

**GULISTAN STATE UNIVERSITY**

***Faculty of Philology***

Department of the English Language and Literature

***COURSE ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING  
METHODOLOGY***

**LECTURES**

**Semester II**

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## **LECTURE 1: TEACHING AND LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN UZBEKISTAN**

### ***Lecture Outline:***

*1.1 Foreign Languages Teaching Reforms in Uzbekistan*

*1.2 Introduction of the CEFR in Uzbekistan*

*1.3 Overview of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*

### **1.1 Foreign Languages Teaching Reforms in Uzbekistan**

The end of 1990's and beginning of 2000's marked a new era in foreign languages teaching in Uzbekistan when all stakeholders including teachers, students, schools, colleges, and universities started to feel that they were ready for change in the way foreign languages were taught and learned. Nevertheless, there was uncertainty on how these changes would be implemented, what kind of changes should be introduced, who would be the initiator of the changes and what people's reactions would be to the changes in the education sector (Jalolov 2013). The reason for uncertainty was due to the fact that for almost a century Uzbekistan was under the Soviet Union and there was not held any consistent reforms in foreign language teaching (Jalolov 2013).

The reforms in foreign language teaching in Uzbekistan mainly touched upon teaching English language in all levels and stages of education.

The start of incorporating English language teaching into the education system of Uzbekistan started in 1932 (Hasanova, 2007). Nevertheless, teaching and learning of English as well as other foreign languages were carried out in secondary schools at the beginning of the fifth grade when learners were at the age of 12 (Hasanova, 2007). Hasanova (2007, p4) states that most of the lessons in 1930's-1990's were held mainly in student-centered approach and classes were mainly dedicated to the study and analysis of grammatical rules, analytical reading, and grammar translation exercises. In addition according to Bereday and Pennar (in Shafiyeva and Kennedy, 2010) in the Soviet Union, grammar-translation method was justified by the dominating political system.

Gulyamova, Irgasheva and Bolitho (2014, p45) outlining the reasons for the problem state that in most cases in teaching foreign languages there was a "...tendency for the country's institutions to remain sealed off from foreign influences, particularly those from the West, ..." and "These deficiencies were passed on from generation to generation of Uzbek English teachers, all steeped in a Soviet-rooted version of the Grammar-Translation method, and reliant on outdated textbooks".

In 1991 when Uzbekistan gained independence from the Soviet Union, great attention has been paid to the reforms in education sector, especially in the area of teaching and learning foreign languages (Jalolov 2013). However, foreign language teaching methods and approaches remained the same as in Soviet era for at least two decades. According to Hasanova (2008) foreign language teachers, especially English teachers were exposed to modern approaches to ELT as communicative language teaching in the early 1990's. However, "continued lack of financial support and insufficient teacher training made CLT more a topic of discussion rather than an approach being implemented in many Uzbek classrooms" (Hasanova 2008, p139).

In the beginning of 2000's there was launched an extensive baseline study which covered all 12 regions of Uzbekistan. The baseline study aimed at defining areas in English language teaching as well as teaching other foreign languages that needed to be reformed. The baseline study was carried out in universities and in-service teacher training institutions across 12 regions of Uzbekistan and consisted of interviews, questionnaire surveys which were held among English language teachers, education authorities, recent graduates of foreign language teacher training courses (Mamatov, 2009).

British Council Uzbekistan became the leading international organization in assisting the reforms (Mamatov 2009).

The baseline research carried out by the British Council in cooperation with the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education of the Republic of Uzbekistan provided quality data on the areas that needs change. According Hoshimov (2008) the challenges which were exposed in the baseline research was the need to make state educational standards, curricula and other educational documents responsive to the needs of teachers and language learners, to align national educational standards with those of international standards and make a shift from teacher-centered classroom to learner-centered classroom where language learners are provided with more autonomy in learning and to link foreign language teacher education programs in Uzbekistan to international standards.

## **1.2 Introduction of the CEFR in Uzbekistan**

Prior to the introduction of the National Educational Standard for Continuing Education System on Foreign Languages (Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Uzbekistan, 2013), which is based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR, Council of Europe 2001) there

was inconsistency and lack of continuity in educational standards. There was not a single document which outlined the aims and outcomes of teaching and learning English in all levels and stages of education. For instance, educational standard for secondary stage of education outlined aims and outcomes of learning foreign languages for students who attended school from 5<sup>th</sup> grade to 9<sup>th</sup> grade (State Educational Standard and Syllabus, 2010), state educational standard for secondary specialized education outlined aims and outcomes of teaching and learning foreign languages for students and teachers who attended colleges and academic lyceums from 1<sup>st</sup> to 3<sup>rd</sup> year (State Educational Standard and Syllabus, 2001). In this manner all educational standards were separated from each other according to their content, aims, and outcomes. Moreover, there were repetitions in themes and topics to be taught in each academic year. For example, students who attended schools from the 5<sup>th</sup> grade started learning English alphabet whereas students who started studies at college or academic lyceum level or even university level started learning English with its alphabet and grammatical system. In addition, the curriculum and syllabus mainly stressed on teaching grammar and translation practice.

Thus, analysis of the system of teaching and learning foreign languages carried out by the group of experts from Uzbekistan State University of World Languages, Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education, and Ministry of Public Education revealed that the former curricula on foreign language teaching, standards for different levels of education were not efficient in terms of finance and effort (Irisqulov 2015). Therefore, it was decided to develop and implement totally new concept of national standards which could provide continuity and consistency of teaching foreign languages in all levels of education system. And at this point the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) played as the main framework to be adopted in developing the national standard.

Table 2.2.1 (REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN, Cabinet of Ministers 2013) illustrates the characteristics of the present national educational standard for foreign languages and its alignment features with the CEFR.

<b>Stage of Education</b>	<b>Graduates</b>	<b>CEFR</b>	<b>Name of the Level</b>
	Primary (4 <sup>th</sup> grade) level graduates	A1	Beginner level of foreign language learning

General Secondary Education	9 <sup>th</sup> grade graduates	A2	Basic level of foreign language learning
	9 <sup>th</sup> grade graduates of school specializing in foreign languages learning	A2+	Reinforced basic level of foreign language learning
Secondary specialized and vocational education	Graduates of non-specialized academic lyceums	B1	Independent beginner level of foreign language learning
	Vocational colleges		
	Graduates of academic lyceums specializing in foreign language teaching (second foreign language)	B1+	Reinforced independent beginner level of foreign language learning
	Graduates of academic lyceums specializing in foreign languages		
Higher education	Baccalaureate level graduates of non-specialized faculties	B2	Independent communication level of foreign language learning
	Master level graduates of non- specialized faculties		
	Baccalaureate level graduates of faculties specializing in foreign language teaching (second foreign language)		
	Baccalaureate level graduates of faculties specializing in foreign language teaching	C1	Proficient level of foreign language learning
	Master level graduates of faculties specializing in foreign language teaching		

**Table 2.2.1 Stages of teaching and learning foreign languages according to the new national standard based on the CEFR**

As it was mentioned in the previous paragraph the implementation of a new project on the development of the national curricula and standard on the teaching and learning of foreign languages was started along with the project aiming at the reform of PRESETT and INSETT system of Uzbekistan. According to Irisqulov (2015) adoption and implementation of the new standard was a requirement of time and started a new era in the whole system of foreign languages learning in Uzbekistan.

### **2.3 Overview of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages**

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, which is commonly referred as CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) is considered as an innovative language policy document designed and developed by the language policy division of the Council of Europe in the 1990s. It was published online in 1996 and in 2001 it was introduced in a paper version. The document “provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc.” (Council of Europe, 2001 p1). Initially the document was developed to ease language learning and facilitate mobility of citizen within European countries. Later on, subsequently the document gained worldwide recognition as a language education policy document to help aligning the language assessment levels across educational stages and institutions. Since its gaining popularity around world the CEFR document has been translated into 39 languages and has been used and/or referred by a number of countries around the world for the development and introduction of foreign language policies (Figueras, 2012; Martyniuk and Noijons, 2007).

As it is declared by the Council of Europe the main purpose of the CEFR is the alignment of language learning, teaching, assessment and testing and ultimately guarantee correlation of learning outcomes across languages, contexts and countries. That is to say, the document is considered to act as a tool that can “be used to analyze L2 learners’ needs, specify L2 learning goals, guide the development of L2 learning materials and activities, and provide orientation for the assessment of L2 learning outcomes” (Little, 2006, p167), and in coherent and comprehensible way. The CEFR 1 - depicts competencies language learners need to form to be an effective language user; 2 – it suggests sets of “can do” descriptors that point out what learners can do when they reach a certain competency in a definite proficiency level; 3 – it offers instructional guiding principles on how to teach and assess learners competencies; 4 - it offers a common reference level scales for the comparability and recognition of language competences across contexts and countries.

Through the equipment of users with a common methodology and metalanguage for teaching, learning and assessing language competencies, the CEFR document facilitates cooperation among various educational institutions and educational and other stakeholders around the world, moreover, providing easier mobility opportunities for professionals and common citizens across countries (Council of Europe, 2001).

Goullier (2007) and North (2007) suggest that the CEFR is a descriptive document, rather than a prescriptive document. In other words it refers and can be used with all languages and its primary goal is to enhance language practitioners' reflections on their specific educational and geographical contexts, language learners and language teaching objectives.

According to North (2007, p. 656) the CEFR is defined as a “concertina-like reference tool, not an instrument to be applied”. Therefore, it should be referred, consulted and adapted depending on the needs and realities of a definite local area rather than blindly followed as a set of concrete unchangeable and discrete rules.

## **LECTURE 2: TEACHING YOUNG LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN THE CONTEXT OF UZBEKISTAN'S EDUCATION SYSTEM**

### ***Lecture Outline:***

1. *Young Learners*
  - 1.1 *Advantages of Learning English in Primary Stage of Education*
  - 1.2 *Challenges of Learning English Language in Primary Stage of Education*
2. *Developing Listening and Speaking Skills of YL in the Classroom*
  - 2.1 *Context and Learners*
  - 2.2 *Listening and Speaking versus Young Learners*
  - 2.3 *The Ways of Teaching Speaking and Listening to YL*
    - 2.3.1 *Listen and Do Activities*
    - 2.3.2 *Total Physical Response*
    - 2.3.3 *Dialogues and Role Play*
3. *Language Policies in Uzbekistan and Their Impact on TEYL*

### **1. Young Learners**

Children begin to learn foreign languages in different ages and circumstances. Therefore, first of all, it is necessary to distinguish age differences in defining YL. Since

there is a distinction between what children of the age of six can do and what children of the age of eleven can do, Scott and Ytreberg (1990) suggest the division of YL into two distinctive groups.

First group comprises children between the age of 5 and 7. Slattery and Willis (2005) also define this group as 'very young learners'.

The second group comprises children of the ages between 8 and 10 (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). Children who belong to this group, according to Slattery and Willis (2005), are termed as 'young learners'. Undoubtedly, differences between these two groups are very large. Therefore, language teachers need to be aware of the peculiarities of a definite age group and adapt their teaching methods, techniques and styles according to the characteristics of the group.

Ellis (2014) proposes consensus in defining the term young learner for the sake of ELT professionals. According to her observations still there is a misunderstanding in defining the term. She suggests to adopt terms used in educational systems that young learners belong to (Ellis, 2014). Thus, the age group that comprises children between the ages of 6-11 is termed as 'young learners, kids, primary, juniors and tweens' (Ellis, 2014). In the context of Uzbekistan's education system young learners of the ages between 6, 7 to 11 are called 'primary school pupils'.

### **1.1 Advantages of Learning English in Primary Stage of Education**

Although it is hard to prove the superiority of young learners in learning a foreign language (Cook, 2008), a lot of research show that age plays a crucial role in the effective learning of languages. However, many studies carried out in this area suggest that younger learners learn some aspects of a foreign language such as pronunciation and listening better, while some areas, especially grammar, and vocabulary acquired slowly (Lynne, 2001). According to Lynne (2001) pronunciation and listening skills are acquired effectively in naturalistic setting whereas in classroom settings they are not effectively developed. Moreover, younger learners tend to acquire more native like accents, whereas for adult learners it is difficult to get rid of their mother tongue accent in L2 speech (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). Therefore, in the early years of education it is effective to emphasize on teaching speaking and listening rather than on writing and reading.

In addition, younger learners possess such advantages in language acquisition as brain plasticity, weaker group identity, less analytical thinking, and simplified input (Saville-Troike, 2012).

## **1.2 Challenges of Learning English Language in Primary Stage of Education**

Apart from the fact that younger learners are good language learners in informal and naturalistic contexts (Saville-Troike, 2012), there are also challenges that young learners and their teachers may face in language classroom contexts. Saville-Troike (2012) claims that younger learners possess weaker brain capacity, which does not allow them to learn vocabulary of a foreign language effectively. Other disadvantages that younger learners may have include lack of L1 knowledge, shorter attention span, less world knowledge and analytical skills (Saville-Troike, 2012). In L2 classroom these disadvantages may cause several challenges for language teachers. First, primary school learners start learning grammar of their mother tongue in later grades. For instance, in the context of Uzbek public schools pupils are introduced with the grammar of L1 starting from grade 2, whereas learning a foreign language starts in grade 1, which does not allow a learner to transfer knowledge of L1 to L2 learning.

Second, the fact that children have shorter attention span requires from a teacher to develop shorter activities that do not overload YL. Moreover, teachers have to design activities which do not employ grammatical and lexical rules as YL tend to be less analytical.

## **2. Developing Listening and Speaking Skills of YL in the Classroom**

### **2.1 Context and Learners**

The teaching context for the discussion is the first grade pupils in public schools of Uzbekistan.

Most of the pupils in primary schools are monolingual learners with few or no previous experience of learning foreign languages, as most of the kindergartens and nursery schools do not provide foreign languages instruction. Average class size of first graders in Uzbek schools is 25 to 28 pupils and English language classes are conducted by dividing the class into two small groups of 12 to 14 pupils. According to the results of recent research conducted by Blatchford (2007), class size has a great impact on the efficiency of teaching English to YL of 7 to 11 age group. As Blatchford (2007, p168) points out that small class size provides individualized teaching, makes it easier to control the classroom, and allows more time for marking, assessments and planning, and less teacher stress. The division of classes into small groups has been widely practiced in public schools and other educational institutions across Uzbekistan

since the Soviet period. However, due to the lack of EFL teachers there are schools that can not afford class division, especially in rural areas.

According to national curriculum of public schools, first graders or primary class learners have 2 hours of English lessons every week, academic year averaging 33 weeks in total.

## **2.2 Listening and Speaking versus Young Learners**

Tompkins (2002) argues that listening is an important skill for YL and it is assumed that about 50 per cent of classroom time involves listening. It is true that in naturalistic language learning context the main source of language input and output is through listening and speaking. In classroom settings spoken language prevails over written language, especially in primary stages of language education. Listening and speaking are both active use of language (Cameron, 2001). According Cameron (2001) unlike reading and writing, prevailing element in spoken language is meaning, by speaking children try to transfer their meaning and by listening they try to understand others' meaning. Therefore, children strive to build meaning through interacting with others which takes place in the form of listening and speaking in the early years of development. Next, Cameron (2001) explains that children's desire to communicate is a drive to speaking.

Teaching speaking and listening to YL involves plenty of natural language use in classroom settings. It is teacher's responsibility of expose YL to as many spoken language as possible in the classroom. In addition, in the early years of classroom language learning teacher plays the role of a main model for children in their learning to listen and speak. Additionally, exposure to foreign language should be carried with meaningful and purposeful activities. According to Vygotskian theories of development meaning in communication is constructed with the help of expert others (Cameron, 2001). Thus teacher plays the role of an expert other and creates Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) for YLs in their process of learning how to create meaning through listening and speaking. According to Saville-Troike (2012, p112) ZPD is an "area of potential development where learner can achieve that development only with assistance". In ZPD scaffolding plays an important role which is given by an expert other. Saville-Troike (2012) also argues that scaffolding occurs only with the active participation of a learner.

Teaching speaking according to Scott and Ytreberg (1990) is one of the most demanding tasks before the language teacher. One of the reasons for this is that most

of the learners do not have an access to speaking practice outside the classroom and teachers need to dedicate most of the class time for the speaking activities, which on its own place require a lot of effort from a teacher. Another difficult aspect of teaching speaking is the issues of correcting and giving feedback to learners in speaking activities, which also requires special knowledge on how to correct and when to correct young learners.

It is worth mentioning that listening and speaking almost always come together and it is almost impossible to teach speaking without listening or vice versa. Pinter (2006, p45) claims that young learners need to be exposed to plenty of listening activities and practice with rich input, which as a result leads to speaking tasks.

## **2.3 The Ways of Teaching Speaking and Listening to YL**

### **2.3.1 Listen and Do Activities**

In primary stage of English language teaching listening and speaking activities should be accompanied by movements according to the spoken message. In this sense, Scott and Ytreberg (1990) suggest several methods of teaching listening to young learners, one of which is 'listen and do' activities. They also argue that most of the class instructions correspond to 'listen and do' activities and teacher's instructions to students to perform one or another activity plays an important role in developing their listening skills. Moreover, teacher can easily see whether learners have understood the instruction e.g. listening or not (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). Scott and Ytreberg (1990) also suggest other 'listen and do' activities which include mime the story activity, listen and draw and others. In mime the story activity the teacher reads or tells the story and performs the actions described in the story with learners. In a listen and draw activity teacher, a learner or a recording describes an object and learners draw it.

### **2.3.2 Total Physical Response**

Total Physical Response (TPR) perhaps is the most widely used methods of teaching foreign languages to young learners. Its advantages in teaching listening and speaking are numerous. Total Physical Response is a method invented by Prof. James Asher in 1970s (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Asher (in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) believes that children acquire their first language through physical response to language inputs. Their first introduction with language occurs when their parents give commands to perform different actions before they start producing their own speech. One of the underlying principles of TPR in classroom is the reduction of learners' affective filter and

to facilitate the process of learning the language. Affective filter is a mechanism that allows or restricts the processing of input (Saville-Troike, 2012). Thus by reducing the affective filter, learners feel themselves free to perform actions instructed by their teachers and learn the language, especially spoken and listening skills. In this process teacher plays an important role of a facilitator by creating favorable atmosphere for learners. Another important aspect of TPR is comprehension, e.g. understanding the spoken input provided by the teacher. Therefore, learners should practice a lot by doing different activities that mostly involve listening comprehension and then move to production of their own utterances (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). The advantage of using TPR with young learners is that it provides a lot of amusement, fun and movement for young learners and makes it possible to keep them motivated during the whole lesson. Another advantage of TPR is in giving feedback to learners. Richards and Rodgers (2001) suggest that teachers should adopt the way how most of parents correct their children e.g. teachers should use less immediate correction of spoken output produced by learners in the initial stages of learning, as immediate feedback or correction may result in the increase of learners' affective filter.

Despite many benefits of TPR, it has some challenges to implement in the classroom both for the learners and the teacher. Cameron (2001) believes that there are possible dangers when children can not construct meaning during the lessons. This is especially important while giving commands and instructions using the TPR method. That is why is it very important for a teacher to make sure that the message uttered towards the learners is accessible.

### **2.3.3 Dialogues and Role Play**

Sesnan (1997) states that easy to perform dialogues encourage the use of spoken language effectively. Scott and Ytreberg (1990, p39) claim that for a teacher using a dialogue with learners is an easy and useful way to bridge between guided practice and freer practice activities. In the initial introducing of a dialogue to young learners teachers are recommended to use various objects such as puppets, pictures to scaffold the construction of meaning. The teacher may move to the stage of performing the dialogue with learners putting them in pairs or groups. Another option of doing the dialogue activity is to ask and lead two or more learners to perform the dialogue in front of the class, thus giving a model to other learners. Scott and Ytreberg (1990) also suggest employing movements, actions, mimics and intonation in presenting a dialogue to young learners which helps them to feel the dialogue from different perspectives.

