clues. Teachers also place an emphasis on developing the students' habits of organization and study skills.

Teachers may use sheltered instruction within a variety of program models (*e.g.*, immersion, pull out, team-teaching). Teachers may use sheltered instruction in a mainstream class to support English language learners, or a class may be specially designed, such as "Sheltered U.S. History."

"Many ELLs are also refugees", thus sheltered instruction can be one of the useful strategies for their instruction. The teacher should "speak more clearly and slowly", use more

graphics and similar "multimodal" instructional tools, and speak using shorter "sentences and clauses." Such classes may include only English language learners, or "linguistically diverse" language learners and English-fluent peers.

According to Michael Genzuk, SDAIE strategies typically include:

- **Increase wait time, be patient.** Give your students time to think and process the information before you provide answers. A student may know the answers but need more processing time in order to say it in English.
- **Respond to the student's message, don't correct errors (Expansion).** If a student has the correct answer and it is understandable, don't correct his or her grammar. The exact word and correct grammatical response will develop with time. Instead, repeat his or her answer, putting it into standard English, use positive reinforcement techniques.
- **Simplify teacher language.** Speak directly to the student, emphasizing important nouns and verbs, using as few extra words as possible. Repetition and speaking louder doesn't help; rephrasing, and body language does.
- **Don't force oral production.** Instead, give the student an opportunity to demonstrate his or her comprehension and knowledge through body actions, drawing pictures, manipulating objects, or pointing. Speech will emerge.

- **Demonstrate, use visuals and manipulatives.** Whenever possible, accompany your message with gestures, pictures, and objects that help get the meaning across. Use a variety of different pictures or objects for the same idea. Give an immediate context for new words. Understanding input is the key to language acquisition.
- **Make lessons sensory activities.** Give students a chance to touch, listen, smell and taste when possible. Talk about the words that describe these senses as students physically experiences lesson. Write new words as well as say them.
- **Pair or group students with native speakers.** Much of a student's language acquisition comes from interacting with peers.

  Give students tasks to complete that require interaction of each member of the group, but arrange it so that the student has linguistically easier tasks. Utilize cooperative learning techniques in a student-centered classroom.
- **Adapt the materials to student's language level, maintain content integrity.**Don't “water down” the content. Rather, make the concepts more accessible and comprehensible by adding pictures, charts, maps, time-lines, and diagrams, in addition to simplifying the language.
- **Increase your knowledge.** Learn as much as you can about the language and culture of your students. Go to movies, read books, look at pictures of the countries.

  Keep the similarities and differences in mind and then check your knowledge by asking your students

whether they agree with your impressions. Learn as much of the student's language as you can; even a few words help.

- **Build on the student's prior knowledge.** Find out as much as you can about how the ideas and concepts you are teaching build upon the student's previous knowledge or previous way of being taught. Encourage the students to point out differences and connect similarities.
- **Support the student's home language and culture; bring it into the classroom.** An important goal should be to encourage the students to keep their home languages as they also acquire English. Let students help bring about a multicultural perspective to the subjects you are teaching. Encourage students to bring in pictures, poems, dances, proverbs, or games. Encourage students to bring these items in as part of the subject you are teaching, not just as a separate activity. Do whatever you can to help your fluent English-speaking students see all students as knowledgeable persons from a respected culture.

Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol

The *Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol* is a research-based observation instrument that is used to measure sheltered instruction.

This is a concept-based methodology in teacher training, also called *SIOP*, which is used to measure a teacher's effectiveness in the classroom. It is "one approach teachers use to help

ELLs," or English Language Learners. SIOP uses several related activities to accomplish the goal of second-language acquisition, including lesson plans, background, 'comprehensible input', strategies, interaction, practice/application, lesson delivery, and review and assessment.