Role plays containing dialogues is another type of effective activity which is beneficial and entertaining for learners. In introducing learners with role plays, Scott and Ytreberg (1990) suggest teachers to move from structured to more free type of activity. The best way to do this is, first, let the young learners learn the dialogue by heart and then act it in pairs or groups in front of the class. In assigning the roles and movements that accompany dialogues teachers should consider psychological features of each learner in order to not to affect their affective filter. It is also important to remember about giving a model before each activity or performance.

### **3. Language Policies in Uzbekistan and Their Impact on TEYL**

The start of incorporation of English language into the education system of Uzbekistan dates back to 1932 (Hasanova, 2007). However, teaching and learning of EFL was carried out in secondary schools e.g. with the start of fifth grade when pupils were at the age of 12 (Hasanova, 2007). As Hasanova (2007, p4) points out most of the classes during that era were mainly student centered and were dedicated to analytical readings, grammatical rules, and translation exercises. According to Gulyamova, Irgasheva and Bolitho (2014, p45) the reasons for this were “the tendency for the country’s institutions to remain sealed off from foreign influences, particularly those from the West, ...” and “These deficiencies were passed on from generation to generation of Uzbek English teachers, all steeped in a Soviet-rooted version of the Grammar-Translation method, and reliant on outdated textbooks”. After gaining the independence from Soviet Union in 1991, great attention has been paid to the reformation of education system, especially teaching and learning foreign languages. However, teaching methods and approaches remained the same as in Soviet era for 20 years. According to Hasanova (2008, p139) Uzbek teachers were exposed to modern approaches to ELT as communicative language teaching in mid 1990’s, however “continued lack of financial support and insufficient teacher training have made CLT more a topic of discussion rather than an approach being implemented in many Uzbek classrooms”.

Recent analyses of the system of organization of learning foreign languages revealed that educational standards, curricula and textbooks did not fully meet modern requirements, especially in the use of achievements of foreign language teaching methodology, IT and media technologies. This situation led to the issue of the presidential decree No. 1875 on December 10, 2012 *On Measures of Further Improving the System of Learning Foreign Languages*, which clearly outlined the further aims and tasks of reforming the system of learning foreign languages. One of the first steps that

have been taken after the decree, in order to implement the reforms, was designing and adoption of a new national educational standard for continuing education system (Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Uzbekistan, 2013) which is based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR, Council of Europe 2001).

According to the new standard teaching foreign languages in schools begins in the first grade of the primary schools, when children are at the age of 6-7. And by the end of primary stage (grades 1-4) of education pupils have to achieve A1 level according to the national curriculum and CEFR. The widespread introduction of teaching English language in primary education around the world, including in Uzbekistan, is described by Johnstone as “the world’s biggest policy development in education” (in Copland, Garton, and Burns, 2014, p738). There are several reasons for this. First, it is better to begin learning foreign languages as early as possible (Copland, Garton and Burns, 2014). Second, wide use of English in the process of globalization and integration of market economies, workforce with English language skills considered to be an advantage.

The impact of the new curriculum and EFL reform in Uzbekistan was huge on pre-service and in-service teacher training, materials design and teachers’ continuing professional development areas. The new standard required the whole system of foreign languages teaching to rethink and reform the approaches used in educational institutions.

The new textbook series titled Kids’ English (Irisqulov et al., 2014) for primary schools were designed and published based on the new standard. Mandatory cascade in-service teacher trainings were held after the publication of the textbooks in all regions of Uzbekistan with the purpose of training teachers to teach YL and using the new textbook. Nevertheless, the content of training programmes lack input sessions on SLA theories and the ways children learn foreign languages. Cameron (2003) discussing the skills needed for an English teacher in teaching YL puts “an understanding of how children think and learn” on the first place, and explains that teaching YL in primary levels may be more demanding than teaching in higher levels. In addition, most of the pre-service teacher training programmes in Uzbek universities do not provide SLA or foreign language pedagogy modules, which explain how language acquisition takes place and develops in young learners. Instead they provide general pedagogy and psychology courses.

Unlike previous textbooks Kids' English incorporates wide use of Total Physical Response, Communicative Language Teaching, using games, songs and pictures and other modern approaches to teaching YL. However, Enever and Moon (in Copland, 2014) point out that communicative language teaching is an approach to be used with adult learners in small groups.

Discussing the advantages, disadvantages and impact of reforms introduced in Uzbekistan's education system in terms of teaching foreign languages in primary public schools is early since there was not conducted any kind of comprehensive study in this area in Central Asian Post-Soviet countries.

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### **LECTURE 3: TEACHING AND LEARNING LANGUAGES BY MEANS OF COMPUTER TECHNOLOGIES. COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING**

#### **Lecture Outline:**

1. *The role of the computer in learning*
  - 1.1 *The advantage of using computer in language teaching and learning*
  - 1.2 *The disadvantage of using computer in language teaching and learning*
2. *The development of CALL*
  - 2.1 *Background*
  - 2.2 *A brief history*
3. *Types of CALL Programs*
  - 3.1 *Types of CALL Activities*
  - 3.2 *What Computers Can and Can't "Do"*

### *3.4 Principles of Using and Designing CALL Programs in Language Learning and Teaching*

#### *4. Top Ten Software to Teach and Learn English*

##### **1. The role of the computer in learning**

Generally speaking, computers can be classified into three generations. Each generation lasted for a certain period of time, and each gave us either a new and improved computer or an improvement to the existing computer.

First generation: 1937 – 1946 - In 1937 the first electronic digital computer was built by Dr. John V. Atanasoff and Clifford Berry. It was called the Atanasoff-Berry Computer (ABC). In 1943 an electronic computer name the Colossus was built for the military. Other developments continued until in 1946 the first general– purpose digital computer, the Electronic Numerical Integrator and Computer (ENIAC) was built. It is said that this computer weighed 30 tons, and had 18,000 vacuum tubes which was used for processing. When this computer was turned on for the first time lights dim in sections of Philadelphia. Computers of this generation could only perform single task, and they had no operating system.

Second generation: 1947 – 1962 - This generation of computers used transistors instead of vacuum tubes which were more reliable. In 1951 the first computer for commercial use was introduced to the public; the Universal Automatic Computer (UNIVAC 1). In 1953 the International Business Machine (IBM) 650 and 700 series computers made their mark in the computer world. During this generation of computers over 100 computer programming languages were developed, computers had memory and operating systems. Storage media such as tape and disk were in use also were printers for output.

Third generation: 1963 - present - The invention of integrated circuit brought us the third generation of computers. With this invention computers became smaller, more powerful more reliable and they are able to run many different programs at the same time. In 1980 Microsoft Disk Operating System (MS-Dos) was born and in 1981 IBM introduced the personal computer (PC) for home and office use. Three years later Apple gave us the Macintosh computer with its icon driven interface and the 90s gave us Windows operating system.

As a result of the various improvements to the development of the computer we have seen the computer being used in all areas of life. It is a very useful tool that will continue to experience new development as time passes.

The rapid spread of computers has been spurred by intensive development in the field of computer technology. Now the computers have become much more powerful, yet smaller in size, more adaptable, more flexible, and easier to use. In addition, they are much more inexpensive than those of the last ten years. 'Computer literacy' becomes a big issue which is the knowledge about computers and computing when schools and governments have devoted resources to it.

As we know that the computer is a tool. Its role in education is that of a medium. The computer will perform exactly the instructions given by a user. These instructions can be typed into the computer from a keyboard, a mouse, sounds, or a series of programs. The teacher can create educational materials for students by using the computer. Unfortunately, not all of the teachers know how to master the computers.

### **1.1 The advantage of using computer in language teaching and learning**

In the introduction of their book CALL, Hardisty and Windeatt (1989) comment that, compared with the language laboratory, it has taken for less time for language teachers to perceive what the computer has to offer to language learning. "It took the profession fifteen or more years to find effective ways of utilizing language laboratories. ... It has taken CALL a considerably shorter time to move from its crude beginnings ... to a stage where the use of computers is both innovative and truly appropriate." (1989,p.3) This statement reflects the experience in learning foreign language when using the information technology.

#### **(1) The inherent nature of the computer**

The computer can handle a much wider range of activities, and much more powerfully, than other technological aids. It offers a two-way learning session with the student. It is much more than a mere programmed textbook, whose powers of interaction are virtually limited to an ability to reveal the correct answer: the computer can 'assess' the student's response. It can also display messages, take the student through subsequent attempts at a question, and even take the student to a different section of package, depending in the nature of the response. Most of all, the computer can complete all of these action very quickly and is always unfailingly accurate and precise.

#### **(2) The benefit of the teacher**

As for the benefit of the teacher, the computer presents several aspects of particular promise. Prominent among these is its versatility in handling different kinds of material. For example, the simplest is the one-way presentation of information, in the

form of text, graphics, audio and video. Also, the computer can handle question-and-answer routines, simulated 'dialogues', hypothesis testing, and many other types of exercises. When the student has completed the session, the computer can record results, errors, success rates, the time spent, and much more information for the teacher to review at a later time. Unlike a textbook lesson, which the teacher cannot change, and to which at best some subsidiary materials can be added, the computer exercise can be easily modified.

### (3) The benefit of the learner

The computer also offers many advantages for the student. 'Access' is one of the benefits. The computer offers the student the choice of when to study particular topics and how long to spend on them. The flexibility makes many educational courses accessible to students who would otherwise have no chance to take them.

## **1.2 The disadvantage of using computer in language teaching and learning**

There are some problems in using the computer for language teaching. Some of these stems from the nature of the computer itself, while others relate to the present state of CALL. The easiest way to start with CALL is to buy materials off-the-shelf or to borrow materials developed by colleagues. In the early days, computer programs are seldom 'compatible'. Unless the computer is the same as the one on which the materials were produced, they will probably not run without modification. Although such problem is reduced more than that of the past, it still exists. Another problem is the quality of CALL programs. If such CALL packages can be borrowed or bought, the quality of a lot of CALL material leaves much to be desired. Like any other educational materials, CALL programs need to be evaluated.

In addition, there is the question of the range of activities to which to computer can contribute. The material which can usefully be handled by a computer represents at best a tiny fraction of the linguistic knowledge which a teacher brings to bear in a language class. What computers really can do is present text to the student; accept the responses from specific input such as keyboard, mouse; given the right equipment; provide graphics, video and audio. In question-and-answer learning, the variety of responses which a question can evoke from the student must therefore be carefully anticipated by the CALL author.

## **2. The development of CALL**

### **2.1 Background**

CALL arose from the combination of two separate factors: educational needs and technological means. Developments in CALL can be traced back to the 1960's: the PLATO project, a large system developed at the University of Illinois, and the computer-based foreign-language-teaching project at Stanford University, led the way in the evolution of CALL. Over the last few years, there has been a flurry of largely unrelated activity in CALL. All of these are prompted by the emergence of inexpensive microcomputer systems. Although the computer's educational potential was being discussed as far as back as the late 1940's, it took some time for educators to begin to assess the educational nature of the computer, and the ways in which it could be adapted to, and integrated into, learning programs and curricula.

Modern CALL is the result of the convergence of several lines of research into the use of computers in handling language. Except the work directly concerned with language teaching and the history of the component of CALL, there are three other lines of research which have had an important influence on the evolution of CALL: experiments in programmed instruction, developments in computational linguistics and work on machine translation.

Developments in computational linguistics and machine translation had an indirect but important influence on CALL. Ahmad et al. (1985) comments, "... since research efforts in the two fields clearly determine the 'limit' of computer usage in literary and linguistic research and so by implication also define the 'limits' of computer usage in language teaching and learning."

### **2.2 A brief history**

The late 1960s and early 1970s are of particular historical important for CALL. The rapid development in computer technology paved the way for the educational use of computers in language teaching and learning.

There were famous plans during the early development of CALL as follows:

#### **(1) The Stanford Project**

It dates from the mid 1960s and was carried out under the supervision of Van Campen in the Slavic Language Department. The work was a computer-based introductory Russian course, and was self-instructional: most of the teaching material was on the computer. The 170 hour Russian course was scheduled by the student over an academic year. During the course of the project, the hardware at Stanford has changed significantly. Instead of the slow teletype there is now a bilingual visual display

unit, and in place of the tape-reorder there is a computer-generated audio system. Overall, the work done at Stanford on the curriculum was interesting and significant.

(2) The PLATO System (The Programmed Logic for Automated Teaching Operations) System. The system was developed at the University of Illinois, in conjunction with the Control Data Corporation, together with the special purpose software to develop CAL material. One measure of the success of the PLATO system is its ability to survive over a period of two decades and to sustain the interest of teachers.

The first teacher to use the PLATO system for language teaching is Curtin. (Curtin et al. 1972).

(3) The microcomputer boom

The late 1970s will be remembered as a period in which the microcomputer established itself as a consumer product. The cheapness of the microcomputer means that computing facilities are now much more widely available. The teacher may well have access to a machine at home or at work, and it is probable that several students in a given class will own one. Microcomputers offer certain advantages over mainframes since they are normally used on an individual basis. Although microcomputers are less powerful than mainframes, their capabilities are impressive. Michael C., Roy B. and Jeremy Fox (University of East Anglia) have shown that micros can support a range of CALL programs. These programs include a student monitoring system and an authoring package<sup>1</sup>. Tim Johns (University of Birmingham) has devised a range of text-based programs, which run on smaller micro (Johns 1988). A collection of articles on the teaching of English as mother tongue and as a foreign language describes several imaginative possibilities for expanding the range of CALL activities using the microcomputer (Chandler 1983).

### 3. Types of CALL Programs

CALL programs/materials include (from ICT4LT Module 1.4):

- **CALL-specific software:** applications designed to develop and facilitate language learning, such as CD-ROMs, web-based interactive language learning exercises/quizzes (see CD-ROM examples for language learning)
- **Generic software:** applications designed for general purposes, such as word-processors (Word), presentation software (PowerPoint, see an e-book made by students "Many Moons"), and spreadsheet (Excel), that can be used to support

language learning (see examples of using Excel for language learning & teaching)

\*Also see Microsoft Office Online Templates)

- **Web-based learning programs:** online dictionaries, online encyclopedias, online concordancers, news/magazine sites, e-texts, web-quests, web publishing, blog, wiki, etc.

- **Computer-mediated communication (CMC)** programs: synchronous - online chat; asynchronous - email, discussion forum, message board.

### 3.1 Types of CALL Activities

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- multiple-choice &amp; true/false quizzes</li> <li>- gap-filling exercise/cloze</li> <li>- matching</li> <li>- re-ordering/sequencing</li> <li>- crossword puzzles</li> <li>- games</li> <li>- simulations</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- writing &amp; word-processing</li> <li>- concordancing (Concordancing is a means of accessing a corpus of text to show how any given word or phrase in the text is used in the immediate contexts in which it appears)</li> <li>- web quests/searching</li> <li>- web publishing</li> <li>- online communication (synchronous and asynchronous)</li> </ul>
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### 3.2 What Computers Can and Can't "Do"

<b>Computers CAN</b>	<b>Computer CAN'T</b>
Judge <b>predetermined</b> right-or-wrong answers, e.g., multiple choice and fill-in-the-blanks	Judge <b>unexpected input</b>
Provide <b>immediate</b> , yet <b>fixed</b> , feedback, suggestions, and encouragement	Provide <b>individualized</b> feedback <b>beyond a predetermined list</b> of messages
Provide <b>authentic</b> information through <b>multimedia</b> - <b>texts, images, sounds, videos,</b> and <b>animations</b>	Engage learner in rich <b>negotiation of meaning</b> characteristic of face-to-face interaction
Motivate task <b>persistence</b>	Motivate <b>depth and quality of</b>

• <b>Record</b> learner's writing, speech, and learning progress	<b>engagement</b> characteristic of human interaction
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### 3.3 Roles of the Computer in language learning and teaching:

- computer as **tutor** for language drills or skill practice
- computer as a **tool** for writing, presenting, and researching
- computer as a **medium** of global communication

### 3.4 How Computers can be used in the Language Class

#### 1) Teaching with one computer in the class

- delivery of content (PowerPoint, word-processor, Webpages, etc.)
- classroom activities/discussions mediated by the computer
- Interactive whiteboard

#### 2) Teaching in the computer network room (network-based language teaching)

- task-based group work /activities
- computer-mediated communication (CMC): asynchronous/synchronous
- tandem learning

#### 3) Self-access learning (independent learning)

- drills and exercises
- word processing
- resource searching

#### 4) Distance learning (i.e. individual learners working by themselves, at a place and time of their choice and, to some extent, at a pace and in an order also chosen by themselves.)

- delivering online course content
- CMC activities: email, discussion forum, chat rooms
- tandem learning
- community building

### 3.4 Principles of Using and Designing CALL Programs in Language Learning and Teaching

- student/learner-centeredness (to promote learner autonomy)
- meaningful purpose
- comprehensive input
- sufficient level of stimulation (cognitively and affectively)
- multiple modalities (to support various learning styles and strategies)
- high level of interaction (human-machine and human-human)

#### **4. Top Ten Software to Teach and Learn English**

##### **Rosetta Stone**

Rosetta Stone English helps its students [learn English](#) through an interactive system of incremental advancement in the language. Learning English in Rosetta Stone occurs through three core components: You learn, practice and play to reinforce what you've learned. The Rosetta Stone learning method is about absorbing English. It starts by teaching words instead of vocabulary lists. There's also speech recognition technology to help with English pronunciation.

##### **English Live**

English Live is an online English learning program that helps its users quickly and easily learn the English language. You can use this ESL application 24/7 from any internet connection. This program offers private classes, group conversations and lessons that are not only designed to improve listening skills, but also reading, writing and speaking skills.

##### **Exceller**

Exceller is a web-based learning English program to help you perfect the English language and become a better communicator. This program is designed for individuals who already have the basics of the English language down but still want to improve and become more fluent in the language. It uses reading, writing, listening and speaking methods to help you more easily learn English as a second language.

##### **Transparent Language**

Transparent Language is designed to help anyone learn English quickly. This is an online learning English application, so you don't have to worry about long downloads or

losing CDs. It lets students set their own pace and learning methods; you don't have to follow a limited and structured plan, like some other applications require.

## **Memrise**

### ***What is a corpus?***

In order to answer this question, let's go back to the year 1755. The great lexicographer, Samuel Johnson, has just completed the heroic task of writing the most influential dictionary in the history of the English language.

One notable feature of the 42,773 entries in his work is that they are accompanied by both definitions and literary quotations. For example,

### **Opulence**

*Wealth; riches; affluence*

“There in full *opulence* a banker dwelt,  
Who all the joys and pangs of riches felt;  
His sideboards glitter'd woth imagin'd plate,  
And his proud fancy held a vest estate.”

- Jonathan Swift

For Dr Johnson, it was these literary quotations or “illustrations” as they are usually referred to, that carried the weight: the specimens came first, analysis came later. This meant that the largest part of his 10-year task involved ploughing through huge quantities of texts.

Writer Henry Hitchings hints at the state of Johnson's work area when he says, “The garret at 17, Gogh Street [his study]... became a sort of backstreet abattoir specializing in the evisceration of books; traumatized volumes lay all around.”

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## **LECTURE 4: CEFR: TEACHING, LEARNING AND ASSESSMENT**

### **Lecture Outline:**

1. *A brief history of the CEFR*
2. *CEFR Levels*
3. *Understanding the benefits for teachers*
4. *Defining how long it will take to reach each CEF level*
5. *Using CEF-referenced course books*

### **1. A brief history of the CEFR**

The CEFR is the result of developments in language education that date back to the 1970s and beyond, and its publication in 2001 was the direct outcome of several

discussions, meetings and consultation processes which had taken place over the previous 10 years.

The development of the CEFR coincided with fundamental changes in language teaching, with the move away from the grammar-translation method to communicative approach. The CEFR reflects these later approaches.

The CEFR is also the result of a need for a common international framework for language learning which would facilitate co-operation among educational institutions in different countries, particularly within Europe. It was also hoped that it would provide a sound basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications and help learners, teachers, course designers, examining bodies and educational administrators to situate their own efforts within a wider frame of reference.

## **2. CEFR Levels**

People have been learning, teaching, and assessing language for centuries. In this long history, there have been as many different ways of teaching as there have been ways of describing levels of language learning and assessment. Even today, schools, universities, and language academies use many different methodologies and many ways to describe proficiency levels. What may be an intermediate level in one country may be an upper-intermediate level in another. Levels may vary even among institutions in the same area.

Consider how you would describe to a learner what you mean by intermediate:

- What is an intermediate level?
- What does intermediate mean to you as a teacher and to your learners?
- Does intermediate refer to how a learner communicates in an everyday situation in an English speaking country, to the amount of vocabulary a person has learned to use, or to the grammar items a person at that level understands?
- How can we assess a learner's achievement at an intermediate level if we don't define exactly what we mean by intermediate?

Comparing levels becomes even more difficult when comparing someone who is learning English to someone who is learning another language, for example, French. Can we directly compare the proficiency level of an advanced English student to that of an advanced French student?

In order to facilitate both teaching and learning, we need a way to specify what our learners are able to do at certain levels. As teachers, we also need to know how these levels can guide our teaching and the way we select course books and resources. In

short, we need a common language by which we can describe language learning, teaching, and assessment.

In most countries there is general agreement that language learning can be organized into three levels: basic/beginner, intermediate, and advanced.

Reflecting this, the Council of Europe developed the Common European Framework of References for Languages to establish international standards for learning, teaching, and assessment for all modern European languages. B. Understanding and using the Global Scale The Common European Framework describes what a learner can do at six specific levels: A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2.

- Basic User (A1 and A2)
- Independent User (B1 and B2)
- Proficient User (C1 and C2)

These levels match general concepts of basic, intermediate, and advanced and are often referred to as the Global Scale. For each level, the full CEF document complements this by describing in depth

- Competencies necessary for effective communication.
- Skills and knowledge related to language learning and competencies.
- Situations (people, place, time, organization, etc.) and contexts (study, work, social, tourism, etc.) in which communication takes place. The Global Scale is not language-specific. In other words, it can be used with virtually any language and can be used to compare achievement and learning across languages. For example, an A2 in Spanish is the same as an A2 in Japanese or English. The Global Scale also helps teachers, academic coordinators, and course book writers to decide on curriculum and syllabus content and to choose appropriate course books, etc.

“Can do” statements The Global Scale is based on a set of statements that describe what a learner can do. The “can do” statements are always positive: they describe what a learner is able to do, not what a learner cannot do or does wrong. This helps all learners, even those at the lowest levels, see that learning has value and that they can attain language goals.

The Common European Framework is not a political or cultural tool used to promote Europe or European educational systems. The word European refers to European languages, although the CEF has now been translated into more than 30 languages, including non-European languages such as Arabic and Japanese, making it accessible to nearly everyone around the world.

### **3. Understanding the benefits for teachers**

If you choose to use the CEF as a reference point for your classroom, here are some of the benefits related to using a common framework:

1. Teachers have access to a meaningful and useful point of reference that is understood globally and that informs their decisions on measuring language knowledge and skills.
2. Teachers receive a detailed description of learning, teaching, and assessing languages, how learners compare to a set of competencies, and how they carry out communicative tasks.
3. Teachers and learners move toward specific levels and specific goals of those levels.
4. Teachers may want to select teaching materials (course books and resources) that are referenced to the CEF.
5. CEF levels provide an indication of performance and ability to function in communicative contexts in a foreign language.
6. There are no requirements in the CEF; it is a framework of reference. It is up to the teacher and learner to plot a course for language development. The CEF does not tell them what to do or how to do it.
7. The CEF invites practitioners (all those involved in teaching and learning a language) to reflect on their approach to teaching, learning, and assessment.

#### **4. Defining how long it will take to reach each CEF level**

As mentioned before in this guide, one of the main concerns of teachers is how long it takes to reach each level. At first glance, the CEF appears to be like a staircase with each step the same distance from the next (A1 to A2 to B1 to B2, etc.). This might seem to indicate that each step or level should be achieved in an equal amount of time. But learning a language is like climbing a mountain:

the ascent gets harder the higher you climb. It does not take the same amount of time to reach each level. It will take longer to get to B2 from B1 than it does to get to A2 from A1. A principle reason for this is that as the learner progresses with the language, he or she needs to acquire a larger range of language knowledge and competencies. Also, when going beyond B1 level, most learners reach a linguistic plateau, and acquisition slows. Teachers are of course aware of this and understand that the language learning process is a continual and very individualized one. Because no two learners develop their language skills in the same way or at the same pace, it is difficult to define the exact amount of time needed to reach each level. The Association of

Language Testers of Europe (ALTE), whose members have aligned their language examinations with the CEF, provides guidance on the number of guided teaching hours needed to fulfil the aims of each CEF level:

- A1 Approximately 90 - 100 hours
- A2 Approximately 180 - 200 hours
- B1 Approximately 350 - 400 hours
- B2 Approximately 500 - 600 hours
- C1 Approximately 700 - 800 hours
- C2 Approximately 1,000 - 1,200 hours

Guided teaching hours are the hours during which the learner is in a formal learning context such as the classroom. The number of hours needed for different learners varies greatly, depending on a range of factors such as

- age and motivation
- background
- amount of prior study and extent of exposure to the language outside the classroom
- amount of time spent in individual study

Learners from some countries and cultures may take longer to acquire a new language, especially if they have to learn to read and write with a Latin script.

### **5. Using CEF-referenced course books**

For many teachers and curriculum planners, one difficulty with any framework (not just the CEF) is deciding how to match the levels to an existing curriculum and classroom goals. By comparing the content of your course to the CEF, you can define what language skills, vocabulary, grammar, and communicative functions will be covered. Course books and supplementary materials that are referenced to the CEF can help the teacher achieve his or her classroom goals. Pearson Longman has helped by aligning course books with the CEF. This helps the teacher decide whether the content of the course book (topics, language covered, etc.) fits classroom goals and learners' needs and whether the level is appropriate. Teachers know their classroom goals better than anyone else. Working with other teachers in your institution as a group, you may want to read through the levels in the CEF Global Scale and self-assessment grids (as a minimum) and decide how you think they fit the classroom goals, the curriculum, the syllabus, and the course book you have chosen.

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## LECTURE 5: RAISING LANGUAGE LEARNERS' INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE IN EFL CLASSROOM

### *Lecture Outline:*

- Introduction
- What is intercultural learning?
- What do we understand by the word 'culture'?
- Intercultural awareness
- Intercultural communicative competence
- Intercultural awareness skills
- How does this affect the role of the teacher?
- When should we introduce this?
- Classroom Activities for Intercultural Learning

### **Introduction**

There will have been points in most teachers' careers when we have stopped to wonder "What am I actually doing?". Sometimes, filling our students up with all the requisite grammar and vocabulary, and polishing their pronunciation and honing their communicative skills doesn't actually seem to be helping them to achieve the wider goal of being able to genuinely communicate with and understand the real world outside the classroom at all.

For too long, teachers have been concentrating on structures and forms and producing materials that may help our students to have perfect diphthongs or a flawless command of the third conditional while leaving out anything approaching real, valid, meaningful content. Major ELT publishers have produced materials so carefully calculated not to offend anyone that they far too often end up being vacuous if not completely meaningless. If our students are to have any hope of using their language skills to genuinely comprehend and communicate in the global village, intercultural awareness is crucial.

### **What is intercultural learning?**

The process of becoming more aware of and better understanding one's own culture and other cultures around the world. The aim of intercultural learning is to increase international and cross-cultural tolerance and understanding. This can take lots of forms - intercultural learning is by no means only a part of EFL, but has exponents in all fields of education.

### **What do we understand by the word 'culture'?**

A way of life. A set of social practices. A system of beliefs. A shared history or set of experiences. A culture may be synonymous with a country, or a region, or a nationality or it may cross several countries or regions. A culture may be synonymous with a religion, though followers of Christianity or Judaism or Islam may also come from different cultures. It is highly possible to belong to or identify oneself with more than one culture.

### **Intercultural awareness**

Intercultural awareness in language learning is often talked about as though it were a 'fifth skill' - the ability to be aware of cultural relativity following reading, writing, listening and speaking. There is something to be said for this as an initial attempt to understand or define something that may seem a difficult concept but, as Claire Kramsch points out ... "If...language is seen as social practice, culture becomes the very core of language teaching. Cultural awareness must then be viewed as enabling language proficiency ... Culture in language teaching is not an expendable fifth skill, tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading and writing" (in *Context and Culture in Language Teaching* OUP, 1993).

Language itself is defined by a culture. We cannot be competent in the language if we do not also understand the culture that has shaped and informed it. We cannot learn a second language if we do not have an awareness of that culture, and how that

culture relates to our own first language/first culture. It is not only therefore essential to have cultural awareness, but also intercultural awareness.

### **Intercultural communicative competence**

Following on from what Kramsch says above, intercultural awareness is not really therefore a skill, but a collection of skills and attitudes better thought of as a competence.

Intercultural communicative competence is an attempt to raise students' awareness of their own culture, and in so doing, help them to interpret and understand other cultures. It is not just a body of knowledge, but a set of practices requiring knowledge, skills and attitudes.

### **Intercultural awareness skills**

What are these attitudes and skills that make up the competence? Among them are:

- observing, identifying and recognizing
- comparing and contrasting
- negotiating meaning
- dealing with or tolerating ambiguity
- effectively interpreting messages
- limiting the possibility of misinterpretation
- defending one's own point of view while acknowledging the legitimacy of others
- accepting difference

These are very similar to many of the skills we teach normally. So what makes intercultural learning different? Raised awareness of what we do and of the vital importance of these skills already makes intercultural communicative competence a more attainable goal. Moreover - and despite the fact that the competence is more than just a body of knowledge - intercultural awareness skills can be developed by designing materials which have cultural and intercultural themes as their content, a kind of loop input, if you like.

### **How does this affect the role of the teacher?**

Intercultural learning gives the teacher a role not only as one or more of these, but also as an educator. This makes many teachers feel uncomfortable, above all with the idea that we may be influencing our students in some way. Are we responsible for transmitting some kind of ideology to our students?

No, we are helping them to become more aware of the world around them, and to better interact with that world. These are the crucial roles of the teacher.

Moreover, EFL teachers tend to have a wide variety of different backgrounds in different disciplines. They have different experiences, and in many cases may have travelled extensively and got to know several different cultures. They may have undergone the experience of living in, adjusting to and understanding a different culture. There is a lot that they can bring to the job. They are unique mediators of cultural relativity.

### **When should we introduce this?**

Previously, "cultural awareness" has often only been seen as something for advanced learners, an extension exercise that can be "tacked on" to an ordinary lesson. This is partly due to the all-too-frequent error of assuming that students with a low level of English also have a low intellect generally, or that it is impossible to explain intellectual concepts in level one English. Intercultural awareness, as a fundamental feature of language and an integral part of language learning, is important at all levels.

### **Activities for Intercultural Awareness**

#### ***Exploring self***

One of the aims of IcLL is to make learners' invisible culturally-shaped knowledge visible in culture learning so that they can explore their self. To do this, for example, learners can engage in group discussion activities about the differences in ideas that make up a family in their own family trees. This task can increase awareness of the diversity within learners' own culture as well as their individual concepts of family (Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993).

Learners can also develop their cultural awareness through cultural connotations of vocabulary which may draw different pictures for people from different cultures. Teachers can ask learners to draw a spidergram about words associated with family or breakfast in order to know which words reflect the learners' own culture or the target culture. For example, the word family produces a picture of an extended family (grandparents, aunts, uncles, nephews, nieces, etc) in Uzbek culture, whereas it is a picture of a nuclear family (parents and children) in English-speaking cultures. An awareness of such cultural connotation can help learners avoid misconceptions about other cultures which may have different cultural connotations of vocabulary.

#### **Noticing/observation**

##### **• *Creating an authentic environment***

To arouse learners' interest, motivation and curiosity for culture learning, teachers and learners can decorate their classrooms with cultural images of the target culture. For example, teachers and learners can bring photos of families from different

cultures or posters and pictures of some typical types of British food and drinks to make a culture wallchart (Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993) in the classroom. This technique is known as the culture island (Hughes, 1986) which aims at “attracting student attention, eliciting questions and comments” (p. 168) for culture learning. Learners can also bring some authentic materials about family life in the target culture, or eating and drinking habits of English people to share with the whole class. Such activities will make the lessons more interesting and learners will feel more motivated in learning about the target culture.

- ***Watching video***

Video is used as a means of expanding learners' ability to observe the cultural behaviours of people of the target culture. With a critical eye, learners can increase their awareness of observable features of the target culture for reflections and language production. For example, a video clip about a British family having dinner with some guests can help learners identify British people's cultural norms in table manners, self-reflect on those in their own culture and discuss cultural similarities and differences. Similarly, watching a video clip about the tradition of tea breaks in British Culture can help learners notice how people of the target culture behave socially in the afternoon tea. By observing cultural behaviours of people from the target culture, learners will “become aware of the ways in which their own cultural background influences their own behaviour, and develop a tolerance for behaviour patterns that are different from their own” (Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993, p. 82).

### **Cultural exploration**

- ***Ethnographic interviews***

Learners can conduct ethnographic interviews with native English speakers to interpret and construct their own model of cultural learning through the exploration of family values or eating and drinking norms in the target culture. This can be done outside the classroom or with native English speakers invited to the class. Learners are then asked to present an oral report about what they have known about the target culture from their interviews. Ethnographic interviews are used because of a variety of cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes they offer.

As Bateman (2004) argues, learners engaging in ethnographic interviews enhance not only their attitudes towards the speakers and the target culture, but also their communication competence with people from other cultures and awareness of the influence of their own culture in their lives.

- ***Dealing with cultural stereotypes***

Learners can engage in tasks of cultural exploration to identify any cultural stereotypes that may exist. For instance, learners can present their ideas about British food through the posters/pictures they bring to class. They will reflect on what they may think in cultural stereotypes. This task can help them to reflect on the bad reputation of British food as a stereotype. Another stereotypical representation dealing with a family issue about living with one's parents until marriage can be modified. In Uzbekistan, many people still live with their parents after marriage. Learners can thus discuss the advantages and disadvantages of living with parents when they are grown-up or when they are daughters-in-law or sons-in-law. Tomalin and Stempleski (1993) state that some stereotypes are harmful as "they don't allow for individuality, they encourage negative judgment, and lead to misunderstanding" (p. 127).

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## **LECTURE 6: USING AUTHENTIC MATERIALS IN THE EFL CLASSROOM**

### ***Outline of the lecture session:***

1. *Historical overview*
2. *Defining authenticity*
3. *The gap between authentic language and textbook language*
4. *Using Authentic Materials*
  - 4.1 *Sources*
  - 4.2 *Aren't authentic materials too difficult?*
  - 4.3 *An example*
  - 4.4 *The question of levels*
  - 4.5 *Dealing with unknown language*
5. *Conclusion*

### **1. Historical overview**

The use of authentic materials in foreign language learning has a long history. Henry Sweet, for example, who taught and wrote at the end of the nineteenth century and is regarded as one of the first linguists, made regular use of authentic texts in his books and was well aware of their potential advantages over contrived materials: The great advantage of natural, idiomatic texts over artificial 'methods' or 'series' is that they do justice to every feature of the language [...] The artificial systems, on the other hand, tend to cause incessant repetition of certain grammatical constructions, certain elements of the vocabulary, certain combinations of words to the almost total exclusion of others which are equally, or perhaps even more, essential. (Sweet 1899: 177)

During the twentieth century, however, prevailing linguistic theories of the time spawned a multitude of methods such as the 'New Method' and the 'Audiolingual Method' (Richards and Rodgers 1986) which all imposed carefully structured (and

therefore contrived) materials and prescribed behaviours on teachers and learners, leading to what Howatt (1984: 267) refers to as a 'cult of materials', where: " The authority of the approach resided in the materials themselves, not in the lessons given by the teacher using them, a philosophy which paved the way for the replacement of teachers by machines such as language laboratories." (ibid: 267)

Large-scale trials in the 1960s, comparing the merits of different methods in the classroom, not surprisingly, proved inconclusive since researchers were seriously underestimating the role of teachers and learners in the learning process and the profession grew disillusioned with the search for a 'perfect method' (Howatt 1984; Alderson & Beretta 1992).

The issue of authenticity reappeared in the 1970's as the debate between Chomsky (1965) and Hymes (1972) led to a realisation that communicative competence involved much more than knowledge of language structures and contextualized communication began to take precedence over form. This culminated in the approach which, at least in EFL circles, still holds sway today – Communicative Language Teaching – and paved the way for the reintroduction of authentic texts which were valued for the ideas they were communicating rather than the linguistic forms they illustrated. However, despite appeals for greater authenticity in language learning going back at least 30 years (O'Neill & Scott 1974; Crystal & Davy 1975; Schmidt & Richards 1980; Morrow 1981), movements in this direction have been slow. The debate over the role of authenticity, as well as what it means to be authentic, has become increasingly sophisticated and complex over the years and now embraces research from a wide variety of fields including discourse and conversational analysis, pragmatics, cross-cultural studies, sociolinguistics, ethnology, second language acquisition, cognitive and social psychology, learner autonomy, information and communication technology (ICT), motivation research and materials development.

Unfortunately, many researchers limit their reading to their own particular area of specialization and, although this is understandable given the sheer volume of publications within each field, it can mean that insights from one area don't necessarily receive attention from others. With a concept such as authenticity, which touches on so many areas, it is important to attempt to bridge these divides and consolidate what we now know so that sensible decisions can be made in terms of the role that authenticity should have in foreign language learning in the future.

## **2. Defining authenticity**

There is a considerable range of meanings associated with authenticity, and therefore it is little surprise if the term remains ambiguous in most teachers' minds. What is more, it is impossible to engage in a meaningful debate over the pros and cons of authenticity until we agree on what we are talking about. At least eight possible meanings emerge from the literature:

a) Authenticity relates to the language produced by native speakers for native speakers in a particular language community (Porter & Roberts 1981; Little et al. 1989).

b) Authenticity relates to the language produced by a real speaker/writer for a real audience, conveying a real message (Morrow 1977; Porter & Roberts 1981; Swaffar 1985; Nunan 1988/9; Benson & Voller 1997).

c) Authenticity relates to the qualities bestowed on a text by the receiver, in that it is not seen as something inherent in a text itself, but is imparted on it by the reader/listener (Widdowson 1978/9; Breen 1983).

d) Authenticity relates to the interaction between students and teachers (van Lier 1996).

e) Authenticity relates to the types of task chosen (Breen 1983; Bachman 1991; van Lier 1996; Benson & Voller 1997; Lewkowicz 2000; Guariento & Morley 2001).

f) Authenticity relates to the social situation of the classroom (Breen 1983; Arnold 1991; Lee 1995; Guariento & Morley 2001; Rost 2002).

g) Authenticity relates to assessment (Bachman 1991; Bachman & Palmer 1996; Lewkowicz 2000).

h) Authenticity relates to culture, and the ability to behave or think like a target language group in order to be recognized and validated by them (Kramsch 1998).

From these brief outlines we can see that the concept of authenticity can be situated in either the text itself, in the participants, in the social or cultural situation and purposes of the communicative act, or some combination of these. Reviewing the multitude of meanings associated with authenticity above, it is clear that it has become a very slippery concept to identify as our understanding of language and learning has deepened.

### **3. The gap between authentic language and textbook language**

It has long been recognised that the language presented to students in textbooks is a poor representation of the real thing:

'...even the best materials we have seen are far away from that real, informal kind of English which is used very much more than any other during a normal speaking lifetime; and if one aim of the language-teaching exercise is to provide students with the

linguistic expertise to be able to participate confidently and fluently in situations involving this kind of English, then it would generally be agreed that this aim is not being achieved at the present time.’ (Crystal & Davy 1975: 2)

Although, in the intervening years since these comments were made, much has been done to redress the balance, there remain numerous gaps. Research into different areas of communicative competence through discourse or conversational analysis, pragmatics and sociolinguistics has exploded and, with our deepening understanding of how people make meaning through language, it has become clear that it is time for a fundamental change in the way we design our syllabuses:

‘...awareness of discourse and a willingness to take on board what a language-as-discourse view implies can only make us better and more efficient syllabus designers, task designers, dialogue-writers, materials adaptors and evaluators of everything we do and handle in the classroom. Above all, the approach we have advocated enables us to be more faithful to what language is and what people use it for. The moment one starts to think of language as discourse, the entire landscape changes, usually, for ever.’ (McCarthy & Carter 1994: 201)

What follows, is a review of some of the relevant research that supports the need for the paradigm shift, alluded to above. It is far from comprehensive but serves to illustrate how inadequate many current language textbooks are in developing learners’ overall communicative competence.

#### **4. Using Authentic Materials**

Using authentic materials is one of the mainstays of an imaginative and motivating higher level course, but rarely features at levels lower than intermediate. There are several reasons for this, primarily a kind of fear that students will panic when faced with language that is largely unfamiliar, and a feeling that to prevent this the language should be edited to the students’ level. This is an unnecessary fear, as using authentic materials can be rewarding and stimulating for both teacher and students.

##### **4.1 Sources**

When people first think of authentic materials they usually assume that we are talking about newspaper and magazine articles. However, the term can also encompass such things as songs, web pages, radio & TV broadcasts, films, leaflets, flyers, posters, indeed anything written in the target language and used unedited in the classroom.

The materials used, will of course, depend on the ‘usual’ factors:

topic

target language area

skills

students' needs and interests

It's no good trying to get your students fascinated by a text on the latest art movie if they are all fans of action films. You might as well save your time and energy and just use the text book!

#### **4.2 Aren't authentic materials too difficult?**

Yes they are, but that's the point! Your text, written or recorded, is likely to be too hard, even, in some cases, for advanced students. The trick, regardless of the text used, is not to edit and grade the text, but to grade the task according to your students' abilities. This is for three reasons: most importantly, it reflects the kind of situation your students may face in an English-speaking environment, it saves you time and energy (more of an added bonus than a reason) and lastly it encourages and motivates your students when they can 'conquer' a real text.

#### **4.3 An example**

The same text could be used in a variety of different ways. Let us take a tourist information leaflet. This kind of authentic material has the added advantage that it can be easily and swiftly ordered for free and in multiple copies from tourist boards and agencies. This also removes issues of copyright, which is a common problem of using authentic materials and should be checked depending on your particular situation. (Some countries allow a small number of copies to be made for educational purposes, but this can vary.)

With a little pre-teaching a low level class can use the leaflet to find out key information, 'What is the telephone number for..?' or 'When is..?' and so on.

At higher levels the same text could be used together with similar or related texts to form part of a research project (in this case, web sites, posters and similar leaflets spring to mind).

#### **4.4 The question of levels**

Naturally certain texts will lend themselves more easily to certain levels.

At lower levels some possibilities include leaflets, timetables, menus, short headline type reports, audio and video advertising, or short news broadcasts. The task should be simple and relatively undemanding, and it is important to pre-teach key vocabulary so as to prevent panic.

At more intermediate levels this list could be expanded to include longer articles, four or five minute TV or radio news reports, a higher quantity of shorter items, or even whole TV programmes, if your copyright agreements allow it. Again pre-teaching is

important, although your students should be able to deal with unknown vocabulary to some extent.

At higher levels it's a case of anything goes. At an advanced level students should have some tactics for dealing with new vocabulary without panicking, but it's still useful to have a few quick definitions to hand for some of the trickier stuff!

#### **4.5 Dealing with unknown language**

As can be seen, a key skill here is dealing with unknown language, in particular vocabulary. It is hard to cover this topic here, as there are several methods, although one which seems immediately appropriate is the skill of ignoring it, if they can complete the task without it!

Especially with lower levels, it needs to be emphasised that students do not have to understand everything. I've found that students don't often believe you until you go through a few tasks with them. Teaching them this skill, and developing their confidence at coping with the unknown is an important element in their development as independent learners.

#### **5. Conclusion**

As can be seen, using authentic materials is a relatively easy and convenient way of improving not only your students' general skills, but also their confidence in a real situation. This is only a brief introduction to the ideas involved, but some of these ideas could easily be expanded to form part of a motivating and effective course.

If you have any suggestions or tips for using authentic materials in the class you would like to share on this site, contact us.

### **LECTURE 7: USING AND EVALUATING TEXTBOOK IN TEACHING ENGLISH**

#### ***Lecture Outline:***

##### *Introduction*

- 1. Types of Textbooks*
- 2. English Textbook in Teaching and Learning*
- 3. English Textbook Selection and Evaluation*

#### **Introduction**

The spread of English as a global language of communication and the almost simultaneous advances in information and communications technology have led to a worldwide demand for up-to-date and user-friendly teaching materials. Publishing

houses throughout the English-speaking world respond by producing mass-market coursebooks, designed to appeal to as many teaching and learning situations as possible, thus maximising their sales potential, but there have also been a number of recent initiatives involving the production of coursebooks designed to meet the needs of learners and teachers in a particular country or group of countries.

Textbooks provide novice teachers with guidance in course and activity design; it assures a measure of structure, consistency, and logical progression in a class; It meets a learner's needs or expectations of having something concrete to work from and take home for further study; It may provide multiple resources: tapes, CDs, videos, self-study workbooks etc. While the quality of ESL reading textbooks has improved dramatically in recent years, the process of selecting an appropriate text has not become any easier for most teachers and administrators. Thus, the paper discusses for evaluating reading textbooks for use in ESL/EFL classrooms. Classroom teachers spend much time using textbooks in class, so choosing an appropriate one is important. And the paper describes the role of the textbook. Using this will make the textbook selection process more efficient and more reliable.

Textbooks and related teaching and learning materials/media have been adapted continuously to the ever-changing and growing challenges and demands of learning English as a foreign language, to new findings in foreign/second language research and theory construction and to advances in information technology, scholarly views on the role of the textbook and recommendations on how to use it in everyday classroom practice very often reflect little more than personal opinion and/or common sense. Learning is simply the process of adjusting the environment to accommodate new experiences. The administrative de-emphasis of the teacher in the second language classroom would suggest that teachers must learn how to integrate and organize content of a textbook to make learning an interactive and meaningful experience, as opposed to an act that can be completed alone by self-directed study with a textbook. A practical, thorough, and straightforward method for choosing ESL textbooks is to analyze the options according to program issues, going from broad to specific. The strategy behind this technique is to eliminate unsatisfactory textbooks at each stage of analysis so that only the most appropriate are left at the end, making the choice clear and manageable. Parrish (2004) describes benefits of using a textbook can meet a learner's needs or expectations of having something concrete to work from and take home for further study.

## 1. Types of Textbooks

### **Core series:**

This is a sequence of books, usually from beginning through high-intermediate or advanced levels that sometimes includes a literacy level as well. The four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) are integrated, although according to Betsy Parrish, “many series put a stronger emphasis on listening and speaking skills development and have a life-skills focus.” (2004, p. 25). The books include life-skills competencies, grammar and language functions, vocabulary, and often, American social and cultural information. Many series include many components (such as audiovisual elements, teacher materials, Web-based assistance, and assessment options). Most core series try to relate in some way to standardized assessments, national, state, and other standards.

### **Integrated-skills texts:**

These books also provide practice in the four skills, but they are single texts rather than being part of a leveled core series.

### **Grammar texts:**

Some books are core grammar series (going from beginning to advance) and include both presentation and practice for learners. Others are reference books not typically used as student texts, but useful for both teachers and learners as specific questions arise.

### **Skill-specific texts:**

These books focus on one particular skill, such as listening, reading, speaking, vocabulary, or pronunciation.

### **Literacy texts:**

Some books and other materials are designed specifically for learners who have had limited formal education (usually six or fewer years).

### **Content-based texts:**

These books are focused on specific subject areas such as civics or citizenship, job-related topics, or academic preparation.

### **Dictionaries:**

Picture dictionaries for beginning levels and a range of English-only dictionaries (from limited, with simple definitions to high advanced) for other levels can be useful for learners both in and outside of class.

## 2. English Textbook in Teaching and Learning

Textbooks remain a staple within school curricula worldwide, presenting teachers and students with the official knowledge of school subjects as well as the preferred values, attitudes, skills, and behaviors of experts in those fields. Textbooks are commodities, political objects, and cultural representations and, therefore, are the site and result of struggles and compromise in order to determine how and by whom they will be produced, how and by whom their contents will be selected, how and to whom they will be distributed, and how teachers and students will make use of them. The integration of language and content instruction is of increasing interest in second and foreign language programs at elementary, secondary, and tertiary levels around the world.

### **3. English Textbook Selection and Evaluation**

The reliability of selecting and evaluating a commercial textbook is influenced by the target use group, the perspective used in making the selection and the instruments used in the process.

In some situations, the textbook may function as a supplement to the teachers' instruction in the ESL teaching and learning process. For most teachers, textbooks provide the foundation for the content of lessons, the balance of the skills taught, as well as the kinds of language practice the students engage in during class activities. For the ESL learners, the textbook becomes the major source of contact they have with the language apart from the input provided by the teacher. Prior to selecting a textbook, educators should thoroughly examine the program curriculum.

If the goals and curriculum of the program are clear and well defined, the parallels with certain textbooks may become obvious. For example, if one of the goals of the program is to give students an opportunity to interact with authentic texts, then books that use articles written for native English speakers would be appropriate. If the program focuses on developing reading fluency, books designed to support the development of reading skills would be appropriate. The textbook has a process for developing curriculum that is based on a needs assessment of learners and includes participation and input from other stakeholders. The curriculum and instructional materials are easily accessible, up to date, appropriate for learners, culturally sensitive, oriented to the language and literacy needs of the learners, and suitable for a variety of learning styles. Sample Measures for Instructional Materials:

- They are up to date (e.g. published within the past 10 years).
- They contain relevant content.

They take into account the linguistic and cultural diversity of the student population.

The layout and formatting (including font size) is appropriate for the student population.

Visuals and graphics are clear, appropriate for adults and culturally sensitive.

Voice and sound in audiovisual materials are clear, authentic, and appropriate.

The materials address a variety of learning styles.

The materials are conducive to being used with a variety of grouping strategies.

The materials contain exercises in which learners share previous experience with prior knowledge of the content.

According to Los Angeles Unified School District Textbook Evaluation (2002) research, the following model standards, current teaching strategies and methods are used to rate textbook effectiveness:

Integrates four language skills: speaking, listening, reading, writing.

Incorporates life skills included in course outline.

Receptive skills before productive (listen/read before speak/write).

Integrates different learning styles: aural, oral, visual, kinesthetic.

Incorporates and varies different methodologies and techniques.

Grouping strategies: individual, pair, group and team work.

Incorporates higher level thinking skills and problem solving.

Sufficient student practice.

Grammar: taught in context; spiraling activities.

Interactive/communicative approaches.

Vocabulary: target vocabulary in lesson, recycled in lesson.

Reading: pre-read, read, post-read activities; theme recycled.

Writing activities integrated in text.

Assessments and self evaluations at end of unit; final tests.

Design and Format: illustrations, type size, color/black white, layout.

Pace appropriate to level.

Promotes cross-cultural awareness.

Rod Bolitho suggests some generic features of good coursebooks.

A good coursebook will:

(i) be appropriate to the context in which it is to be used, in terms of language and cultural content, length, grading and methodology

(ii) offer choices to teachers and learners

- (iii) be valued by teachers and learners
- (iv) contain language which has real world relevance and is, wherever possible, drawn from authentic sources
- (v) contain tasks and activities to motivate learners
- (vi) deal with topics which learners can identify with
- (v) support learning outside the classroom.

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## **LECTURE 8: LEARNER AUTONOMY IN LANGUAGE TEACHING**

### ***Lecture Outline:***

1. Introduction
2. Development of Autonomy through Language Teaching
3. Autonomy and Language Learning
4. Ways to Foster Learner Autonomy in English Teaching and Learning

## Introduction

Learner autonomy, especially in the field of foreign language learning was clearly articulated in the 1979 report prepared by Holec for the Council of Europe under the title of *Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning*. As for the philosophical background of learner autonomy, the starting point to encourage learners to become more autonomous is to have them accept the responsibility for their own learning.

According to Holec (1981), learners should be given the responsibility to make decisions concerning all aspects of their own special learning styles, capacities and needs. Fenner and Newby (2000), Benson (1997) argue that constructivist theories of learning constitute the major theoretical background for the psychological aspect of learner autonomy. In view of pedagogical background, Fenner and Newby (2000) point to the fact that each individual has a unique way of constructing his or her own world. Each generates rules and mental models so that they make sense of experiences. Learning is a search for meaning. Therefore, learning must start with issues around which students actively try to construct meaning. The key to succeed in learning depends on allowing each individual to construct his or her meaning, not make them memorize and repeat another person's meaning. In formal learning environments, learners can be enabled to construct their own personal learning spaces in accordance with their personal and educational needs. It seems that if learners are given a share of responsibility in the decision-making processes regarding dimensions such as pace, sequence, mode of instruction, and content of study, learning could be "more focused and more purposeful, and thus more effective both immediately and in the longer term" (Little, 1991, p.8). According to Benson, "the key idea that autonomy in language learning has borrowed from constructivism is the idea that effective learning is active learning" (2001, p. 40).

Autonomy is an elusive notion that is somewhat difficult to get hold of. In general, it denotes a significant measure of independence from external control. This is, however, balanced by our mutual dependence on each other in society. Thus, it is a question of social interdependence. According to Little (1991), autonomy is essentially a "capacity-for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, an independent action" (p.4). The term autonomy has been used in five ways as follows (Benson and Voller, 1997, p. 2):

1. situations in which learners study entirely on their own,
2. an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education,
3. a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning,
4. the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning,

5. the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning.

### **Development of Autonomy through Language Teaching**

Littlewood (1997) makes a detailed explanation on how autonomy develops in a language learner through the process of language learning. He starts his explanation by distinguishing three kinds of autonomy to be developed relevant to language teaching as follows: Language teachers aim to develop students' ability to operate independently with the language and use the language to communicate in real, unpredictable situations. Language teachers aim to help their students to develop their ability to take responsibility for their own learning and to apply active, personally meaningful strategies to their work both inside and outside the classroom. Helping their students to increase their ability to communicate and learn independently, language teachers also try to reach the goal of helping their students to develop greater generalized autonomy as individuals. Then, in language teaching teachers need to help students develop motivation, confidence, knowledge and skills that they require in order to communicate more independently, to learn more independently and to be more independent as individuals.

### **Autonomy and Language Learning**

It is a commonly held view that language learning is greatly enhanced when a student has control over the goals and the content of a course of study (Little, 1991; Dam, 1995). Helping students to develop autonomous learning capacities can be approached in a number of ways. These approaches are often given under an umbrella term of learner training and may consist of awareness raising, scaffolding, strategy training, increased social interaction, and the encouragement of reflection.

Three pedagogical principles may be suggested to express the characterization of an autonomous learner in language classroom: 1. learner empowerment, 2. reflectivity, and 3. appropriate target language use (Little, 1991).

#### ***1. The Principle of Learner Empowerment***

It entails that teachers bring their learners to accept responsibility for their own learning. A truly dialogic process entails joint exploration: teacher's understanding should grow along with that of their learners. If it does not, that is a sure sign that teachers are standing outside the process, going through the motions rather than engaging with their teaching in the way that they demand their learners should engage with their learning.

## ***2. The Principle of Reflectivity***

It is already implied by the principle of learner empowerment. In the autonomous language classroom, reflection begins as a collaborative activity in which teacher and learners seek to make explicit their joint understanding of the process they are engaged in. Reflection must be pursued as a routine that retains this meaning because the scope of the learners' responsibility is always expanding outwards, which means that the reach of their reflection is always being extended. Reflection on the learning process is another key component of learner autonomy. By reflecting on the learning process, learners become aware of how and why they choose the methods and strategies they use in different projects, and for solving different tasks.

Being aware of the learning process helps makes them autonomous (Turloiu and Stefansdottir, 2011). Reflection is unlikely to progress far without the support of writing because:

1. It is by writing things down that we provide ourselves with something to reflect on in the first place.
2. It is easier for teachers to step back from their own utterances and thoughts when they have been written down,
3. The reflective process itself is greatly facilitated if teachers use written notes to help them work out what they think.

When reflection is explicitly focussed on the learning process, it is likely to take account of motivation and affect; but it should always try to focus on the specific quality of the experience that gave rise to positive or negative feelings. For that is how learners gradually become aware that a growing capacity for metacognitive control nurtures intrinsic motivation.

## ***3. The Principle of Appropriate Target Language Use***

It requires that from the earlier stages teachers must engage their learners in forms of exploratory dialogue that require them to use the target language to express their own meanings. They must help students to construct and maintain multiple scaffolding in writing and in speech; and they must include in appropriate target language use the activities required by the principle of reflectivity. The three principles of learner empowerment, reflectivity, and target language use do not refer to three discrete aspects of the language teaching-learning process. Rather, they offer three closely related perspectives on one holistic phenomenon, the web of pedagogical dialogue that is partly in interaction between the participants in the process and partly in each participant's head. Their consistent and sustained pursuit produces a learning

community in which teaching is learning, learning involves teaching, and language learning is inseparable from language use.

In an autonomous classroom the starting point is not the textbook but the learners. It should be considered that each member of the class has interests, and emotional as well as educational and communicative needs. It should be considered that learning is not a simple matter of the unidirectional transmission of knowledge, skills, and expertise. On the contrary, it is a bidirectional process, for anything can only be learned in terms of what we already know.

Learner autonomy comes into play as learners begin to accept responsibility for their own learning. But they can do this only within the limits imposed by what they already know and what they have already become. What is called the textbook approach to language teaching involves learning “from the outside in”; the textbook author’s meanings are first learnt and then gradually adapted to the learners’ own purposes. The autonomous approach, by contrast, insists that language is learnt partly “from the inside out”, as learners attempt to express their own meanings for their own learning purposes (Dam, 1995). In the autonomous approach, learning is anchored in the achieved identity of the individual learner and the interactive processes by which learners collaboratively construct their shared learning space.

## **Ways to Foster Learner Autonomy in English Teaching and Learning**

### ***1. Teaching Learning Strategies***

According to Oxford, learning strategies are “.... specific actions taken by the learner to make learning more easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations” (1989, p. 8). Strategies are the tools for active, self-directed involvement needed for developing L2 communicative ability (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). Research has repeatedly shown that the conscious, tailored use of such strategies is related to language achievement and proficiency. In addition, Rubin and Wenden view learning strategies as “behaviours learners engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language” (1987, p. 6). In that sense, fostering learner autonomy involves cultivation of learning strategies. In order to learn autonomously, teachers should give students adequate training to prepare them for more independent learning. For the students, strategies have to be learned. The best way to do this is with “hands-on” experience. Students need to become independent, self-regulated learners. Self-assessment contributes to learner autonomy (Freeman and Anderson, 2011). Metacognitive strategies go beyond the cognitive mechanism and give learners to coordinate their learning. This helps them to plan language learning in

an efficient way. As Oxford (1990) states that metacognition refers to learners' automatic awareness of their own knowledge and their ability to understand, control and manipulate their own cognitive processes. Meta-cognitive is a term to express executive function, strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one's production, evaluating learning process.

Social strategies are very important in learning a language because language is used in communication and communication occurs between people. Three sets of strategies are included in this group: Asking Questions, Cooperating with others, and Empathizing with others. Among the three, cooperation with others eliminates competition and in its place brings group spirit. Studies show that cooperative learning results in higher self-esteem, increased confidence, and rapid achievement. Learners do not naturally apply cooperative strategies because of strong emphasis put on competition by educational institutions.

Sometimes competition brings a strong wish to perform better than others, but it often results in anxiety and fear of failure. It is important to help learners change their attitudes from confrontation and competition to cooperation.

Language learners need training in learning strategies in order to increase their potential and contribute to their autonomy. Indeed, the teacher should be a model in the use of strategy using. Three sets of strategies are included in this group: Lowering Your Anxiety, Encouraging Yourself, and Taking Your Emotional Temperature. Good language learners control their attitudes and emotions about learning and understand that negative feelings retard learning. Teachers can help generate positive feeling in class by giving students more responsibility, increasing the amount of natural communication, and teaching affective strategies. Techniques like self-reinforcement and positive self-talk which help learners gain better control over their emotions, attitudes, and motivations related to language learning (Oxford, 1993).

## ***2. Using Cooperative Learning***

Since cooperative language learning is an approach designed to foster cooperation rather than competition, to develop critical thinking skills and to develop communicative competence through socially structured interaction activities, these can be regarded as the overall objectives of CLL. Learners are directors of their own learning. They are taught plan, monitor and evaluate their own learning which is viewed as a compilation of lifelong learning skills. Therefore, cooperative learning is a powerful approach for learner autonomy. Cooperative learning incorporates five elements: positive interdependence; face-to-face interaction, individual accountability and personal

responsibility; interpersonal and small group skills and group processing. Positive interdependence occurs when group members feel that what helps all and what hurts one member hurts all. It is created by the structure of CL tasks and by building a spirit of mutual support in the group. Students are encouraged not to think competitively and individualistically, but rather cooperatively and in terms of the group. Teachers not only teach language; they teach cooperation as well.

### ***3. Self-Reports***

According to Wenden (1998), a good way of collecting information on how students go about a learning task and helping them become aware of their own strategies is to assign a task and have them report what they are thinking while they are performing it. This self-report is called introspective, as learners are asked to introspect on their learning. In this case, "the introspective self-report is a verbalization of one's stream of consciousness" (Wenden, 1998, p. 81). Introspective reports are assumed to provide information on the strategies learners are using at the time of the report.

### ***4. Diaries and Evaluation Sheets***

Perhaps one of the principal goals of education is to alter learners' beliefs about themselves by showing them that their supposed failures or shortcomings can be ascribed to a lack of effective strategies rather than to a lack of potential. Herein lays the role of diaries and evaluation sheets, which offer students the possibility to plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning, identify any problems they run into and suggesting solutions.

### ***5. Learner Autonomy through Portfolio Creation***

Portfolio creation leads to more autonomous learning. It includes planning yourself and achieving the plan, taking responsibility for your own role, setting goals for yourself, heading toward them and doing what you have to do, and making a decision about something on your own. Learners should have opportunities to discover what a portfolio is and the purposes of portfolio creation. They can do so by examining sample portfolios and sharing each other's work in progress. Also, the portfolio leads the learner to reflective and metacognitive process which is key factors in autonomy.

Thomsen (2010) revealed that the portfolio helped learners talk about their learning experiences, and assume an active role in their learning. Portfolios are convenient tools for teachers in the process of getting to know the learners closely as individuals and as learners of English. In addition, it is useful when choosing strategies for individual learners or groups of learners. The European Language Portfolio (ELP) supports the development of learner autonomy by self-assessment and goal setting.

The learners are expected to record how they progress in the target language and any intercultural experiences they may have during the learning process (Little, 2005). ELP is a document kept by language learners, at school and outside school, to log and reflect on their learning and cultural experiences when learning a language. The ELP aims to motivate learners and help them keep a comprehensive record of their linguistic and cultural skills. It acknowledges their efforts to develop and diversify their language skills at all levels. One of its various objectives is to build up learners' motivation by improving their communicative skills in the target languages.

### **6. Teacher Roles**

For the implementation and development of learner autonomy, teachers play an important role because they are responsible for developing a learning environment conducive to promoting learner autonomy. However, it is pointed out that in order to promote learner autonomy in the teaching contexts, teachers need freedom so that they can apply their own autonomy in teaching.

Learner autonomy is based on the idea that teachers teach how to learn. Therefore, teachers, first, recondition learners while assisting them to develop a conscious awareness of their language learning strategies and their effectiveness, and their beliefs about the language learning process. Additionally, teachers train learners to gradually become more active, reflective and critical thinkers in using learning strategies for their own learning as well as encouraging them to initiate experimental practice inside and outside classroom. Moreover, teachers involve learners in the decision making process. Teachers encourage learners to set up reachable learning goals based on the feedback from evaluation and selfassessment. Learner autonomy requires teachers to act as catalysts, discussants, consultants, observers, analysts, facilitators and counsellor to stimulate the learning process in various ways (Little, 1991). Furthermore, teachers are supportive, patient, tolerant, emphatic, open and non-judgmental. To support learner autonomy, teachers consider learners as their partners in achieving common goals.

For the promotion of learner autonomy in foreign language classes, teachers help learners set objectives, plan works, select materials, evaluate themselves, and acquire the skills and knowledge needed. Teachers also change students' concepts about the traditional role of the teacher and the learner in the classroom.

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## **LECTURE 9: USING TRANSLATION IN LANGUAGE TEACHING**

### ***Lecture Outline:***

#### *Introduction*

#### *1 The origins of pedagogical translation*

#### *2 Translation in the classroom: pros and cons*

#### *Conclusion*

### **Introduction**

A discussion of translation pedagogy requires that a distinction be made between two types of translation, which are called pedagogical translation and real translation. Pedagogical and real translation differs from each other on three counts: the function, the object, and the addressee of the translation.

As regards function, pedagogical translation is an instrumental kind of translation, in which the translated text serves as a tool of improving the language learner's foreign language proficiency. It is a means of consciousness raising, practising, or testing language knowledge.

There is also a difference concerning the addressee of the two kinds of translation. In real translation it is a target language reader wanting some information about reality, while in pedagogical translation the addressee is the language teacher or the examiner, wanting information about the learner's proficiency.

### **1 The origins of pedagogical translation**

The use of translation for the purposes of language teaching is bound to be associated with the Grammar-Translation Method, which was first employed in the secondary schools of Prussia at the end of the 18th century. The method appeared as a reaction to a social need, as the teaching of modern languages to masses of learners required changes in earlier practices of language teaching. The Grammar-Translation

Method was a modified version of the ancient Scholastic Method, which was traditionally used to study the written form of the classical languages through a meticulous lexical and grammatical analysis of classic texts. This method involved, as a natural component of language learning, producing translations of parts of the original text.

The Grammar-Translation Method aimed to make the language learner's task easier by using, instead of whole texts, artificially made-up sentences illustrating particular grammatical features. Such graded example sentences were translated into or out of the target language in writing. Thus the Grammar-Translation Method, while bringing changes to the structure of the syllabus and the materials used, also preserved the focus of the Scholastic Method on grammar and on written language.

In ancient Rome, there were basically three levels of education. In the elementary classes children learned, beside other skills, to read and write. They then moved on into grammar school, where they received further linguistic instruction. After finishing the grammar school, at around the age of 13, they could enrol in a rhetorical school, providing education for would-be orators, which included studying texts by renowned authors, learning the techniques of argumentation, acquiring the skills of producing and embellishing texts for effect.

Since in the imperial age Rome became practically bilingual, in the grammatical classes Latin as well as Greek texts were used for educational purposes. This would lead to the practice of relying on translation as a tool for analysing and interpreting the contents of literary works. As in the grammatical classes the focus was on the analysis of lexical items, the interpretation of texts took the form of a kind of word-for-word translation.

As opposed to this kind of literal translation done in the grammatical schools, in rhetorical schools children were instructed in a more sophisticated, literary form of translation. According to Pliny, this practice has the following advantages: It enriches one's vocabulary, increases the number of figures of speech one can use, develops the ability of interpretation, and through the imitation of the best writers it makes us able to produce similarly good texts, because translation forces us to notice such details as would escape the attention of a simple reader.

## **2 Translation in the classroom: pros and cons**

The usefulness of translation in the practice of foreign language teaching has long been brought into question. The objections against the use of translation in

language teaching seem to be a reaction which was evoked by the obvious shortcomings of the Grammar-Translation Method, the dominant form of language teaching until the 20th century.

The first voice to cry out against the use of translation in foreign language teaching came from the Reform Movement of the late 19th century, and it was followed by a wave of renewed attacks by proponents of the Audio-Lingual, the Direct, the Natural, and the Communicative Language Teaching Methods throughout the 20th century. The Reform Movement was based on three fundamental principles: (a) the primacy of speech, (b) the importance of connected text in language learning, and (c) the priority of oral classroom methodology. On this basis the use of isolated, out-of-context sentences, especially in written translation tasks, can be considered detrimental to the process of foreign language acquisition, because it hinders the contextualised or situationalised use of language in spoken communication.

The problem with the use of translation in language teaching is that translation into the native language is bound to mislead the learner, because the semantic units of different languages do not match, and because the student, under the practised stimulus of the native form, is almost certain to forget the foreign one.

In other words, the problem is twofold. The first is that translation conceals the differences that exist between the systems of the two languages, and the second is that translation, by providing the wrong sort of stimulus, fails to reinforce correct foreign language behaviour. It is easy to notice the theoretical driving forces of the criticism here: structural linguistics and behaviourism. The behaviourist conception of language learning was introduced by the psychologist B. F. Skinner in his book *Verbal Behaviour*. In this book he describes language as a form of behaviour and argues that the first language is acquired by the infant through a stimulus – response – reinforcement cycle, and that language performance arises largely as the result of positive or negative reinforcement. This idea of language learning as habit formation, along with the view of language as a structural system, lead to the rise of the Audio-Lingual Method of second language teaching, which made use of constant structural drills in the target language followed by instant positive or negative reinforcement from the teacher. Clearly, in such a methodology, translation could not have a role to play.

Many teachers believe that English should be taught monolingually; that the ideal language teacher is a native speaker; and that if other languages are used, the standard will drop. They also think that translation should not be used to make life easier for teachers and students.

Although the only use of the target language may create stress in the classroom, but this stress remains useful and helpful.

Methodologists mention the following reasons for not using translation in language teaching:

- The use of translation in foreign language teaching causes interference.
- Translation can inhibit thinking in the foreign language and can produce compound bilingualism rather than coordinate bilingualism.
- The use of translation in foreign language teaching makes learners assume that there is one-to-one correspondence of meaning between native language and foreign language.
- This study showed that teachers are divided over the issue of using or not using translation in language learning and teaching with slight inclination towards not using translation.

Translation can be a useful activity, if used properly, in language teaching and learning. According to Duff (1994), "translation develops three qualities essential to all language learning: accuracy, clarity and flexibility. It trains the learner to search (flexibility) for the most appropriate words (accuracy) to convey what is meant (clarity)."

According to Newmark (1991), translation is a useful tool to be used in the elementary, intermediate and advanced stages of language learning. In the elementary stage, translation is useful as a brief time saver, and translation from L1 to L2 may be useful as a form of control and consolidation of basic grammar and vocabulary.

In the primary level, using translation can make learning meaningful because the learner is an active participant in the process. For beginners, of course, it is useful because it expounds grammar and teaches vocabularies. In the intermediate level, "translation from L2 to L1 of words and clauses may be useful in dealing with errors and it is "useful for the expansion of vocabulary. In the advanced level, "translation from L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 is recognized as the fifth skill and the most important social skill since it promotes communication and understanding between strangers. Also, translation assists advanced learners' reading comprehension and vocabulary building.

Teachers may use L1 in classroom management or to teach grammar. When using translation, grammar becomes less frightening and more accessible if students are allowed to use their mother tongue and thus notice the similarities and differences between their mother tongue and the target language.

Also, translation can be used to give the meanings of new words. There are numerous ways of conveying the meaning of an unknown word. These include a

definition in L2, a demonstration, a picture or a diagram, a real object, L2 context clues, or an L1 translation. In terms of the accuracy of conveying the meaning, none of these ways is intrinsically better than any of the others. (Nation, 2001).

Furthermore, giving the meaning of words in L1 enhances comprehension. Research shows that L1 glosses provided by teachers or looked up in a good bilingual dictionary are beneficial for text comprehension and word learning.

In addition, translation can be used as a postreading procedure to evaluate students' comprehension of a text.

According to researches students most frequently use translation to learn English vocabulary words, idioms, phrases, grammar, to read, write, speak English, to check their reading and listening comprehension.

The mother tongue may be useful in the procedural stages of a class, for example: setting up pair and group work, sorting out an activity which is clearly not working, checking comprehension and using L1 for translation as a teaching technique.

The following are the cases where teachers may use L1, when:

1) Starting beginner classes to make students feel more comfortable when facing the enormous task of learning a foreign language.

2) L1 is used for the purpose of contrastive analysis, i.e. to introduce the major grammatical differences between L1 and L2.

3) The teacher's knowledge of students' L1 can also help him understand the learner's mistakes caused by interference.

4) L1 is used to explain complex instructions to basic levels.

5) L1 is used to get feedback from the students about the course, the teacher's approach, evaluation of teaching styles, etc.

Other methodologists suggest the following uses of L1: classroom management, language analysis, presenting grammar rules, discussing cross-cultural issues, giving instructions, explaining errors and checking for comprehension. According to Cook, mother tongue can be used positively by the teacher in the L2 classroom in many ways: to convey the meaning, to organize the class, and students can use L1 to explain tasks to one another (Cook, 2001).

Schweers (1999) mentioned the following suggested uses for L1 in the EFL classroom:

1) Eliciting Language. "How do you say 'X' in English?"

2) Checking comprehension. "How do you say I've been waiting for ten minutes in Spanish?" (Also used for comprehension of a reading or listening text.)

- 3) Giving complex instructions to basic levels
- 4) Co-operating in groups. Learners compare and correct answers to exercises or tasks in the L1. Students at times can explain new points better than the teacher.
- 5) Explaining classroom methodology at basic levels
- 6) Using translation to highlight a recently taught language item
- 7) Checking for sense. If students write or say something in the L2 that does not make sense, have them try to translate it into the L1 to realize their error.
- 8) Translation items can be useful in testing mastery of forms and meanings.

### **Conclusion**

So should translation have a role to play in foreign language teaching? It seems from the above discussion that there are some good reasons in favour of the inclusion of translation exercises in the foreign language syllabus or, at least, that there are no fundamental reasons for its exclusion. The objections to the use of translation in foreign language teaching are all based on a limited view of translation. But translation is not only structure manipulation; it is primarily a form of communication. And as such, it necessarily involves interaction and cooperation between people, which makes it a potentially very useful device in foreign language teaching. Obviously, this answer leads to a number of other questions, concerning the level of language proficiency at which translation may be most useful, the kinds of translation exercises that may be useful, or the purposes which translation may usefully serve in language teaching.

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## **LECTURE 10: COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING (CLT)**

### **Lecture outline:**

1. *What is CLT?*
2. *CLT origins and reasons for its popularity*
3. *The Features of CLT*
4. *Common Misconceptions Regarding CLT*
5. *Barriers to CLT*
6. *Principles of CLT*

### **1. What is CLT?**

CLT is a language teaching approach based on the linguistic theory of communicative competence. Developing communicative competence in learners is the goal of CLT. CLT emphasizes "humanism," which focuses on students' needs and individual affective factors; advocates several language-learning principles, as opposed to an articulated learning theory; and draws from several language teaching methods. Therefore, CLT is an approach rather than a method of English language teaching (ELT).

### **2. CLT origins and reasons for its popularity**

CLT was developed in the UK in the 1960s and 1970s and popularized by the British Council and the Council of Europe. CLT was a reaction to language teaching methods that seemed ineffective (e.g., grammar/translation [GT], audiolingual method [ALM]) in developing learners “who can communicate both orally and in writing with native speakers in a way appropriate to their mutual needs” (Ellis, p. 214). English has become the international language of commerce, science, and technology. As a result, many people around the world are now experiencing “English fever,” which is a great desire to learn English, especially how to engage in conversation in English.

### 3. The Features of CLT

- Focus on negotiation of meaning and meaningful communication (rather than linguistic structures)
- Focus on active learning and active learners (collaboration among learners and purposeful interactions)
- Focus on the affective domain of the classroom and creating a language-learning environment that supports risk-taking by the learners, i.e., a community of learners
- Focus on “whole learner,” i.e., learner with his/her own learning style + person with emotions and individual needs
- Focus on teachers as facilitators
- Use of “authentic” materials, i.e., materials aimed at native English speakers rather than ESL learners, and realia, i.e., real objects from a native-English speaking culture, such as an advertisement
- Use of a variety of strategies, which address different learning styles and language skills
- Tolerance for errors
- Teaching of target language culture(s) to accompany language teaching

### 4. Common Misconceptions Regarding CLT

#### **CLT does not teach grammar**

It was Stephen Krashen, not CLT advocates, who spoke against explicit grammar teaching. Dr. Krashen’s second language acquisition (SLA) theory, the Monitor Model, inspired the development of the Natural Approach and Focal Skills in ELT. CLT advocates urge that grammar be taught inductively (guiding students to discover the rules themselves, as in linguistics data problems) rather than deductively (the teaching

of rules). However, because adult learners possess analytical skills, they sometimes demand and often benefit from explicit grammar teaching. Grammatical analysis and drills do not dominate CLT classrooms because CLT teachers realize that learners learn more by using the language than by learning about the language.

**CLT teaches only speaking.**

CLT is based on the linguistic theory of communicative competence, which includes more than just negotiating meaning through oral interaction alone. Communicative competence includes the following components:

grammatical competence;

psychomotor (pronunciation) competence;

lexical (vocabulary) competence;

discourse (overall organization of an oral or written utterance, coherence or unity of topic, and cohesion or sentence-to-sentence fluency) competence;

strategic (overall fluency and linguistic spontaneity) competence;

sociolinguistic (cross-cultural awareness) competence;

pragmatic (culturally appropriate rhetoric and paralinguistic behaviors) competence.

**CLT uses only pair work and/or group work in the classroom.**

CLT teachers tend to use a lot of pair work and group work in the classroom in order to highlight the interactional nature of real language. However, individual work is also a part of a CLT classroom.

**CLT uses only English in the classroom.**

The CLT teacher does not hesitate to use the learners' native language to expedite learning. Usually such native language use is limited to clarifying a vocabulary item or a complex grammatical structure.

**CLT encourages fossilization in learners.**

CLT teachers tolerate errors, but they are aware that developing communicative competence includes learners' developing interlanguages, or learners' own understanding of how the language works, which is often flawed until learners develop a higher proficiency level of their interlanguages. CLT teachers look for patterns of errors in a learner, rather than all the mistakes, and the CLT teachers correct the patterns. CLT teachers do not focus on accuracy at the expense of fluency or communicativeness. CLT teachers aim first for fluency, then for accuracy.

## **5. Barriers to CLT**

- High English language proficiency required of teachers

- Test preparation required of teachers/ use of national, regional, and/or local non-communicative tests

- Large class sizes (e.g., 50-60 students in a single class) for one teacher to handle

- Fixed furniture, physically small classroom

- Lack of teacher training in effective CLT strategies

- Lack of practice among teachers in using effective CLT strategies

- Expected classroom behavior among teachers and students in certain cultures

- Much time on the part of the teacher needed for preparing effective CLT activities

- Much time required in the classroom for implementing effective CLT activities

### **6. How can teachers overcome these barriers?**

If necessary, improve oral/aural proficiency.

Try to develop an “eclectic” English teaching approach, which incorporates some traditional English teaching strategies along with CLT strategies.

The following guidelines have been developed in China to support teachers developing a CLT approach:

- \*Teaching should start with listening and speaking.

- \*Drills on language form should not be excessive.

- \*English should be used in class.

- \*Use of translation should be limited.

- \*Audio-visual aids like realia, pictures, over-head transparencies, audio-tapes, videos, computers should be fully utilized.

- \*The teacher's role should be a facilitator and helper to guide students to develop effective learning habits.

- \*Teachers should be aware of the individual differences among students in the learning process.

- \*Appropriate encouragement should be given to students to reinforce their initiatives.

## **7. Principles of CLT**

### **Principle 1: Use Tasks as an Organizational Principle**

For decades traditional methods of language teaching have used grammar topics or texts (e.g., dialogues, short stories) as a basis for organizing a syllabus. With CLT methodologies this approach has changed; the development of communicative skills is

placed at the forefront, while grammar is now introduced only as much as needed to support the development of these skills.

Such an approach to syllabus design has become known as task-based instruction (TBI). The rationale for the employment of communicative tasks is based on contemporary theories of language learning and acquisition, which claim that language use is the driving force for language development.

### **ILLUSTRATION 1**

Organizing a welcome dinner (see Appendix 3 for the entire lesson)

Step 1. Students organize the group of international students around three dinner tables. For example, a student might say: "On table 1, Andrew Smith and Sandra Mogambe sit next to each other, because they both speak Spanish and collect butterflies."

Step 2. Students listen to new information about the students given to them by their Spanish teachers and if necessary rearrange students at the tables.

Step 3. Students provide some personal information about themselves. Then they choose a student from their own group, who also wants to attend the welcome dinner, and select a table for this student.

Step 4. Now you are going to revise your distribution and write a brief report.

Step 5. A representative from each group presents their report and justifies the group decision.

Step 6. The groups and the teacher compare the results.

### **Principle 2: Promote Learning by Doing**

A task-based approach to learning implies the notion of learning by doing. This concept is not new to communicative language teaching methodologies, but it has been recognized and promoted as a fundamental principle underlying learning throughout history by many educators. It is based on the theory that a hands-on approach positively enhances a learner's cognitive engagement. In addition, as Doughty and Long (2003) remind us, "new knowledge is better integrated into long-term memory, and easier retrieved, if tied to real-world events and activities" (p. 58).

In research on SLA, the "learning by doing" principle is strongly supported by an active approach to using language early on. For example, Swain suggests that learners need to actively produce language. Only in this way can they try out new rules and modify them accordingly. According to Omaggio-Hadley (2001), learners should be encouraged to express their own meaning as early as possible after productive skills

have been introduced. Such opportunities should also entail a wide range of contexts in which they can carry out numerous different speech acts. This, furthermore, needs to happen under real conditions of communication so the learner's linguistic knowledge becomes automatic (Ellis 1997).

### **Principle 3: Input Needs to Be Rich**

Considering the rich input we each experience and are exposed to while developing our native tongue, growing up speaking in our native languages means that we are exposed to a plethora of language patterns, chunks, and phrases in numerous contexts and situations over many years. Such a rich exposure to language ultimately allows us to store language in our brains that we can retrieve and access as whole chunks.

### **Principle 4: Input Needs to Be Meaningful, Comprehensible, and Elaborated**

A fundamental prerequisite for learning to occur is that the information we process must be meaningful. This means the information being presented must be clearly relatable to existing knowledge that the learner already possesses. This existing knowledge must be organized in such a way that the new information is easily assimilated, or "attached," to the learner's cognitive structure. The necessity of meaningfulness is not in particular new to CLT. Throughout the history of language teaching, there have always been advocates of a focus on meaning as opposed to form alone, and of developing learner ability to actually use language for communication. Meaningfulness, however, has emerged as a primary principle of CLT—and as a counter-reaction to audiolingual teaching, which was criticized for repetitive drills that did not require the processing of language so the content made sense or was meaningful to learner.

### **Principle 5: Promote Cooperative and Collaborative Learning**

In general education, cooperative or collaborative learning has long been recognized as a strong facilitator of learning. In such an approach, classrooms are organized so that students work together in small cooperative teams, such as groups or pairs, to complete activities. In second language learning environments, students work cooperatively on a language-learning task or collaboratively by achieving the goal through communicative use of the target language. Particularly in the latter case, if the learning tasks are designed to require active and true communicative interaction among students in the target language, they have numerous benefits on attainment.

### **Principle 6: Focus on Form**

One of the debates about grammar teaching centered on the issue of whether to make grammar explicit or whether to have the learners figure out the rules themselves. In this context, explicit means that the rules become salient or are laid out to the learner at one point during the course of instruction. Although not everybody agrees, research provides ample evidence for the benefits of making grammar rules explicit to adult language learners. Within explicit ways of teaching grammar, Long (1991) conceived a further distinction between what he calls “**focus on form**” and “**focus on formS**.” A focus on **formS** approach represents a fairly traditional approach to teaching grammar where “students spend much of their time in isolated linguistic structures in a sequence predetermined externally and imposed on them by a syllabus designer or textbook writer . . .,” while meaning is often ignored. In contrast, a focus on form approach to explicit grammar teaching emphasizes a form-meaning connection and teaches grammar within contexts and through communicative tasks. Doughty and Long (2003) point out that overwhelming empirical evidence exists in favor of a focus-on-form approach, hence they proclaim it a fundamental methodological principle in support of CLT and task-based language instruction.

#### **Principle 7: Provide Error Corrective Feedback**

In a general sense, feedback can be categorized in two different ways: positive feedback that confirms the correctness of a student’s response. Teachers demonstrate this behavior by agreeing, praising, or showing understanding. Or, negative feedback, generally known as error correction, which has a corrective function on a student’s faulty language behavior. As learners produce language, such evaluative feedback can be useful in facilitating the progression of their skills toward more precise and coherent language use. Both types are vital during a learner’s interlanguage development since they allow the learner to either accept, reject, or modify a hypothesis about correct language use. The study of feedback in learning situations has a long history. In language learning, many research studies have documented that teachers believe in the effectiveness of feedback and that students ask for it, believe in the benefits of receiving it, and learn from it. Yet the degree to which information provided through feedback aids a learner’s progress is not always clear. Such a claim can be illustrated by what teachers frequently experience; namely, that their students, after receiving feedback, often keep making the same mistakes—or even when they get it right initially, many still fall back into their previous and faulty language behavior. Achieving positive effects with error corrective feedback involves a long-term process that depends on corrective strategies and most of all on individual learner factors.

For example, in a classroom study of the effectiveness of various feedback techniques, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that recasts—that is, when a teacher repeats a student's faulty language production, but in a correct way—were the most widespread response to learner error. Yet recasts were in fact the least effective in eliciting learners to immediately revise their output. Instead, direct error corrective strategies that involved the teacher's help—such as providing metalinguistic clues or clarification requests—were the most effective in stimulating learner generated repairs.

### **Principle 8: Recognize and Respect Affective Factors of Learning**

Over the years, consistent relationships have been demonstrated between language attitudes, motivation, performance anxiety, and achievement in second language learning. Needless to say, all teachers eventually experience how learners feel about the target language or how their attitudes toward it impact their motivation and subsequently their success. A learner who is motivated wants to achieve a particular goal, devotes considerable effort to achieve this goal, and experiences in the activities associated with achieving this goal.

One characteristic of language learning that has received a great deal of attention over the past years is the role of anxiety during the learning process. In particular, with active language performance as a major goal of CLT, anxiety has been noticed as a trait with many individual learners. Anxiety manifests itself in many ways such as self-belittling, feelings of apprehension, stress, nervousness, and even bodily responses such as faster heartbeat. Numerous studies have corroborated what Krashen contended in his Affective Filter hypothesis, which states that language learning must take place in an environment where learners are 'off the defensive' and the affective filter (anxiety) is low in order for the input to be noticed and gain access to the learners' thinking.

There is a clear negative relationship between anxiety and learning success. Anxiety as a personal trait must be recognized and kept at a minimal level for learning to be maximized.

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## Lecture 11: Second Language Acquisition Theories

### Introduction

Interest in second language learning and use dates back many centuries, but it is only since the 1960s that scholars have formulated systematic theories and models to address the basic questions in the field of SLA: (1) What exactly does the L2 learner know? (2) How does the learner acquire this knowledge? (3) Why are some learners more successful than others? As I noted earlier, different approaches to the study of SLA can be categorized as primarily based on linguistic, psychological, and social frameworks. Each of these perspectives will be the subject of a separate chapter, although we should keep in mind that there are extensive interrelationships among them.

Important theoretical frameworks that have influenced the SLA approaches which we will consider are listed in table 2.3, arranged by the discipline with which they are primarily associated, and sequenced according to the decade(s) in which they achieved relevant academic prominence: Prior to the 1960s, interest in L2 learning was tied almost exclusively to foreign language teaching concerns. The dominant linguistic model through the 1950s was Structuralism, which emphasized the description of different levels of production in speech: phonology (sound systems), morphology (composition of words), syntax (grammatical relationships of words within sentences, such as ordering and agreement), semantics (meaning), and lexicon (vocabulary). The most influential cognitive model of learning that was applied to language acquisition at that time was Behaviorism, which stressed the notion of habit formation resulting from S-R-R: stimuli from the environment (such as linguistic input), responses to those stimuli, and reinforcement if the responses resulted in some desired outcome. Repeated S-R-R sequences are “learned” (i.e. strong stimulus-response pairings become “habits”). The intersection of these two models formed the disciplinary framework for the Audiolingual Method, an approach to language teaching which emphasized repetition and habit formation that was widely practiced in much of the world at least until the 1980s. Although it had not yet been applied to second language concerns, Vygotsky’s Sociocultural Theory (1962 in English translation) was also widely accepted as a learning theory by mid-century, emphasizing interaction with other people as critical to the learning process. This view is still influential in SLA approaches which are concerned with the role of input and interaction.

Timeline	Linguistic (Chapter 3)	Psychological (Chapter 4)	Social (Chapter 5)
1950s and before	Structuralism	Behaviorism	Sociocultural Theory
1960s	Transformational-Generative Grammar	Neurolinguistics Information Processing	Ethnography of Communication Variation Theory
1970s	Functionalism	Humanistic models	Acculturation Theory Accommodation Theory
1980s	Principles and Parameters Model	Connectionism	Social Psychology
1990s	Minimalist Program	Processability	

### **Linguistic**

There have been two foci for the study of SLA from a linguistic perspective since 1960: internal and external. The internal focus has been based primarily on the work of Noam Chomsky and his followers. It sets the goal of study as accounting for speakers' internalized, underlying knowledge of language (linguistic competence), rather than the description of surface forms as in earlier Structuralism. The external focus for the study of SLA has emphasized language use, including the functions of language which are realized in learners' production at different stages of development.

### **Psychological**

There have been three foci in the study of SLA from a psychological perspective: languages and the brain, learning processes, and learner differences.

**Languages and the brain** The location and representation of language in the brain has been of interest to biologists and psychologists since the nineteenth century, and the expanding field of Neurolinguistics was one of the first to influence cognitive perspectives on SLA when systematic study began in the 1960s. Lenneberg (1967) generated great interest when he argued that there is a critical period for language acquisition which has a neurological basis, and much age-related research on SLA is essentially grounded in this framework. Exploratory procedures associated with brain surgery on multilingual patients, as well as the development of modern noninvasive imaging techniques, are dramatically increasing knowledge in this area.

### **Learning processes**

The focus on learning processes has been heavily influenced by computer based Information Processing (IP) models of learning, which were established in cognitive

psychology by the 1960s. Explanations of SLA phenomena based on this framework involve assumptions that L2 is a highly complex skill, and that learning L2 is not essentially unlike learning other highly complex skills. Processing itself (of language or any other domain) is believed to cause learning. They have been especially productive in addressing the question of how learners acquire knowledge of L2, and in providing explanations for sequencing in language development. Processability is a more recently developed framework which extends IP concepts of learning and applies them to teaching second languages.

Connectionism is another cognitive framework for the focus on learning processes, beginning in the 1980s and becoming increasingly influential. It differs from most other current frameworks for the study of SLA in not considering language learning to involve either innate knowledge or abstraction of rules and principles, but rather to result from increasing strength of associations (connections) between stimuli and responses. Because this framework considers frequency of input an important causative factor in learning, it is also providing a theoretical base for research on language teaching.

### **Learner differences**

The focus on learner differences in SLA has been most concerned with the question of why some learners are more successful than others. It arises in part from the humanistic framework within psychology, which has a long history in that discipline, but has significantly influenced second language teaching and SLA research only since the 1970s (see Williams and Burden 1997). This framework calls for consideration of emotional involvement in learning, such as affective factors of attitude, motivation, and anxiety level. This focus also considers biological differences associated with age and sex, as well as some differences associated with aspects of processing.

### **Social**

Some of the frameworks that I categorize within a social perspective can also be considered linguistic, since they relate to language form and function; some can also be considered cognitive, since they explore learning processes or attitude and motivation. We will review them in this section because (in addition to linguistic and cognitive factors) they all emphasize the importance of social context for language acquisition and use. There are two foci for the study of SLA from this perspective: microsocial and macrosocial.

### **Conclusion**

For a variety of reasons, the majority of people in the world know more than one language. The first language is almost always learned effortlessly, and with nearly invariant success; second language learning involves many different conditions and processes, and success is far from certain. This may be at least partly because older learners no longer have the same natural ability to acquire languages as do young children, and because second language learning is influenced by prior knowledge of the first and by many individual and contextual factors. This lecture has identified a number of theoretical frameworks which provide the bases for different approaches to the study of SLA that we will consider. All of these approaches address the basic what, how, and why questions that we posed, but they have different foci of interest and attention. Linguistic frameworks differ in taking an internal or external focus on language; psychological frameworks differ in whether they focus on languages and the brain, on learning processes, or on individual differences; and social frameworks differ in placing their emphasis on micro or macro factors in learning. Like the lenses with different color filters used in photographing Mars, these complement one another and all are needed to gain a full spectrum picture of the multidimensional processes involved in SLA. Even so, much remains a mystery, stimulating continued research.

# Lecture 12: Research Methods in Language Teaching and Learning

## **Lecture Outline:**

### *Introduction*

1. *Types of Research*
2. *Classroom Research Forms*
3. *Observation*
4. *Ethnography*
5. *Case Studies*

### *References and Further Reading*

## **Introduction**

Any teacher sooner or later starts to summarise the gained experience trying to explain the failures and reasons the success. So called “practitioner research” can be of great importance for other teachers, language learners and formal researchers as are based on data which can be gained inside actual classrooms and can serve as a source of theoretical and empirical knowledge about second language acquisition (SLA). Moreover, for language teachers in the system of higher education research is a part of their job. However, having set even a narrow research goal, practitioners often face the problem of a relevant research method.

### **1. Types of Research**

The type of the research to great extend is defined by the data to be collected and analysed. According to Ellis and Barkhuizen [Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005] three types of data are commonly used in SLA research:

- performance data that do not involve production (measures of reaction times, non-verbal measures of comprehension, grammaticality judgement tests);
- samples of learner production (naturally occurring samples, clinically elicited data, experimentally elicited data);
- verbal reports from learners about their own learning (self-report, selfobservation, self-revelation, self-assessment).

### **2. Classroom Research Forms**

Various branches of SLA research tend to favour different kinds of data. The descriptive works on language-use data gave grounds for claims about “order” and “sequence” of acquisition. Studies of individual learner differences mainly make use of different types of verbal reports. Classroom interaction is studied by the group of research methods which allows investigators to observe and describe the interactional events taking place in a classroom. These data contribute to understanding how learning opportunities are created and how different kinds of classroom interaction lead to learning. Nunan makes a distinction between “**classroom research**” and “**classroom-oriented research**” [Nunan 1991]. **Classroom research** means investigating learners inside real classroom environment, while **classroom-oriented research** consists of studies carried out outside the classroom in a “laboratory” setting. According to Ellis [Ellis 2008: 777] SLA classroom research follows two general approaches: **descriptive** and **confirmatory**. In its turn, descriptive studies can be **qualitative** or **quantitative**.

Zuengler and Mori describe descriptive research as ones focusing on “the form and functions of classroom interaction, how these interactions are shaped and become meaningful, and what the implications may be for students’ learning” [Zuengler and Mori 2002: 283]. Within **descriptive research** the following tools are used:

- interaction analysis;
- discourse analysis;
- conversational analysis;
- ethnography of communication.

### **3. Observation**

A number of ways to study classroom learning and teaching have been developed by researchers. **Observation schemes** in researchers anticipate the occurrence of particular events and behaviours and make note of them within preplanned frameworks or checklists. One example of such schemes is Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Observations schemes described by Spada and Fröhlich. COLT is divided into two parts. Part A describes teaching practices in terms of content, focus, and organization of activity types. Using it the observer can record, for example, whether the pedagogical activities are teacher- or learner-centred, whether the focus is on the language form or meaning, and whether the students can choose the topics for discussion. Part B describes specific aspects of the language produced by teachers and students, for example, how much (how little) language

students produce, whether their language production is restricted in any way, the kinds of questions teachers ask, and whether and how teachers respond to learners' errors.

#### 4. Ethnography

Another type of descriptive research is **ethnography**. In SLA research ethnographies do not focus only on learning or teaching but also on social, cultural, and political realities and their impact on learner' cognitive, linguistic, and social development. The observer tries to understand a group of community from within its own perspective. This type of research needs extensive periods of observation as well as consultations with group member to validate the observer's descriptions [Lightbrown and Spada 2011].

**Confirmatory** research differs from the descriptive research in that it is typically theory-driven, aiming to compare different instructional approaches, to test specific hypotheses, or to identify relationships between pre-determined variables. Ellis notes that "well-designed experimental studies have the following features: participants randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups, a pre-test, both an immediate and a delayed post-test to establish if any learning has taken place and is durable" [Ellis 2008: 781] **Think-aloud protocols** (TAP) is a data-gathering method which is used in different research areas. In this method a person or a group of people are asked to verbalise their thought processes as they do a specific task which are then recorded on paper, audio or video for further analysis. Think-aloud protocols involve the verbalization of thinking during reading, problem solving, or other cognitive tasks (Oster, 2001; Schunk, 2004) Participants might verbalize commentary, questions, generate hypotheses, or draw conclusions while solving some tasks. Thus, think-aloud protocols may serve as a research tool, a means of instruction as well as a method of assessment [Sahebkhair 2014].

#### 5. Case Studies

One of the approaches to investigate SLA has involved the detailed study of individual second language learner. These are **case studies** that cover an extended period of time and involve both naturalistic and instructed language learners. Case studies provide data about the general course of SLA as well as individual differences among learners [Koutsompou 2014]. It should be mentioned that a distinction is usually drawn between "**formal research**" and "**practitioner research**". Formal research is conducted by an external researcher drawing on the established research traditions and is designed to contribute to theoretical understanding and developing SLA issues. Practitioner research is carried out by teachers in their own classrooms and aims to

solve practical problem. Practitioners and researchers are encouraged to replicate the conducted studies to prove or argue against the findings gained by others [Ellis 2008:948]. A **replication study** is a good way to start researching. This is a study to see whether the findings of the original study might be applied to other situation with other participants and if the original study possesses reliability and validity. But nevertheless in any situation a research must be well designed to be able to achieve its goal.

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## Themes for Practical Sessions:

### Theme 1: Foundations of Second Language Acquisition: The World of Second Languages

Most of us, especially in countries where English is the majority language, are not aware of the prevalence of multilingualism in the world today, nor the pervasiveness of second language learning. We begin this chapter with an overview of these points, then go on to explore the nature of language learning, some basic similarities and differences between L1 and L2 learning, and “the logical problem of language acquisition.” An understanding of these issues is a necessary foundation for our discussion of linguistic, psychological, and social perspectives on SLA in the next chapters. We follow this with a survey of the theoretical frameworks and foci of interest which have been most important for the study of SLA within each of the three perspectives.

#### The World of Second Languages

**Multilingualism** refers to the ability to use two or more languages. (Some linguists and psychologists use **bilingualism** for the ability to use two languages and multilingualism for more than two, but we will not make that distinction here.) **Monolingualism** refers to the ability to use only one. No one can say for sure how many people are multilingual, but a reasonable estimate is that at least half of the world’s population is in this category. **Multilingualism** is thus by no means a rare phenomenon, but a normal and common occurrence in most parts of the world. According to François Grosjean, this has been the case as far back as we have any record of language use:

**[B]ilingualism** is present in practically every country of the world, in all classes of society, and in all age groups. In fact it is difficult to find a society that is genuinely monolingual. Not only is bilingualism worldwide, it is a phenomenon that has existed since the beginning of language in human history. It is probably true that no language group has ever existed in isolation from other language groups, and the history of languages is replete with examples of language contact leading to some form of bilingualism. Reporting on the current situation, G. Richard Tucker concludes that there are many more **bilingual** or **multilingual** individuals in the world than there are monolingual. In addition, there are many more children throughout the world who have been and continue to be educated through a second or a later-acquired language, at

least for some portion of their formal education, than there are children educated exclusively via the first language.

Given the size and widespread distribution of **multilingual** populations, it is somewhat surprising that an overwhelming proportion of the scientific attention which has been paid to language acquisition relates only to monolingual conditions and to first language acquisition. While there are interesting similarities between L1 and L2 acquisition, the processes cannot be equated, nor can **multilingualism** be assumed to involve simply the same knowledge and skills as **monolingualism** except in more than one language. This point is made most cogently by Vivian Cook, who introduced the concept of multilingual competence (his term is “**multicompetence**”) to refer to “the compound state of a mind with two [or more] grammars” (1991:112). This is distinguished from monolingual competence (or “**monocompetence**” in Cook’s terminology), which refers to knowledge of only one language.

L2 users differ from monolinguals in L1 knowledge; advanced L2 users differ from monolinguals in L2 knowledge; L2 users have a different **metalinguistic** awareness from monolinguals; L2 users have different cognitive processes. These subtle differences consistently suggest that people with **multicompetence** are not simply equivalent to two monolinguals but are a unique combination.

One message from world demographics is that SLA phenomena are immensely important for social and practical reasons, as well as for academic ones. Approximately 6,000 languages are spoken in the world, with widely varying distribution, and almost all of them have been learned as second languages by some portion of their speakers. The four most commonly used languages are Chinese, English, Spanish, and Hindi, which are acquired by over 2 billion as L1s and almost 1.7 billion as L2s, as shown in table 2.1 (based on Zhu 2001 and Crystal 1997b):

Table 2.1

Estimated L1/L2 distribution of numerically dominant languages

	L1 speakers (in millions)	L2 speakers (in millions)
Chinese	1,200	15
English	427	950
Spanish	266	350
Hindi	182	350

Those who grow up in a multilingual environment acquire multilingual competence in the natural course of using two or more languages from childhood with the people

around them, and tend to regard it as perfectly normal to do so. Adding second languages at an older age often takes considerable effort, however, and thus requires motivation. This motivation may arise from a variety of conditions, including the following:

- Invasion or conquest of one's country by speakers of another language;
- A need or desire to contact speakers of other languages in economic or other specific domains;
- Immigration to a country where use of a language other than one's L1 is required;
- Adoption of religious beliefs and practices which involve use of another language;
- A need or desire to pursue educational experiences where access requires proficiency in another language;
- A desire for occupational or social advancement which is furthered by knowledge of another language;
- An interest in knowing more about peoples of other cultures and having access to their technologies or literatures.

## **Theme 2: Linguistics of SLA**

In this chapter we survey several approaches to the study of SLA that have been heavily influenced by the field of linguistics since the middle of the twentieth century. We begin with a characterization of the nature of language, and with a consideration of the knowledge and skills which people must have in order to use any language fluently. We follow this with a survey of early linguistic approaches to SLA, beginning with Contrastive Analysis and then several which take an internal focus on learners' creative construction of language: **Error Analysis, Interlanguage, Morpheme Order Studies, and the Monitor Model**. We bring the internal focus up to date with discussion of **Universal Grammar (UG)**, and what constitutes the language faculty of the mind. Finally, to complete the chapter, we switch to approaches which involve an external focus on the functions of language that emerge in the course of second language acquisition: **Systemic Linguistics, Functional Typology, Function-to-Form Mapping, and Information Organization**.

### **The Nature of Language Learning**

What is it that we learn when we learn a language? If we look up a definition of "language" in a dictionary, we will probably see reference to its verbal features (oral and written), to its function in communication, and to its uniquely human character. Most

linguists would agree that all naturally occurring languages also share the following characteristics:

- **Languages are systematic.** They consist of recurrent elements which occur in regular patterns of relationships. All languages have an infinite number of possible sentences, and the vast majority of all sentences which are used have not been memorized. They are created according to rules or principles which speakers are usually unconscious of using – or even of knowing – if they acquired the language(s) as a young child. Although we use the same stock of words over and over, it is safe to assume that, for instance, most of the particular combinations of words making up the sentences in a daily newspaper have never been used before. How, then, do we understand them? We can do so because we understand the principles by which the words are combined to express meaning. Even the sounds we produce in speaking, and the orders in which they occur, are systematically organized in ways that we are totally unaware of.

- **Languages are symbolic.** Sequences of sounds or letters do not inherently possess meaning. The meanings of symbols in a language come through the tacit agreement of a group of speakers. For example, there is no resemblance between the four-legged animal that eats hay and the spoken symbol [hors] or the written symbol horse which we use to represent it in English. English speakers agree that the hay-eating animal will be called a horse, Spanish speakers caballo, German Pferd, Chinese ma, and Turkish at.

- **Languages are social.** Each language reflects the social requirements of the society that uses it, and there is no standard for judging whether one language is more effective for communication than another, other than to estimate the success its users may have in achieving the social tasks that are demanded of them. Although the capacity for first language acquisition is inherent in the neurological makeup of every individual, no one can develop that potential without interaction with others in the society he or she grows up in.

We use language to communicate, to categorize and catalogue the objects, events, and processes of human experience. We might well define language at least in part as “the expressive dimension of culture.” It follows that people who function in more than one cultural context will communicate more effectively if they know more than one language.

Linguists traditionally divide a language into different levels for description and analysis, even though in actual use all levels must interact and function simultaneously.

The human accomplishment of learning language(s) seems all the more remarkable when we consider even a simplified list of the areas of knowledge which every L1 or L2 learner must acquire at these different levels:

- **lexicon (vocabulary)**

- word meaning
- pronunciation (and spelling for written languages)
- grammatical category (part of speech)
- possible occurrence in combination with other words and in idioms

- **phonology (sound system)**

- speech sounds that make a difference in meaning (phonemes)
- possible sequences of consonants and vowels (syllable structure)
- intonation patterns (stress, pitch, and duration), and perhaps tone in words
- rhythmic patterns (pauses and stops)

- **morphology (word structure)**

- parts of words that have meaning (morphemes)
- inflections that carry grammatical information (like number or tense)
- prefixes and suffixes that may be added to change the meaning of words or

their grammatical category

- **syntax (grammar)**

- word order
- agreement between sentence elements (as number agreement between subject and verb)
- ways to form questions, to negate assertions, and to focus or structure

information within sentences

- **discourse**

- ways to connect sentences, and to organize information across sentence boundaries
- structures for telling stories, engaging in conversations, etc.
- scripts for interacting and for events

All of this knowledge about language is automatically available to children for their L1 and is somehow usually acquired with no conscious effort. Completely comparable knowledge of L2 is seldom achieved, even though much time and effort may be expended on learning. Still, the widespread occurrence in the world of high levels of multilingual competence attests to the potential power and effectiveness of

mechanisms for SLA. Explaining what these mechanisms are has been a major objective in the study of SLA from a variety of linguistic perspectives.

### Theme 3: Psychology of SLA

In this lecture we survey several approaches to SLA that have been heavily influenced by the field of psychology. They are ordered according to their primary focus of attention: first those that focus on languages and the brain, then those that focus on the learning processes that are involved in SLA, and finally those that focus on differences among learners.

Study of languages and the brain is based largely on the framework provided by **neurolinguistics**, which seeks to answer questions about how the location and organization of language might differ in the heads of monolingual versus multilingual speakers, and of **multilinguals** who acquire second languages at different ages or under differing circumstances. It primarily addresses what is being acquired in a physical sense: what is added or changed in the neurological “wiring” of people’s brains when they add another language? The study of learning processes draws especially on the frameworks of **Information Processing (IP)** and **Connectionism**, and includes questions about stages and sequences of acquisition. This focus primarily addresses how acquisition takes place. Is there a specialized **language faculty** in the brain, or does all learning involve the same mechanisms?

Approaches to the study of learner differences derive largely from **humanistic** traditions that take affective factors into account, but some consider factors associated with age and sex, and some consider possible individual differences in aptitude for language learning. This third focus primarily addresses the question of why some second language learners are more successful than others. Does it make a difference if learners are ten or twenty years old when they begin a new language, or whether they are male or female, or whether they are gregarious or introverted?

Finally, we will explore how being multilingual might affect the ways people think, and how multilinguals perform on tests of intelligence.

#### Languages and the brain

Notions that particular locations in the brain may be specialized for language functions date back at least into the nineteenth century. Paul Pierre Broca (1861, 1865) observed that an area in the left frontal lobe (Broca’s area) appeared to be responsible for the ability to speak and noted that an injury to the left side of the brain was much

more likely to result in language loss than was an injury to the right side. Wernicke (1874) further identified a nearby area which is adjacent to the part of the cortex that processes audio input (Wernicke's area) as also being central to language processing. Some exceptions have been found, but for the vast majority of individuals, language is represented primarily in the left half (or hemisphere) of the brain within an area (including both Broca's area and Wernicke's area) around the Sylvian fissure (a cleavage that separates lobes in the brain). Subsequent research has shown that many more areas of the brain are involved in language activity than was thought earlier: language activity is not localized, but core linguistic processes are typically housed in the left hemisphere.

Such specialization of the two halves of the brain is known as lateralization, and is present to some extent even in infancy (e.g. Mills, Coffey-Corina, and Neville 1993). There is increased specialization as the brain matures and has less plasticity: i.e. one area of the brain becomes less able to assume the functions of another in the event it is damaged. Lenneberg (1967) proposed that children had only a limited number of years during which they could acquire their L1 flawlessly if they suffered brain damage to the language areas; brain plasticity in childhood would allow other areas of the brain to take over the language functions of the damaged areas, but beyond a certain age, normal language would not be possible.

Communicative functions for which each hemisphere of the brain is primarily specialized are listed in table 3, as suggested by L1 research reviewed in Obler and Gjerlow (1999).

*Table 3*

*Principal Communicative Specializations of L and R Hemispheres*

Principal hemispheric specializations	
Left hemisphere	Right hemisphere
Phonology	Nonverbal (as babies' cries)
Morphology	Visuospatial information
Syntax	Intonation
Function words and inflections	Nonliteral meaning and ambiguity
Tone systems	Many pragmatic abilities
Much lexical knowledge	Some lexical knowledge

In spite of many years of research, some questions remain unanswered or answers remain controversial. In part this is because study has generally involved limited numbers of subjects and there is considerable individual variation in how the brain is “wired”; in part it is because research efforts have not used the same procedures for data collection and analysis and therefore do not yield entirely comparable results. Still, there are a number of findings which shed increasing light on the representation and organization of multiple languages in the brain. Specific questions which have been explored are listed below, along with a brief summary of results from some of the research conducted on them.

*1. How independent are the languages of multilingual speakers?*

There is no single answer to this question, both because there appears to be considerable individual variation among speakers, and because there are very complex factors which must be taken into account. It seems reasonable to conclude, however, that multiple language systems are neither completely separate nor completely fused.

Ervin and Osgood (1954; following Winreich 1953) suggested a threeway possibility for how languages relate in an individual’s mind, which are called **coordinate**, **compound**, and **subordinate bilingualism**. Coordinate refers to parallel linguistic systems, independent of one another; compound to a fused or unified system; and subordinate to one linguistic system accessed through another. Ervin and Osgood claim that these different relationships result in part because of different contexts for language learning. An extreme case of coordinate bilingualism would be the rare individual who has learned two or more languages in different contexts and is not able (even with conscious effort) to translate between them. More common would be compound bilingualism, believed by many to characterize simultaneous bilingualism in early childhood (before the age of three years), and subordinate bilingualism, believed to result from learning L2 through the medium of L1 (as in grammar-translation approaches to foreign language instruction). There is evidence that suggests the relationship may depend on L2 proficiency, changing from compound or subordinate to coordinate at higher knowledge and skill levels (Kroll and Steward 1994).

Other researchers stress the interdependence of languages, although separation can be maintained for many purposes. Opler and Gjerlow conclude that multiple linguistic systems “. . . are only as independent as necessary, and reliance on a single system is the rule whenever possible” (1999:140).

## **Learning processes**

Psychology provides us with two major frameworks for the focus on learning processes: Information Processing (IP) and Connectionism. IP has had more influence on the study of SLA than any other psychological perspective, following an approach developed by John Anderson. It makes the claim that learning language is essentially like learning other domains of knowledge: that whether people are learning mathematics, or learning to drive a car, or learning Japanese, they are not engaging in any essentially different kind of mental activity. Learning is learning. We take a general look at the information processing framework and then discuss three approaches based on it, the Multidimensional Model, Processability, and the Competition Model, respectively. The Connectionism framework also claims that “learning is learning,” but considers learning processes as a matter of increasing strength of associations rather than as the abstraction of rules or principles.

### **Information Processing (IP)**

Approaches based on IP are concerned with the mental processes involved in language learning and use. These include perception and the input of new information; the formation, organization, and regulation of internal (mental) representations; and retrieval and output strategies. The information processing approach makes a number of assumptions:

(1) Second language learning is the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill. In this respect language learning is like the acquisition of other complex skills.

(2) Complex skills can be reduced to sets of simpler component skills, which are hierarchically organized. Lower-order component skills are prerequisite to learning of higher-order skills.

(3) Learning of a skill initially demands learners’ attention, and thus involves controlled processing.

(4) Controlled processing requires considerable mental “space,” or attentional effort.

(5) Humans are limited-capacity processors. They can attend to a limited number of controlled processing demands at one time.

(6) Learners go from controlled to automatic processing with practice.

Automatic processing requires less mental “space” and attentional effort.

(7) Learning essentially involves development from controlled to automatic processing of component skills, freeing learners’ controlled processing capacity for new information and higher-order skills.

(8) Along with development from controlled to automatic processing, learning also essentially involves restructuring or reorganization of mental representations.

(9) Reorganizing mental representations as part of learning makes structures more coordinated, integrated, and efficient, including a faster response time when they are activated.

(10) In SLA, restructuring of internal L2 representations, along with larger stores in memory, accounts for increasing levels of L2 proficiency.

### Stages of Information Processing

Input	Central processing	Output
Perception	Controlled–automatic processing	Production
	Declarative–procedural knowledge	
	Restructuring	

Input for SLA is whatever sample of L2 that learners are exposed to, but it is not available for processing unless learners actually notice it: i.e. pay attention to it. Then it can become intake. It is at this point of perception of input where priorities are largely determined, and where attentional resources are channeled. Richard Schmidt (1990) lists the following features as likely contributors to the degree of noticing or awareness which will occur:

- Frequency of encounter with items;
- Perceptual saliency of items;
- Instructional strategies that can structure learner attention;
- Individuals' processing ability (a component of aptitude);
- Readiness to notice particular items (related to hierarchies of complexity);
- Task demands, or the nature of activity the learner is engaged in.

In line with this IP approach to learning, developing and testing strategies to heighten learner awareness of input and to structure attention has been a major thrust in foreign language instructional design and pedagogy, so that successful intake can occur.

Output for SLA is the language that learners produce, in speech/sign or in writing. The importance of output for successful L2 learning has been most fully expounded by Merrill Swain.

### Connectionist approaches

Connectionist approaches to learning have much in common with IP perspectives, but they focus on the increasing strength of associations between stimuli and responses rather than on the inferred abstraction of "rules" or on restructuring. Indeed, from a

connectionist perspective learning essentially is change in the strength of these connections. Some version of this idea has been present in psychology at least since the 1940s and 1950s (McClelland, Rumelhart, and Hinton 1986 for an overview of historical developments), but Connectionism has received widespread attention as a model for first and second language acquisition only since the 1980s.

### **Lecture Summary**

Psychological perspectives on what is acquired in SLA concentrate on additions or changes that occur in neurological makeup, and on how the multilingual brain is organized. We have seen that the physical representation of the second language in the brain is not very different from the first, but there are differences in brain organization which relate to how proficient people are in L2, and to how they learned it. In contrast to Chomsky's proposal that there is a species-specific Language Acquisition Device (LAD), the psychologists surveyed in this chapter generally view how second languages are learned as involving the same processes as the acquisition of other areas of complex knowledge and skills: i.e. "learning is learning." Some consider the processes to be largely a matter of abstracting rules or principles, and some to be more a physical neurological development of associative networks and connections. The question of why some learners are more successful than others leads to the examination of differences in the learners themselves. We find that language-learning outcomes are influenced by age, aptitude, and motivation. Other factors in individuals' learning styles and strategies correlate with degree of success in SLA, but we can be much less sure of claims for cause–effect relationships.

Humans are inherently social creatures, and it is difficult to assess individual cognitive factors in language learning apart from the influence of the learner's total social context, to which we turn next.

## **Theme 4: Social Perspective of SLA**

When we talk about what is being acquired in SLA, it is not enough just to talk about the language itself. We must also include the social and cultural knowledge embedded in the language being learned, that is required for appropriate language use. What must L2 learners know and be able to do in order to communicate effectively? Part of this knowledge involves different ways of categorizing objects and events and expressing experiences. But an important part involves learners understanding their own and others' roles as members of groups or communities with sociopolitical as well

as linguistic bounds. What difference does group membership and identity make in regard to what is learned, how it is acquired, and why some learners are more successful than others? In this chapter, we focus attention on two levels of context that affect language learning: the **microsocial** and the **macrosocial**: The microsocial focus deals with the potential effects of different immediately surrounding circumstances, while the macrosocial focus relates SLA to broader cultural, political, and educational environments.

An alternative view of the role of interaction in SLA is based on Sociocultural (S-C) Theory (Vygotsky 1962, 1978). A key concept in this approach is that interaction not only facilitates language learning but is a causative force in acquisition; further, all of learning is seen as essentially a social process which is grounded in sociocultural settings. S-C Theory differs from most linguistic approaches in giving relatively limited attention to the structural patterns of L2 which are learned, as well as in emphasizing learner activity and involvement over innate and universal mechanisms; and it differs from most psychological approaches in its degree of focus on factors outside the learner, rather than on factors which are completely in the learner's head, and in its denial that the learner is a largely autonomous processor. It also (as noted above) differs from most other social approaches in considering interaction as an essential force rather than as merely a helpful condition for learning.

According to S-C Theory, learning occurs when simple innate mental activities are transformed into "higher order," more complex mental functions.

This transformation typically involves symbolic mediation, which is a link between a person's current mental state and higher order functions that is provided primarily by language. This is considered the usual route to learning, whether what is being learned is language itself or some other area of knowledge. The results of learning through mediation include learners' having heightened awareness of their own mental abilities and more control over their thought processes.

### **Interpersonal interaction**

So far we are using the term "interaction" to mean **interpersonal interaction**: i.e. communicative events and situations which occur between people. One important context for symbolic mediation is such interpersonal interaction between learners and experts ("experts" include teachers and more knowledgeable learners). Vygotsky calls the level where much of this type of mediation occurs the **Zone of Proximal**

**Development (ZPD).** This is an area of potential development, where the learner can achieve that potential only with assistance. According to S-C Theory, mental functions that are beyond an individual's current level must be performed in collaboration with other people before they are achieved independently.

One way in which others help the learner in language development within the ZPD is through **scaffolding**. This includes the "vertical constructions" mentioned above as a type of modified interaction between NSs and NNSs, in which experts commonly provide learners with chunks of talk that the learners can then use to express concepts which are beyond their independent means. This type of mediation also occurs when peers collaborate in constructing language which exceeds the competence of any individual among them. More generally, the metaphor of "scaffolding" refers to verbal guidance which an expert provides to help a learner perform any specific task, or the verbal collaboration of peers to perform a task which would be too difficult for any one of them individually (see Bruner 1985). Very importantly, scaffolding is not something that happens to a learner as a passive recipient, but happens with a learner as an active participant.

<b>Scaffolding</b>
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The following dialogue (from Donato 1994) is an example of Vygotsky's notion of scaffolding (within a peer group in this case, rather than from adult to child). Alone, each member of the group lacked the knowledge to produce the French equivalent of "You remembered" ("Tu t'es souvenu") in a grammatically correct form.

However, each member of the group had some useful knowledge that they could all build upon until they arrived at the desired solution. (In the classroom while preparing for a presentation the next day . . .)

Speaker 1: . . . and then I'll say. . . *tu as souvenu notre anniversaire de mariage* . . . or should I say *mon anniversaire*?

Speaker 2: *Tu as* . . .

Speaker 3: *Tu as* . . .

Speaker 1: *Tu as souvenu* . . . 'you remembered?'

Speaker 3: Yea, but isn't that a reflexive? *Tu t'as* . . .

Speaker 1: Ah, *tu t'as souvenu*.

Speaker 2: Oh, it's *tu es* . . .

Speaker 1: *Tu t'es souvenu*.

For L2 learners, L1 as well as L2 can provide helpful mediation. Talk between peers who are collaborating in tasks is often in their common L1, which provides an efficient (and sometimes essential) medium for problemsolving and can enhance learning of both L2 and any academic subjects students are studying in the second language. Symbolic mediation can be interactional without involving face-to-face communication: although we do not often think of it that way, reading actually involves an interaction between the individual and the author(s) of a text or book, resulting in an altered state of knowledge. Symbolic mediation need not even necessarily involve language (although it usually does) but can also be achieved with such nonlinguistic symbols as gestures, diagrams and illustrations, and algebraic symbols.

A second type of intrapersonal interaction that occurs frequently in beginning stages of L2 learning – and in later stages when the content and structure of L2 input stretches or goes beyond existing language competence – makes use of L1 resources.

This takes place through translation to oneself as part of interpretive problem-solving processes.

Yet another type (which was of particular interest to Vygotsky) is **private speech**. This is the self-talk which many children (in particular) engage in that leads to the **inner speech** that more mature individuals use to control thought and behavior. While inner speech is not necessarily tied to the surface forms of any specific language, private speech is almost always verbalized in L1 and/or L2. Study of private speech when it is audible provides a “window into the mind” of sorts for researchers, through which we can actually observe intrapersonal interaction taking place and perhaps discover its functions in SLA.

## **Theme 5: Individual Differences in Learning Foreign Languages Age, Aptitude, Sex, Motivation, Cognitive Style, Personality**

### **Introduction**

In the previous lectures, we considered the basic question of why some L2 learners are more successful than others from a linguistic perspective, we will again consider this question from the perspective of the social contexts of learning. Here we address this question from a psychological perspective, focusing on differences among learners themselves.

The differences we explore here are age, sex, aptitude, motivation, cognitive style, personality, and learning strategies. Some of the relevant research looks at neurological representation and organization (such as the research reported above in the section on languages and the brain), some is of an experimental nature (which manipulates variables and makes direct claims about cause and effect), and some relies on “good language learner” studies (which deal with correlations between specific traits and successful SLA). Some of this research remains quite speculative.

### **Age**

It is a common belief that children are more successful L2 learners than adults, but the evidence for this is actually surprisingly equivocal. One reason for the apparent inconsistency in research findings is that some studies define relative “success” as initial rate of learning (where, contrary to popular belief, older learners have an

advantage) while other studies define it as ultimate achievement (where learners who are introduced to the L2 in childhood indeed do appear to have an edge). Also, some studies define “success” in terms of how close the learner’s pronunciation is to a native speaker’s, others in terms of how closely a learner approximates native grammaticality judgments, and still others in terms of fluency or functional competence. It is very important to keep evaluative criteria clearly in mind while judging conflicting claims.

The question of whether, and how, age affects L2 outcomes has been a major issue in SLA for several decades, and a number of recent publications provide reviews from different points of view (e.g. Birdsong 1999; Scovel 2000; Singleton 2001). Some of the advantages which have been reported for both younger and older learners are listed in table 4.3.

*Table 4.3*

*Age Differences in SLA*

Younger advantage	Older advantage
• Brain plasticity	• Learning capacity
• Not analytical	• Analytic ability
• Fewer inhibitions (usually)	• Pragmatic skills
• Weaker group identity	• Greater knowledge of L1
• Simplified input more likely	• Real-world knowledge

We noted in the earlier section on languages and the brain that there is a critical period for first language acquisition: children have only a limited number of years during which normal acquisition is possible. Beyond that, physiological changes cause the brain to lose its plasticity, or capacity to assume the new functions that learning language demands. Individuals who for some reason are deprived of the linguistic input which is needed to trigger first language acquisition during the critical period will never learn any language normally. One famous documented case which provides rare evidence for this point is that of Genie, an abused girl who was kept isolated from all language input and interaction until she was thirteen years old. In spite of years of intensive efforts at remediation, Genie never developed linguistic knowledge and skills for her L1 (English) that were comparable to those of speakers who began acquisition in early childhood (Curtiss 1977).

***Genie:***

***Evidence for the Critical Period Hypothesis***

*The tragic case of “Genie” bears directly on the critical period hypothesis. Genie was discovered in 1970, at the age of thirteen, having been brought up in conditions of inhuman neglect and extreme isolation. She was severely disturbed and underdeveloped, and had been unable to learn language. In the course of her treatment and rehabilitation, great efforts were made to teach her to speak. She had received next to no linguistic stimulation between the ages of two and puberty, so the evidence of her language-learning ability would bear directly on the Lenneberg hypothesis.*

*Analysis of the way Genie developed her linguistic skills showed several abnormalities, such as a marked gap between production and comprehension, variability in using rules, stereotyped speech, gaps in the acquisition of syntactic skills, and a generally retarded rate of development. After various psycholinguistic tests, it was concluded that Genie was using her right hemisphere for language (as well as for several other activities), and that this might have been the result of her beginning the task of language learning after the critical period of left-hemisphere development. The case was thus thought to support Lenneberg’s hypothesis, but only in a weak form. Genie was evidently able to acquire some language from exposure after puberty (she made great progress in vocabulary, for example, and continued to make gains in morphology and syntax), but she did not do so in a normal way. (After S. Curtiss 1977, in Crystal 1997b.)*

Lenneberg (1967) speculated that the critical period applies to SLA as well as to first language acquisition, and that this accounts for why almost all L2 speakers have a “foreign accent” if they do not begin learning the language before the cut-off age.

### **Sex**

Most research on the relation of learner sex and SLA has been concerned with cognitive style or learning strategies, or to issues of what variety of L2 is being acquired or opportunities for input and interaction (social factors to be discussed in Chapter 5). There is widespread belief in many western cultures that females tend to be better L2 learners than males, but this belief is probably primarily a social construct, based on outcomes which reflect cultural and sociopsychological constraints and influences.

There do appear to be some sex differences in language acquisition and processing, but the research evidence is mixed. For example, women outperform men in some tests of verbal fluency (such as finding words that begin with a certain letter), and women’s brains may be less asymmetrically organized than men’s for speech (Kimura 1992). Of particular potential relevance to SLA are findings in relation to mental representations in the lexicon versus the grammar: females seem to be better at

memorizing complex forms, while males appear to be better at computing compositional rules (e.g. Halpern 2000). Other differences may be related to hormonal variables: higher androgen level correlates with better automatized skills, and high estrogen with better semantic/interpretive skills (Mack 1992). Kimura (1992) reports that higher levels of articulatory and motor ability have been associated in women with higher levels of estrogen during the menstrual cycle.

### **Aptitude**

The assumption that there is a talent which is specific to language learning has been widely held for many years. The following four components were proposed by Carroll (1965) as underlying this talent, and they constitute the bases for most aptitude tests:

- *Phonemic coding ability*
- *Inductive language learning ability*
- *Grammatical sensitivity*
- *Associative memory capacity*

Phonemic coding ability is the capacity to process auditory input into segments which can be stored and retrieved. It is particularly important at very early stages of learning when this ability “is concerned with the extent to which the input which impinges on the learner can become input that is worth processing, as opposed to input which may simply be an auditory blur or alternatively only partially processed” (Skehan 1998:203). In other words, if the hearer cannot analyze the incoming stream of speech into phonemes in order to recognize morphemes, input may not result in intake.

Inductive language learning ability and grammatical sensitivity are both concerned with central processing. They account for further processing of the segmented auditory input by the brain to infer structure, identify patterns, make generalizations, recognize the grammatical function of elements, and formulate rules. It is in central processing that restructuring occurs.

Associative memory capacity is importantly concerned with how linguistic items are stored, and with how they are recalled and used in output. Associative memory capacity determines appropriate selection from among the L2 elements that are stored, and ultimately determines speaker fluency.

The concept of language-learning aptitude is essentially a hypothesis that possessing various degrees of these abilities predicts correlated degrees of success in L2 acquisition. Skehan (1998) reviews research in this area which largely supports this assumption, although he concludes that individual ability may vary by factor: e.g. a

learner who has a high level of grammatical sensitivity may have a poor associative memory or vice versa.

Talent in all factors is not a requirement for success in L2 learning. Some good learners achieve success because of their linguistic-analytic abilities, and some because of their memory aptitude. Skehan further concludes that language-learning aptitude “is not completely distinct from general cognitive abilities, as represented by intelligence tests, but it is far from the same thing” (1998:209).

The findings that aptitude is an important predictor of differential success in L2 learning holds both for naturalistic contexts and for formal classroom instruction. It is not completely deterministic, however, and is but one of several factors which may influence ultimate L2 proficiency.

### **Motivation**

Another factor which is frequently cited to explain why some L2 learners are more successful than others is individual motivation. Motivation largely determines the level of effort which learners expend at various stages in their L2 development, often a key to ultimate level of proficiency.

Motivation is variously defined, but it is usually conceived as a construct which includes at least the following components (see Oxford and Ehrman 1993; Dörnyei 2001):

- Significant goal or need
- Desire to attain the goal
- Perception that learning L2 is relevant to fulfilling the goal or meeting the need
- Belief in the likely success or failure of learning L2
- Value of potential outcomes/rewards

The most widely recognized types of motivation are integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation is based on interest in learning L2 because of a desire to learn about or associate with the people who use it (e.g. for romantic reasons), or because of an intention to participate or integrate in the L2-using speech community; in any case, emotional or affective factors are dominant. Instrumental motivation involves perception of purely practical value in learning the L2, such as increasing occupational or business opportunities, enhancing prestige and power, accessing scientific and technical information, or just passing a course in school. Neither of these orientations has an inherent advantage over the other in terms of L2 achievement. The relative effect of one or the other is dependent on complex personal and social factors: e.g. L2 learning by a member of the dominant group in a society may benefit more from integrative motivation,

and L2 learning by a subordinate group member may be more influenced by instrumental motivation. Other reported motivations include altruistic reasons, general communicative needs, desire to travel, and intellectual curiosity (Skehan 1989; Oxford and Ehrman 1993).

Most of the research on this topic has been conducted using data collected with questionnaires that ask individuals to report on their reasons for learning another language. The reliability of such information has been questioned, but the consistently high correlation between reported strength of motivation and level of L2 achievement make it seem quite likely that the connection is indeed significant. Whether any cause–effect relationship is a “chicken-and-egg” matter is more uncertain. Does high motivation cause high L2 achievement, or is the satisfaction which results from successful L2 learning responsible for increasing motivation? In the process of language learning (which usually requires several years), there is probably a reciprocal effect.

More recent developments in SLA theory (Schumann 1997, 2001) suggest that motivation for second language learning, along with L2 representation and processing, is controlled by neurological mechanisms. Specific areas within our brain conduct a “stimulus appraisal,” which assesses the motivational relevance of events and other stimuli and determines how we respond, including what our attitudes and ultimately degree of effort will be.

The potential power of motivation can be seen in rare cases where even older learners may overcome the “odds” of not acquiring native-like pronunciation – if sounding “native” is perceived to be important enough.

### **Cognitive style**

Cognitive style refers to individuals’ preferred way of processing: i.e. of perceiving, conceptualizing, organizing, and recalling information.

Unlike factors of age, aptitude, and motivation, its role in explaining why some L2 learners are more successful than others has not been well established, but extravagant claims have sometimes been made which need to be viewed with skepticism and caution. We do know that, whatever the relation of cognitive style to success, it involves a complex (and as yet poorly understood) interaction with specific L2 social and learning contexts.

Cognitive style is also closely related to and interacts with personality factors and learning strategies, which will be discussed below. Categories of cognitive style are commonly identified as pairs of traits on opposite ends of a continuum; individual learners are rarely thought to be at one extreme or the other, but are located

somewhere along the continuum between the poles. Researchers typically correlate individuals' ratings on different dimensions of cognitive style with various measures of L2 proficiency.

### **Personality**

Personality factors are sometimes added to cognitive style in characterizing more general learning style. Speculation and research in SLA has included the following factors, also often characterized as endpoints on continua, as shown in 4.5. As with cognitive styles, most of us are somewhere in between the extremes. Boldface print in this figure indicates positive correlation with success in L2 learning.

Research in this area is almost always correlational: individuals are assessed for some personality trait (usually using questionnaires and scales), and the strength of the relationship between that score and the result of an L2 language proficiency measure is calculated. Evidence in some cases is very limited or contradictory.

Anxiety has received the most attention in SLA research, along with lack of anxiety as an important component of self-confidence (see Horwitz 2001 for a review). Anxiety correlates negatively with measures of L2 proficiency including grades awarded in foreign language classes, meaning that higher anxiety tends to go with lower levels of success in L2 learning.

In addition to self-confidence, lower anxiety may be manifested by more risk-taking or more adventuresome behaviors.

We need to keep some complex issues in mind when we read about or interpret research on anxiety:

(1) The direction of cause and effect is uncertain. Lower anxiety levels might very well facilitate language learning; conversely, however, more successful language learners might feel less anxious in situations of L2 learning and use, and thus be more self-confident.

(2) Instructional context or task influences anxiety level and reporting. For example, foreign language classes or tests which require oral performance normally generate more anxiety than do those in which production is in writing. Small-group performance generates less anxiety than whole-class activity.

(3) Although personality factors are defined as individual traits, systematic cultural differences are found between groups of learners. For example, oral performance in English classes generates relatively more anxiety for Korean students (Truitt 1995) than for Turkish students (Kunt 1997). This may be because of cultural

differences in concepts of “face” (i.e. projecting a positive self-image; see Liu 2001), or because of cultural differences in classroom practices and experiences.

(4) Low anxiety and high self-confidence increase student motivation to learn, and make it more likely that they will use the L2 outside of the classroom setting. It is therefore not clear whether more successful learning is directly due to lower anxiety, or to a higher level of motivation and more social interaction.

On a partially related personality dimension, introverts generally do better in school and extroverts talk more. Some SLA researchers have hypothesized that extroverts would be more successful language learners, but there is no clear support for the advantage of either trait.

### **Learning strategies**

Differential L2 outcomes may also be affected by individuals’ learning strategies: i.e. the behaviors and techniques they adopt in their efforts to learn a second language. Selection from among possible strategies is often a conscious choice on the part of learners, but it is strongly influenced by the nature of their motivation, cognitive style, and personality, as well as by specific contexts of use and opportunities for learning. The other variables we considered earlier in this section – age, sex, and aptitude – also play a role in strategy selection. Many learning strategies are culturally based: individuals learn how to learn as part of their socialization experiences, and strategies they acquire in relation to other domains are commonly transferred to language learning, which may take place under very different circumstances, sometimes within a foreign educational system.

Not all strategies are equal: some are inherently more effective than others, and some more appropriate in particular contexts of learning or for individuals with differing aptitudes and learning styles. One goal in SLA research has been to identify which strategies are used by relatively good language learners, with the hope that such strategies can be taught or otherwise applied to enhance learning.

A typology of language-learning strategies which is widely used in SLA was formulated by O’Malley and Chamot (Chamot 1987):

- **Metacognitive:** e.g. previewing a concept or principle in anticipation of a learning activity; deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of input; rehearsing linguistic components which will be required for an upcoming language task; self-monitoring of progress and knowledge states.

- **Cognitive:** e.g. repeating after a language model; translating from L1; remembering a new word in L2 by relating it to one that sounds the same in L1, or by creating vivid images; guessing meanings of new material through inferencing.

- **Social/affective:** e.g. seeking opportunities to interact with native speakers; working cooperatively with peers to obtain feedback or pool information; asking questions to obtain clarification; requesting repetition, explanation, or examples.

### **Positive Effects of Multilingualism**

Research since the 1960s has largely supported claims that multilingualism has positive effects on intellectual functions, based on “measures of conceptual development, creativity, metalinguistic awareness, semantic development, and analytic skills” (Diaz 1985:18). The following list is a summary of positive findings (Diaz and Klingler 1991:184):

- Bilingual children show consistent advantages in tasks of both verbal and nonverbal abilities.

- Bilingual children show advanced metalinguistic abilities, especially manifested in their control of language processing.

- Cognitive and metalinguistic advantages appear in bilingual situations that involve systematic uses of the two languages, such as simultaneous acquisition settings or bilingual education.

- The cognitive effects of bilingualism appear relatively early in the process of becoming bilingual and do not require high levels of bilingual proficiency nor the achievement of balanced bilingualism.

- Bilingual children have advantages in the use of language for verbal mediation, as shown by their higher frequency of private-speech utterances and their larger number of private-speech functions.

